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Role of HOXA9 in leukemia: dysregulation, cofactors and essential targets

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Abstract

HOXA9 is a homeodomain-containing transcription factor that plays an important role in hematopoietic stem cell expansion and is commonly deregulated in acute leukemias. A variety of upstream genetic alterations in acute myeloid leukemia (AML) lead to overexpression of *HOXA9*, which is a strong predictor of poor prognosis. In many cases, *HOXA9* has been shown to be necessary for maintaining leukemic transformation, however the molecular mechanisms through which it promotes leukemogenesis remain elusive. Recent work has established that HOXA9 regulates downstream gene expression through binding at promoter distal enhancers along with a subset of cell-specific cofactor and collaborator proteins. Increasing efforts are being made to identify both the critical cofactors and target genes required for maintaining transformation in *HOXA9*-overexpressing leukemias. With continued advances in understanding *HOXA9*-mediated transformation, there is a wealth of opportunity for developing novel therapeutics that would be applicable for the greater than 50% of AML with overexpression of *HOXA9*.

Keywords

HOXA9; leukemia; cofactor; enhancer

INTRODUCTION

HOX proteins are a family of homeodomain containing transcription factors that were first described in *Drosophila* for their ability to produce homeotic transformations – that is, changing one section of the body into another – when misexpressed during development (1, 2). Since this early discovery, an entire field has been devoted to studying these master regulators of developmental processes and their role in disease. The 39 mammalian *HOX* genes are arranged into four parologous clusters on separate chromosomes, allowing for the tight transcriptional control required to establish the anterior-posterior body plan and assign tissue fate (3, 4). As such, dysregulation of *HOX* genes results in a variety of developmental disorders and malignancies.

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HOXA9 is of particular interest as it has been shown to be over expressed in more than 50% of acute myeloid leukemias and is highly associated with poor prognosis (5–9). A variety of upstream genetic alterations can lead to dysregulation of *HOXA9*, including *MLL*translocations, NUP98-fusions, *NPM1c* mutations, *CDX* dysregulation and MOZ-fusions. One challenge to defining the mechanisms through which HOXA9 over expression contributes to AML is the relative lack of understanding of how HOX proteins regulate gene expression. Recent work suggests that HOXA9 binding specificity is achieved through a combination of motif affinity, interactions with cofactor and collaborating proteins, and context-specific chromatin accessibility (10–12). In addition, multiple studies have established that HOXA9 can both activate and repress downstream gene expression, though the mechanisms for these actions are relatively unknown. Finally, increasing efforts are being made towards identifying the critical downstream targets of HOXA9 required for transformation in AML. In this review, we will highlight recent advances in understanding the role of HOXA9 in leukemia and discuss important questions that remain in the field.

REGULATION OF HOX GENE EXPRESSION

During development, *HOX* genes follow both a temporal and spatial pattern of expression, such that 3' *HOX* genes are expressed earliest in the embryo and in the anterior regions, while 5' *HOX* genes are expressed at later stages and more posteriorly (3, 4). The tight regulation of *HOX* expression is the coordinated effort of a variety of factors including epigenetic regulators, early developmental transcription factors, and long non-coding RNAs (13–15). Additionally, it is becoming clear that the 3D localization of the *HOX* loci within the nucleus also plays an important role in coordinating expression (16, 17).

The two master epigenetic regulators of *HOX* gene expression, including *HOXA9*, belong to the Trithorax and the Polycomb group histone methyltransferases, which activate and repress transcription respectively (18). The mixed lineage leukemia (MLL) methyltransferase positively regulates *HOXA9* expression by trimethylating histone 3 lysine 4 (H3K4me3) at its promoter (19). This activity is directly antagonized by the sequential activity of polycomb repressive complexes PRC1 and PRC2, responsible for trimethylating histone 3 lysine 27 (H3K27me3) (18). Studies in both *Drosophila* and mice have found that, similar to mutations in individual HOX proteins, mutations in trithorax proteins/MLL can lead to homeotic transformations (20). In addition, loss of MLL in mouse models leads to profound impairment of hematopoiesis (21, 22). As such, alterations in the activity or expression of *MLL* or PRCs can lead to a variety of both developmental disorders and hematopoietic malignancies (23, 24).

Along with MLL and PRC methyltransferases, the CDX family of transcription factors also play an important role in regulating *HOXA9* expression during embryonic hematopoiesis (25). CDX1, 2 and 4 are members of the unclustered ParaHox class of homeobox genes that, like HOX proteins, contain a DNA-binding homeodomain (26). Studies in various model systems show that CDX proteins activate expression of *HOX* genes primarily in the A and B clusters, though the mechanisms for this regulation are unknown (27–29). In addition, studies in zebrafish have established a requirement for CDX4 in maintaining *HOX* gene expression during embryonic hematopoiesis (27, 30).

Along with epigenetic modifiers and early transcription factors, *HOX* gene expression is also regulated by long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), though direct regulation of *HOXA9* by lncRNAs has yet to be established. LncRNAs can activate or repress *HOX* genes through the interaction and recruitment of trithorax and polycomb histone modifying complexes. Both HOTTIP (HOXA transcript at the distal tip) and Hoxb5b6as, lncRNAs expressed from the 5' region of HOXA13 and the Hoxb5/6 locus respectively, can interact with trithorax group proteins to maintain active transcription of their corresponding gene clusters (15, 31). Conversely, HOTAIR (HOX antisense intergenic RNA) is a lncRNA that is transcribed from the HOXC locus that functions to maintain repression of the HOXD locus through interaction with PRC2 and histone demethylase LSD1 (32). While there are currently no studies of HOX-specific lncRNAs in leukemia, misexpression of these lncRNAs has been observed in a variety of solid tumors, suggesting a possible role in hematopoietic malignancies as well (33–42).

As technologies for identifying long range chromatin interactions and mapping genomewide chromosome conformation continue to improve, it is becoming clear that the chromosomal conformation and physical location of genes in the nucleus contributes greatly to the regulation of global gene expression (43). Recent work has established that the 3D localization of the *HOX* genes within the nucleus plays an important role in their regulation. Studies in *Drosophila* have shown that subsets of *HOX* genes frequently colocalize in distinct nuclear foci, called Polycomb repressive bodies, leading to coordinated repression of these targets (16, 17). DNA regulatory elements that contribute the physical interaction and colocalization of these loci are required for effective expression silencing, however these interactions are also topographically constrained by chromatin architecture (17).

ROLE OF HOXA9 IN HEMATOPOIESIS

Upon completion of development, most *HOX* genes are transcriptionally silenced, however certain members of the A, B and C clusters are important regulators of adult hematopoiesis (44, 45). Expression of *HOX* genes in hematopoiesis follows a pattern similar to that during development such that anterior *HOX* genes (*HOX1–6*) are expressed in early uncommitted progenitors while posterior *HOX* genes (*Hox7–13*) are expressed in myeloid and erythroidcommitted CD34+ cells (45). As cells become fully mature and lose CD34 positivity, *HOX* gene expression is silenced. The functional redundancy of many of the HOX proteins is such that knockout models of many *HOX* genes result in only mild hematopoietic phenotypes. Loss of individual *HoxB* genes and even the entire *HoxB* locus leads to only slight reduction in bone marrow cellularity, without significantly affecting the ability of HSCs to repopulate bone marrow (46–50). Similarly, loss of *HOX* genes in the A and C cluster leads to mild lineage skewing affecting primarily the erythroid compartment (51–55). *HOXA9* is the most highly expressed *HOX* gene in the hematopoietic compartment, and as such *Hoxa9*−/− mice display the most dramatic hematopoietic phenotype in knockout mouse models (56, 57). While loss of *Hoxa9* in murine models leads to only mild pancytopenia, competitive repopulation assays uncover a significant reduction in *Hoxa9*−/− fetal liver HSC repopulation capacity compared to normal HSCs (58). In addition, over expression of *HOXA9* leads to expansion of HSCs and early progenitors, leading to myeloproliferative phenotypes in mice (59). It should be noted that this myeloproliferation will not progress to

AML in the absence of additional genetic factors, such as the co-expression of its cofactor *MEIS1* or fusion to nucleoporin protein Nup98. In the case of *MEIS1*, which is almost always expressed at high levels along with *HOXA9* in human disease, co-expression leads to a rapidly fatal leukemia in mice with an average latency of 40–60 days (50, 60, 61).

DYSREGULATION OF HOXA9 IN ACUTE LEUKEMIA

The most broadly studied diseases with dysregulation of *HOX* genes are acute leukemias (59, 62, 63). In most cases, *HOX* genes are expressed at high levels in acute leukemias, with *HOXA9* in particular having a 2–8 fold higher expression in AML compared to healthy controls in about 50% of cases (6, 64). High expression levels of *HOXA and B* genes has been associated with an intermediate to unfavorable prognosis in acute leukemias (5, 7, 9, 65). In one study, HOXA9 was found to be the single strongest predictor of poor prognosis in acute myeloid leukemia (8). It should be noted that high expression of *HOXA9* often coincides with upstream genetic alterations that themselves have negative prognostic values in AML. As such it is difficult to determine if *HOXA9* is a predictor of poor prognosis independently of concurrent genetic alterations. On the other hand, HOXA9 has been shown to directly regulate critical downstream genes such as *Bcl-2* and *Ink4a/ARF/Ink4b*, which themselves are linked to poor outcomes, providing plausible evidence for a direct role for HOXA9 in determining prognosis in AML (66, 67). Additionally, the wide variety of upstream genetic alterations that lead to over expression of *HOXA9* suggests that it serves as a common pathway for leukemic transformation.

MLL-Fusion Proteins

About 10% of acute leukemias harbor chromosomal translocations at the 11q23 locus involving *MLL*, that are associated with an aggressive clinical course (68). There have been over 60 different fusion partners of MLL identified, though 90% of these translocations involve one of nine partners: AF1P (EPS15), AF4 (AFF1), AF6 (MLLT4), AF9 (MLLT3), AF10 (MLLT10), AF17 (MLLT6), ENL (MLLT1), ELL, and SEPT6 (69). In addition, a partial tandem duplication event can occur within the N-terminus of MLL, which is observed in about 10% of cytogenically normal AML (70). MLL fusion proteins constitutively up regulate *HOXA9* expression, which is both required and sufficient for maintaining leukemic transformation (71, 72). The up regulation of *HOXA9* is directly linked to histone 3 lysine 4 trimethylation at promoters by MLL-fusion proteins, however there has also been documentation of DNA hypomethylation at various HOX promoters in MLL-fusion leukemias (73).

NUP98-Fusion Proteins

NUP98 is a member of the nucleoporin family of proteins that coassociate to form multisubunit channels in nuclear membranes. These nuclear pore complexes (NPCs) were first described for their role in facilitating transfer of metabolites and molecules between the cytoplasm and nucleus (74). Recent work has found that NPCs also play a critical role in defining the chromatin landscape in the nucleus and facilitating gene transcription from euchromatic regions of the genome (75). Nucleoporins are involved in chromosomal translocations that can lead to acute leukemias, most commonly involving *NUP98* (reviewed

in (76)). The most potent *NUP98* oncogenes are those fused to one of eight homeobox partners, including HOXA9 (77). These fusions in turn lead to general up regulation of additional *HOX* genes including *HOXA5, HOXA7, HOXA9* and *HOXA10*, which contribute to leukemogenesis (78). In addition, fusions with *NSD1* and *JARID1A* upregulate *HOXA* and *HOXB* in AML and AMKL (79, 80). It is noteworthy that, aside from increases in *HOX* genes, these leukemias have an expression signature distinct of that from *MLL*-rearranged leukemias (80).

NPM1c

One of the most common genetic abnormalities in adult AML is mutation in the chaperone protein Nucleophosmin1 (81). While under normal conditions NPM1 resides primarily in the nucleus, mutations seen in AML result in cytoplasmic localization of NPM1 (82). Cytoplasmic NPM1 (NPM1c) up regulates the expression of *HOXA9, HOXA10* and *MEIS1*, though the precise mechanism is currently unknown (83). One possible mechanism is that *HOXA9* is up regulated as a result of the cytoplasmic sequestration of HEXIM1 by NPM1c, leading to the activation of the MLL transcriptional partner P-TEFb (84–86). Studies in mice have also established that NPM1c can collaborate with *Flt3*, *Csf2* and *Rasgrp1* in vivo to produce leukemias with long latency (87).

Other mechanisms of HOXA9 dysregulation

Many additional upstream genetic alterations lead to *HOXA9* dysregulation in acute leukemia. Deletions or decreased expression of polycomb protein EZH2 leads to leukemia with up regulation of *HOXA9* (88). Conversely over expression of Cdx proteins, in collaboration with Meis1, leads to leukemias with high levels of *Hox* expression (89, 90). Monocytic leukemia zinc finger (MOZ) fusion proteins can directly up regulate *HOXA9/10* and *MEIS1* in AML by colocalizing at promoters with the histone acetyltransferase, BRPF1 (91). Chromosomal translocations generating the CALM-AF10 fusion protein, as well as those involving the T-cell receptor promoter and the HOXA locus, lead to *HOX* up regulation in T-ALL (78, 92). *Hoxa9* also collaborates with *E2A–PBX1* in murine B cell leukemia to repress B-cell genes and activate *Flt3* (93). Finally, mutations in *ASXL1* are common in myelodysplastic syndromes and are associated with high expression of HOXA9, mediated by inhibition of the PRC2 (94).

MECHANISMS OF HOXA9-REGULATED GENE TRANSCRIPTION

It is becoming clear *HOX* genes carry out their highly specialized function through association at promoter distal, lineage specific cis-regulatory elements, however understanding how HOXA9 and other HOX proteins are targeted these sites has been challenging (12, 95). As discussed below all HOX proteins share a highly homologous DNA binding homeodomain, which because of its short recognition sequence alone cannot account for the distinct subpopulations of target genes seen in development and hematopoiesis. Additional sequence specificity is likely achieved through association with other DNA-binding cofactors and collaborator proteins. These proteins may also function to establish areas of chromatin accessibility in a given cell type and recruit and stabilize HOX proteins at various loci. Furthermore, the downstream activity of HOXA9 to activate or

repress target gene expression may be modulated these cofactors and collaborators. Below we will discuss what is known about DNA binding properties of HOX proteins and known binding partners that confer specificity to HOX proteins, with a focus on recent advances in the field.

HOXA9 regulates gene expression through enhancer binding

The homeobox family of transcription factors is defined by the presence of a DNA binding homeodomain, which is highly homologous within the 39 mammalian HOX proteins and conserved across species. Early studies have found that this 60-amino acid region makes direct contact with DNA via 4 critical amino acids - aa47, 50, 51, and 54 - within the third alpha helix of the homeodomain (96). Interestingly, nearly all homeodomains contain the same residues in these critical positions (97). In addition, comprehensive work has established that all HOX homeodomains bind highly similar AT-rich DNA motifs (98–100). In Drosophila, this TAATNA motif occurs over 100,000 times throughout the genome, and thus cannot explain the distinct subsets of target genes for each HOX protein (99). Conversely, the presence of this recognition sequence seems critically important for DNA binding as a ChIP-seq study of genome-wide HOXA9 binding sites in transformed myeloblasts found that >98% of sites contain a HOX motif (101).

Studies have found that the small differences in homeodomains themselves can confer unique properties to HOX proteins (102, 103). For example, swapping the homeodomains of Hoxa1 and Hoxa9 conferred leukemogenic properties to Hoxa1 while abolishing those of Hoxa9 (104). This phenomenon required the presence of the N-terminal region and PBX cofactor interaction motif, though these regions were interchangeable between Hoxa1 and Hoxa9. There are additional examples of this phenomenon in HoxD proteins with respect to motor neuron fate and rib development (105, 106). Interestingly, the contributions of the homeodomain to specific phenotypes may also be the result of interaction with different cofactors, as this region has been found to mediate protein-protein interactions in addition to DNA-binding. For example, Cdx1 and Foxo1a have been shown to interact with the homeodomain regions of HOX proteins (107).

In addition to motif affinity of a particular homeodomain, gene regulation specific to a single HOX protein likely results from the combination of chromatin accessibility and the subset of cofactors and collaborators expressed in the specific cellular context. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) of the *Drosophila* HOX protein ultrabithorax (Ubx) across various stages of development indicates that binding is strongly influenced by chromatin accessibility (108, 109). In the hematopoietic system, early factors such as PU.1 and C/ EBPα are known to establish areas of relaxed chromatin that allow for signaling dependent recruitment of various transcription factors, likely mediated by SWI/SNF chromatin remodelers (110, 111). Interestingly, both C/EBPα and SWI/SNF factor Brg1 colocalize with HOXA9 at hundreds of promoter distal regulatory regions throughout the genome of HOXA9/MEIS1 transformed myeloblasts, suggesting that chromatin accessibility likely plays a key role in the targeting of HOXA9 to specific genomic loci (6, 101). This targeting is then further honed through specific protein-protein interactions with cofactors and collaborator proteins that are expressed along with HOXA9 in a particular cellular milieu.

HOXA9 interacting partners

It is well established that HOXA9 and other HOX proteins bind DNA and regulate downstream gene expression along with a small subset of cofactor proteins (112). The most well characterized cofactors are members of the Three-amino-acid-loop-extension (TALE) family of proteins (113) including Pbx1–4, Meis1–3 and Prep1–2. In addition, HOX proteins can homo and heterodimerize to aid in diversity and specificity of binding (114). Whether HOX proteins co-bind with Meis or with Prep proteins subdivides clusters of binding sites (115). There is also evidence that binding may be sequential such that TALE factors initially bind at regulatory elements to promote the deposition of poised chromatin marks, whereby subsequent recruitment of HOX proteins results in transcriptional activation (116). Indeed, the majority of sites co-bound by HOX and PBX proteins show histone H3 K27 acetylation and not trimethylation, suggesting that complexes containing HOX/PBX may be primarily transcriptional activators (99). Additional studies have established that interactions with TALE cofactors are not required at some loci and HOX proteins themselves may homo or heterodimerize at these sites (117). Furthermore, there is new evidence of antagonism between TALE proteins and HOX proteins at specific genomic regions (118).

In the setting of leukemia, the most critical cofactor of HOXA9 is the TALE protein, MEIS1. *MEIS1* expression parallels that of *HOXA9* during hematopoiesis, where it is highly expressed in early progenitors and subsequently downregulated during terminal differentiation (44). Like *HOXA9*, *MEIS1* is directly upregulated by MLL-fusion proteins in both acute myeloid and acute lymphoblastic leukemias and is required for maintaining transformation (19, 119, 120). Futhermore, *MEIS1* is almost always expressed at high levels along with *HOXA9* in non-MLL-translocated leukemias, where high expression correlates with poor prognosis (60, 121, 122). Multiple studies have implicated that HOXA9 and MEIS1 play both a synergistic and causative role in acute leukemias. More than 90% of leukemias that arise in the BZH2 murine retroviral mutagenesis model have independent viral integrations that result in upregulation of both *Hoxa9* and *Meis1* (123). In addition, murine models of *HOXA9*-mediated leukemia require co-expression of *MEIS1* to produce an aggressive disease (50, 61). This requirement is likely secondary to cooperation between HOXA9 and MEIS1 at enhancers on the genome-wide level. Indeed, nearly half of HOXA9 binding sites in *HOXA9/MEIS1*-transformed myeloblasts are co-bound by MEIS1, including sites associated with pro-leukemic target genes (101). At these co-bound sites, MEIS1 helps to recruit transcription regulatory machinery. Indeed MEIS1 has been shown to associate with CREB and CBP in a GSK-3-dependent manner, which is required for maintaining the MLL leukemia stem cell transcriptional program (124). This interaction can be targeted using GSK-3 inhibitors, leading to inhibition of cells transformed by MLL-fusion proteins or *HOXA9/MEIS1*, thus presenting a novel therapeutic target for leukemias with high expression of HOXA9 (124–126). More recent work has also established PBX3 as a critical cofactor required for cytogenetically abnormal AML, presenting an additional target for future therapies (127). Results are promising as the small molecule inhibitor HXR9, which targets the HOX/PBX interaction, was shown to inhibit cell growth and promote apoptosis in AML cell lines that expressed high levels of HOXA9 and PBX3 (127, 128).

It has been proposed by Mann and colleagues that context specific collaborator proteins provide a final level of binding specificity to HOX complexes to allow for their specific actions on gene expression (99). These tissue specific interactors bind along with HOX proteins and TALE cofactors to establish areas of chromatin accessibility, provide stability in DNA binding and help modulate the downstream activity of HOX complexes (129). Recent studies have focused on identifying potential collaborator proteins in a variety of systems. Yeast two hybrid approaches have been used to identify binding partners for Hoxa1 and Hoxa9 ((130) and unpublished). In addition, our group has identified interactors of Hoxa9 in transformed myeloblastic cell lines using co-immunoprecipitation with massspectrometry followed by western blot confirmation (101). The transcription factors C/ebpα and Stat5b were both identified in this binding partner screen, along with the chromatinremodeling enzyme Brg1 and multiple other members of the SWI/SNF complex. Interestingly, each of these putative collaborators are known to be mutated or otherwise dysregulated in leukemia, providing further basis for studying their functional interplay with HOXA9 (131–133). In addition, recent work has shown that C/EBPα is required for HOXA9-mediated leukemogenesis *in vitro* and *in vivo* (6). Multiple other proteins that physically interact with HOXA9 have been identified using various techniques, as summarized in Table 1. With these approaches some themes in collaborator proteins are surfacing. Many are lineage specific factors known for general priming of enhancer regions of the genome, while others are involved in signal transduction.

Following targeting to specific sites, HOX complexes most likely control downstream gene expression through the interaction with histone modifying machinery. Both Hoxa9 and Meis1 have been shown to recruit the histone acetyltransferase p300/CBP to mediate activation of downstream targets (124, 134, 135). Recent work also established that Hoxa9 interacts with the histone methyltransferase G9a, and that this interaction is required for aggressive disease in mouse models of leukemia (136). Similarly, both activation and repression domains have been defined in Hoxa10 (and other Hox10 proteins) that facilitate interaction with CBP and HDAC2 respectively (137, 138). HOX proteins can also interact with other enzymes and machinery leading to their own modification (139). HOXA9 is phosphorylated by protein kinase C in the N-terminal region of it's homeodomain, leading to decreased DNA binding and promoting myeloid differentiation (140). In addition, HOXA9 can be methylated by PRMT5 in a TNFa-dependant manner, which promotes downstream expression of E-selectin and VCAM-1 (141).

TRANSCRIPTIONAL TARGETS OF HOXA9

In addition to characterizing the mechanisms through which HOXA9 regulates downstream gene expression, identifying the downstream targets that mediate leukemic transformation is critically important. Many efforts have been made using both genome-wide approaches and site-specific experiments for identifying these important targets in both development and disease (Table 2).

Targets in Leukemia

Considerable progress has been made towards understanding HOXA9-mediated leukemogenesis through the identification of the genome-wide binding sites of HOXA9 and

MEIS1 in transformed myeloblastic cells. ChIP-seq experiments using murine bone marrow transduced with HOXA9 and MEIS1 identified thousands genomic regions that bind HOXA9, MEIS1 or both, and these regions showed a high degree of evolutionary conservation (6, 101). Over 90% of the binding sites are located in distal intergenic regions (>10kb from transcriptional start sites) or gene introns, while less than 3% are located within 3kb of promoter regions. These studies also identified multiple proleukemic targets with cisregulatory regions bound by HOXA9, including *Erg, Flt3, Lmo2 and Myb*. In addition, both microarray and RNA-seq studies in models with inducible expression of *HOXA9* have identified hundreds of genes with significant changes in expression following the loss of *HOXA9* (6, 101). Interestingly, near equal numbers of genes are activated and repressed by *HOXA9*, suggesting that *HOXA9* may play an important role in both activating and inhibitory transcriptional regulation complexes. Consistent with its role as a proto-oncogene, HOXA9 generally up-regulates proliferative genes, while suppressing expression of myeloid differentiation and inflammatory genes.

Many HOXA9 targets have been studied individually and found to play important roles in HOXA9-mediated leukemogenesis. Knockdown of Lmo2 impairs growth of leukemic cells and high levels of Lmo2 predict poor prognosis in patients (142). Hoxa9 activates *Bcl-2* expression, which is required for transformation by Hoxa9, Nup98-Hoxa9 and MLL. Furthermore, loss of Bcl-2 leads to improved survival in mouse model of Hoxa9/Meis1 transformed leukemia (143). MLL-ELL up regulates *Fgf2* expression in a Hoxa9/a10 dependent fashion, leading to increased proliferation and cytokine hypersensitivity (88, 91). Hoxa1 and Hoxa9 regulate Rac1 activity by directly upregulating Vav2 expression (144). In very recent work, *Igf1* has also been identified as a direct target of HOXA9 required for leukemic transformation (145). Finally, multiple studies have implicated a role for Hoxa9 in the regulation of *Ink4a/b* expression, critical mediators of HSC self-renewal, apoptosis and oncogene-induced senescence whose expression leads to a block in cell cycle at the G1 phase (146). The *Inka/b* locus is commonly deleted or silenced in acute lymphoid leukemias (147–149). Interestingly Hoxa9 has been shown to repress *Ink4a* expression to overcome oncogene-induced senescence during transformation by AML1-ETO in Bmi1−/− cells, as well as in Hoxa9/Meis1 transformed cells (6, 150).

Currently genome-wide studies of HOXA9 binding have been constrained to over expression models due to lack of ChIP-grade antibodies for endogenous HOXA9 in either human or murine cells. While studies in transformed cells have led to significant advances in our understanding of the role of HOXA9 in leukemia, questions remain with regards to the function of HOXA9 in normal hematopoiesis. One of the more interesting unanswered questions is whether HOXA9 binding sites are shared in normal and transformed cells or if HOXA9-mediated transformation represents a true gain of function with activation/ repression of novel leukemogenic target genes. In addition, fully characterizing HOXA9 binding sites in the setting of various upstream transforming oncogenes can help determine if there is a common HOXA9 target gene set in leukemia. The continued improvement of ChIP reagents and technology will help to answer these questions and others to allow for further advances in the understanding of HOXA9 biology.

Non-transcriptional roles of Hoxa9

In addition to acting as a classical transcription factor regulating downstream gene expression, HOXA9 may also have non-transcriptional functions that are critical for its role in malignancy (151). For example, Hoxa9 can act as an E3 ligase for DNA replication inhibitor Geminin, leading to its degradation, which contributes to Hoxa9-mediated transformation (152, 153). Conflicting reports however also find that Hoxa9-Geminin binding can sequester Hoxa9 thereby inhibiting its transcriptional activity (154). Alternate mechanisms have been described for other HOX proteins as well. For example, Hoxa2 can indirectly stabilize p53 by binding to p53's E3 ubiquitin ligase, RCHY1, leading to the degradation of RCHY1 (155). Hoxa7 and Hoxa14 can bind to the initiation factor eIF4E in liver cancer, potentially affecting the nuclear transport of eIF4E-dependent transcripts like *cmyc, fgf2, vegf*, ornithine decarboxylase and cyclin-D1 (156). Finally, the yeast-two-hybrid screen of Hoxa1 interactors identified many putative binding partners involved in signal transduction, cell adhesion and vesicular trafficking, pointing to additional nontranscriptional roles for this and other HOX proteins (130).

CONCLUSIONS

As more and more malignancies involving dysregulation of *HOX* genes are identified, it is clear that the mechanisms through which HOX proteins exert their function need to be better defined. HOXA9 is of particular interest as it is overexpressed in over 50% of acute myeloid leukemias, as well as B and T cell leukemias, and its high level of expression is associate with poor prognosis. Research to date suggests that HOXA9 acts to modulate the activity of distal regulatory elements through recruitment of histone modifying and transcriptional machinery that likely act at promoters via long-range chromatin interactions, thereby up regulating a set of proleukemogenic target genes while repressing others involved in processes such as cellular senescence. Identifying new posttranslational modifications and protein-protein interactions required for HOX function is likely to be a promising avenue for identifying new therapeutic targets along with the identification of drug-amenable HOX targets that are essential for leukemia.

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Collins and Hess Page 21

Figure 1.

HOXA9 regulation in normal hematopoiesis and leukemia. (A) During development and hematopoiesis, expression of *HOXA9* is primarily regulated by the antagonistic actions of the MLL complex and polycomb repressive complex. These histone methytransferases deposit the activating H3K4me3 and repressive H3K27me3 marks respectively. CDX proteins also play a role in *HOXA9* regulation, through mechanisms that are not well defined. (B) A variety of upstream genetic alterations lead to the up regulation of HOXA9, which is essential for the acute leukemias that result from these alterations. Decreased expression of *EZH2* and chromosomal translocations leading to MLL-fusion proteins result in activation of HOXA9 expression through dysregulated chromatin modification. Cytoplasmic mutations of *NPM1*, fusion proteins with NUP98 and overexpression of *CDX2* and *CDX4* also leads to up regulation of HOXA9 through mechanisms that remain to be completely defined. HOXA9 likely goes on to promote transformation through the

activation of proproliferative genes and the repression of genes required for cellular differentiation.

Table 1

HOXA9 Interacting Partners

Table 2

HOXA9 Target Genes

