



Recent Advances in Growth Factors

Thrombopoietin: its role from early hematopoiesis to platelet production

FRANÇOISE WENDLING

INSERM U 362, Institut Gustave Roussy, Pavillon de Recherche 1, Villejuif-Cedex, France

ABSTRACT

Background and Objective. Thrombopoietin (TPO), also referred to as Mpl ligand, is the most potent cytokine that physiologically regulates platelet production. With the availability of sufficient amounts of recombinant forms of the protein, the biological *in vitro* and *in vivo* activities of this cytokine have been extensively studied. The objective of this review is to summarize the published data focusing on TPO production and regulation and to discuss the pleiotropic biological action of this hormone. The review also highlights the results so far obtained in preclinical and clinical trials.

Evidence and Information Sources. The material examined in this review includes data published by the author and articles or abstracts published in journals covered by Medline®. The author has contributed to the isolation of TPO, has been working in the field for several years and has contributed original papers on the TPO/Mpl system in normal and pathologic situations.

State of the Art. TPO is a hormone constitutively produced by the liver and kidneys. Plasma levels of TPO are regulated through receptor-mediated uptake, internalization and catabolism. First thought to be a lineage dominant factor promoting megakaryocytopoiesis, several lines of evidence indicate that TPO has pleiotropic effects on hematopoiesis. *In vitro* studies show that TPO alone, or in combination with early acting cytokines, stimulates the proliferation and enhances the expansion of primitive CD34⁺CD38⁻ hematopoietic progenitor cells. *In vivo* studies with *c-mpl*- and TPO-null mice reveal that the molecule sustains the survival and proliferation of early committed progenitor cells of various type. Preclinical and clinical trials indicate that recombinant TPO molecules increase platelet counts and megakaryocyte numbers in normal or mildly thrombocytopenic states. However, no significant effects of TPO administration on platelet recovery have so far been reported in patients subjected to intensive chemotherapy regimens. Recombinant molecules appear to be safe to administer and very little toxicity is reported. TPO augments the number of erythroid and myeloid committed progenitor cells in marrow, and mobilized stem cells in peripheral blood.

Perspectives. The potential clinical use of TPO is still unclear. With the increased knowledge of the multiple effects of TPO on hematopoiesis, it is expected that future carefully monitored clinical trials will provide more information regarding the eventual benefits of this cytokine in the treatment of thrombocytopenia. At present, one successful application of TPO appears to be its addition in cytokine cocktails used to expand hematopoietic stem cells *ex vivo*.

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Key words: thrombopoietin, Mpl ligand, megakaryopoiesis, hematopoiesis, stem cells

Megakaryocytopoiesis is the cellular process of proliferation and differentiation leading to the production of platelets. Back in 1958, it was suggested that this hematopoietic cellular lineage was regulated by a humoral growth factor, termed thrombopoietin,¹ present in plasma from severely thrombocytopenic animals and patients. However, all attempts to purify this molecule remained frustrated. With the isolation of several recombinant cytokines and data obtained mainly from cultures, it was thought that megakaryocytopoiesis was regulated at multiple cellular levels because certain pleiotropic cytokines were able to promote the proliferation of committed megakaryocyte (BFU- and CFU-MK) progenitors, while others primarily induced the differentiation of megakaryoblasts (for reviews, see refs. #2-4). These cytokines are classically divided into 3 groups. Interleukin-3 (IL-3) and granulocyte macrophage-colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF) used alone in culture systems are potent stimulators of MK progenitor proliferation, but have little effect on maturation. The interleukin-6 family members (IL-6, IL-11, oncostatin M and LIF) have virtually no effect on proliferation of MK progenitors, but potentiate the action of IL-3 and GM-CSF by acting predominantly on MK maturation. Stem cell factor (SCF, also known as *c-kit* ligand or *steel factor*) and Flk2/Flt3 ligand (fetal liver kinase) alone have minor effects on MK colony formation, but synergize the proliferative action of several cytokines. Although these cytokines lack specificity for the megakaryocytic lineage, their thrombopoietic effects have been evaluated in clinical trials (for a review see ref. #5).

Correspondence: Françoise Wendling, Ph.D., INSERM U 362, Institut Gustave Roussy, Pavillon de Recherche 1, 39 rue Camille Desmoulins, 94805 Villejuif-Cedex, France.
Phone: international +33-1-42114671 - Fax: international +33-1-42115240 - E-mail: frog@igr.fr

Isolation of thrombopoietin, the ligand for the proto-oncogene c-mpl

The isolation of the mutant murine myeloproliferative leukemia virus (MPLV) opened a way to the identification of the physiologic regulator of platelet production.⁶ This retrovirus has naturally transduced in its genome the *v-mpl* oncogene which corresponds to a truncated version of a cellular gene named *c-mpl*.⁷ Sequencing of the human and murine *c-mpl* cDNAs revealed that the polypeptide was a transmembrane receptor, structurally and functionally related to members of the hematopoietic receptor superfamily devoided of intrinsic catalytic domains.⁸⁻¹¹ Subsequently, *c-mpl* expression was shown to be restricted to MK, platelets and CD34⁺ cells in human marrow populations.^{12,13} Exposure of CD34⁺ purified cells to antisense oligodeoxynucleotides blocking *c-mpl* mRNA expression resulted in a significant inhibition of development of CFU-MK-derived colonies without affecting erythroid or granulocyte/macrophage colony formation.¹² In addition, mice lacking *c-mpl* expression were generated by homologous recombination. The homozygous animals exhibited an 80-90% reduction in platelet counts, but no decrease in the numbers of the other mature blood cells.¹⁴ Together, these observations strongly implicated the Mpl receptor and its putative ligand in the regulation of megakaryocytopoiesis and platelet production.

The isolation of a ligand capable of binding and activating Mpl was reported by five independent groups in 1994.¹⁵⁻¹⁹ This ligand, present in minute amounts in the serum from severely thrombocytopenic animals, received different names: Mpl ligand (ML or Mpl-L), thrombopoietin (TPO), megakaryocyte growth and development factor (MGDF) or megapoinetin. The molecule stimulates both the proliferation and differentiation of CFU-MK progenitors arguing against the theory that megakaryocytopoiesis was regulated at multiple cellular levels.²⁰ Different recombinant Mpl ligands are used for experimental or clinical investigations. To clarify the terms, TPO should be the name of the physiologic native form of the protein. Mpl-L should be the scientific name for the recombinant polypeptide. A recombinant full-length glycosylated form of the human polypeptide (termed rHuTPO) is produced in mammalian cells by Genentech-Pharmacia-Upjohn.¹⁶ A recombinant non-glycosylated truncated version of the human Mpl-L is produced in *Escherichia coli* by Amgen-Kirin-ZymoGenetics. This protein is termed rHuMGDF.¹⁵ A polyethylene glycol tail is coupled to the polypeptide (PEG-rHuMGDF) to increase its potency and *in vivo* half-life.^{21,22}

Structure of the TPO protein and TPO gene

The native human TPO protein is a 60-70 kDa heavily glycosylated polypeptide comprising 332 amino acids. The molecule can be structurally and functionally divided into 2 domains. The amino-terminal

domain is highly conserved across species. It contains 153 amino acids showing 23% sequence identity and 50% similarity with erythropoietin (EPO), including 4 conserved cysteine residues (EPO-like domain). The carboxy-terminal domain shows wide species divergence. It contains six potential N-linked and several O-linked glycosylation sites. This domain has no homology with other known proteins.^{15-17,23-26} The *EPO-like domain* is sufficient to induce the full spectrum of biological responses *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The carbohydrate domain is required for efficient biosynthesis and secretion, and to increase stability and potency of the protein.^{24, 26-28} A crystal structure of native TPO is not yet available. Nevertheless, computer analysis predicts that the N-terminus domain (aa 22-153) forms a four- α -helix bundle similarly to the other members of the cytokine family.^{29,30} Library screening of random peptides displayed on filamentous phage has allowed the identification of several agonists for Mpl. A 14-mer peptide covalently dimerized is as potent as recombinant Mpl ligand in promoting megakaryocytopoiesis *in vitro* and in increasing platelet production in animals.^{31,32}

The human TPO gene is mapped to chromosome 3q27-28.^{18,24,27,33,34} The gene spans over 8 kb and consists of 5 coding exons and 1 or 2 additional upstream non-coding exons.^{14,18,27,35} The promoter region contains no TATA- or CAAT-box motifs and multiple sites for initiation of transcription have been identified.^{18,27,36} The molecular mechanisms controlling the expression of the TPO gene are still unknown, although it has been reported that the Ets family member E4TF1/GABP is required for high expression in liver cells.³⁶

Because thrombocytosis and dysmegakaryocytopoiesis are usual hematologic features found in AML patients with structural abnormalities of the chromosome 3q26 region, a possible involvement of the TPO gene was searched for. No deregulation was found suggesting that the stimulated thrombocytopoiesis was not due to overexpression of the molecule.^{33,34,37}

Physiologic regulation of TPO levels

TPO transcripts are detected in several organs throughout the body, but expression predominates in the liver and kidney.^{16,23} *In situ* hybridization techniques have detected TPO mRNA in liver parenchymal and sinusoidal endothelial cells^{38,39} and kidney proximal convoluted tubular cells.⁴⁰ Biologically active TPO can be demonstrated in culture supernatants from rat primary hepatocytes, mouse sinusoidal endothelial cells, hepatoma cell lines, the human embryonic kidney HEK cell line and bone marrow-derived stroma cells.^{39,41-43}

The endogenous TPO levels in plasma are inversely correlated with the platelet counts.⁴⁴ By analogy to the transcriptional regulation of *EPO* mRNA by anemia,⁴⁵ it was suggested that transcription of the TPO

gene might be upregulated in response to the platelet demand. Alternatively, TPO production might be constant and activity in plasma could be regulated by the binding to platelets and catabolism.⁴⁶ Several experimental models were analyzed to discriminate between these possibilities. Mice were made severely thrombocytopenic by radiation, chemotherapy, anti-platelet antibodies injections or combined treatments, or markedly thrombocythemic by platelet transfusions. No transcriptional regulation of the TPO gene was observed in the liver or kidney from these animals.^{40,47-49} In addition, no variation in TPO alternative splice forms encoding non-secreted proteins was detected.^{24,47,48,50,51} Moreover, while homozygous TPO-deficient mice show a 90% reduction in their platelet counts, the number of platelets in heterozygous animals is half that of normal littermates.⁵² This gene dosage effect on platelet counts strongly argues against a control occurring at a transcriptional level.⁵² Nevertheless, it is reported that TPO upregulation might occur in marrow stromal cells in response to a decrease in platelet counts.^{53,54}

Platelets and MK display a single class of high affinity Mpl receptors (approximately 30 receptors/platelet with a kd of 100 to 200 pmol/L⁵⁵ and 2,000-12,140 receptors/MK with a kd of 749 pmol/L^{56,57}). Platelets exposed *in vitro* to iodinated Mpl-L actively bind, internalize and degrade the protein.^{51,55,58} *C-mpl*-deficient mice have low platelet numbers and elevated TPO levels in plasma.¹⁴ When these mice are transfused with platelets from normal donors, TPO levels rapidly decrease.⁵¹ Surprisingly, no elevation of TPO levels is seen in the plasma of profoundly thrombocytopenic homozygous NF-E2-deficient mice.⁵⁹ The marrow from these mice contains numerous mature MK with a well developed demarcation membrane system, but a total absence of platelet shedding. These observations strongly suggest that the MK mass could also be involved in the regulation of the plasma concentration of TPO.⁶⁰ ELISA assays^{61,62} indicate that serum TPO levels are more correlated with the combined MK and platelet mass than with platelet numbers. In patients with aplastic anemia, amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia or after bone marrow transplantation, where thrombocytopenia is associated with MK hypoplasia, TPO levels are extremely high.^{63,64} In contrast, patients with immune thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) exhibit normal or only mildly elevated TPO levels.⁶³⁻⁶⁹ Collectively, these data are consistent with a model in which no sensing system controls the production of TPO. From the published data, it appears that TPO is constitutively synthesized by the liver and kidney. It is the binding and degradation by Mpl receptors present on the surface of platelets and MKs that regulate the circulating levels of TPO. However, it has not yet been excluded that TPO might upregulate its own receptors, as is the case for IL-2 and G-CSF receptors.^{70,71}

Pleiotropic action of Mpl ligand/TPO

Studies performed *in vitro* demonstrate that Mpl-L is a central cytokine for full development of MK and platelets.⁷²⁻⁸⁰ MKs and platelets produced in culture are morphologically and functionally identical to bone marrow MK and blood-derived platelets^{77,79,81-83} However, Mpl-L may be dispensable for the late steps of MK maturation. Indeed, proplatelet formation occurs *in vitro* after Mpl-L deprivation^{81,84} and human CD34⁺ progenitor cells stimulated with a combination of IL-3+IL-6+SCF produce platelets.⁸³ Furthermore, homozygous TPO-deficient mice still produce a low number of functionally normal platelets.⁸⁵ The effects of Mpl-L on platelet activation was a major concern. Mpl-L induces phosphorylation of several proteins in platelets,⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸ but it does not induce spontaneous platelet aggregation. However, platelets stimulated with non-physiologic doses of Mpl-L become more sensitive to activation agonists.^{86,87,89-92}

The obtainment of *c-mpl*- and TPO-null mice allowed clear demonstration of the lineage-dominant action of TPO on platelet production.^{14,52} The homozygous animals display an identical phenotype with a 80-90% reduction in platelet counts and a markedly decreased number of MKs with a low ploidy in marrow and spleen. Red blood cell and leukocyte counts of homozygous animals are similar to those of wild-type littermates. Nevertheless, *c-mpl*^{-/-} and TPO^{-/-} mice show a 60% reduction in the absolute numbers of all myeloid progenitors, including primitive progenitors forming CFU-blast-derived colonies.^{93,94} In addition, recently reported results show that progenitor cells exhibiting long-term repopulating ability are significantly reduced in *c-mpl*-null mice and that all the long-term repopulating activity of wild type murine fetal liver progenitor population (AA4⁺ Sca⁻) segregates with Mpl expression.⁹⁵ Furthermore, a direct comparison of the reconstituting ability of human CD34⁺ CD38⁻ *c-mpl*^{-/-} and CD34⁺ CD38⁻ *c-mpl*^{-/-} into NOD/SCID mice shows that *c-mpl* expression correlates with significantly better donor-derived engraftment.⁹⁵ This indicates that TPO not only stimulates megakaryopoiesis and platelet production, but has a pleiotropic range of action in hematopoiesis.⁹⁶

Action of TPO on early stem cells

Several *in vitro* studies demonstrate that TPO acts synergistically with the early acting growth factors, Flt3 ligand, c-kit ligand or interleukin-3, to stimulate the proliferation of primitive hematopoietic stem cells directly.^{75,97-105} Of potential interest for *ex vivo* expansion of CD34⁺ cells, it has been shown that progenitors expanded in medium containing TPO in combination with c-kit ligand or Flt3 ligand retain a primitive phenotype, and maintain the capacity for multilineage colony formation.^{103,104} In addition, TPO enhances the expansion and survival of CD34⁺ CD38⁻ progenitors in culture.¹⁰⁵

Preclinical and clinical studies

The *in vivo* biological activities of recombinant Mpl-L have been extensively reviewed.^{26,74,106-108} In normal animals receiving repeated injections of Mpl-L, platelet numbers increase several-fold but the numbers of red blood cells and leukocytes are not significantly affected. The increment in platelet numbers is preceded by an increase in MK progenitors, and an increase in MK number, volume and ploidy.^{22,72} Comparable results are obtained after a single intravenous injection.^{109,110}

In mildly thrombocytopenic mice treated with a single injection of carboplatin, rHuMGDF reverses thrombocytopenia.¹¹¹ In more severe models of thrombocytopenia induced by a combination of sublethal irradiation and carboplatin, daily administration of PEG-rHuMGDF reduced the severity of the platelet nadir, accelerated platelet recovery and reduced mortality.^{21,112} No effect¹¹³ or an accelerated platelet recovery¹¹⁴ were reported when Mpl-L/PEG-rHuMGDF was given after bone marrow transplantation. Both group of investigators observed that the rate of platelet reconstitution was highly accelerated when donors were pretreated with Mpl-L/PEG-rHuMGDF prior to graft harvest.^{113,115} Similar results are obtained in myelosuppressed primates.^{22,116-119} In addition to the major effect on platelet recovery, Mpl ligands also dramatically accelerated the recovery of all progenitor classes, improved neutrophil and reticulocyte recovery and mobilized progenitor cells in myelosuppressed mice and monkeys.^{21,111, 113,117,120,121}

Results of phase I/II clinical trials with Mpl ligands have been extensively reviewed.^{108,122} PEG-rHuMGDF was injected subcutaneously at escalating doses ranging from 0.03 to 1 µg/kg/day during 10 days to patients with advanced cancer before chemotherapy.^{123,124} Platelet counts started to increase on day 6, peaked between day 12 and 18 and remained elevated until day 26 for the highest doses of 0.3 and 1 µg/kg. There was no drug-related toxicity and no evidence of ischemia or thromboembolism even in one patient who developed a very high number of platelets (> 1,800 × 10⁹/L). In another study, patients with sarcoma were given a single intravenous dose of rHuTPO at doses ranging from 0.3 to 2.4 µg/kg. Platelets started to increase in a dose-dependent manner on day 4 and peaked at day 12. No major side effects were reported.¹²⁵ In addition, Mpl ligand-treatment expanded marrow myeloid, erythroid and multipotential progenitors and markedly mobilized progenitor cells in blood, but these expansions did not translate into an increment in peripheral leukocytes or red blood cells.¹²³⁻¹²⁶ After chemotherapy, PEG-rHuMGDF was injected daily for up to 16 days to patients with non-small cell lung cancer receiving carboplatin and paclitaxel. Patients experienced a more rapid platelet recovery and a higher nadir platelet count than the placebo group.^{127,128} However, in a series of patients with *de novo* AML receiving

up to 21 doses (2.5 and 5 µg/kg/day) of PEG-rHuMGDF after the first cycle of chemotherapy, no significant differences in platelet counts were seen between the PEG-rHuMGDF-treated and the placebo group.¹²⁹ Patients with sarcoma received one or two intravenous bolus injections of rHuTPO after the second cycle of high dose chemotherapy. A sustained 4-fold increase in platelet counts was observed accompanied by a significant increase of MK in the bone marrow and a mobilization of progenitor cells of multiple lineages in blood. Anti-TPO antibodies were surveyed in the sera from 12 rHuTPO-treated patients. Not neutralizing antibodies were transiently detected in one patient indicating the need to monitor the administration of these recombinant hormones carefully.¹³⁰ Basser *et al.* reported the combined effects of increasing doses of PEG-rHuMGDF (0.03 to 5.0 µg/kg/day) and G-CSF (filgrastim, 5 µg/kg/day) given to 41 patients treated with carboplatin and cyclophosphamide.¹³¹ No difference in the depth of platelet nadir was noted between PEG-rHuMGDF-treated patients and the placebo group. However, platelet recovery to baseline levels was reached 4 days earlier (median of 17 days versus 22 days) in patients treated with PEG-rHuMGDF. It is noteworthy that, when PEG-rHuMGDF was administered both before and after chemotherapy, platelet recovery was hastened as it was during the second cycle of chemotherapy.

These early clinical data indicate that PEG-rHuMGDF and rHuTPO are well tolerated molecules and powerful agents for increasing platelet counts in normal or mildly thrombocytopenic patients. However, in severely thrombocytopenic states induced by intensive regimens, the therapeutic benefit of treatment with either of the Mpl ligands is modest or insignificant. At the present time, clinical trials with PEG-rHuMGDF are discontinued due to evidence of neutralizing antibodies in a few patients.

Involvement of the TPO/Mpl receptor system in human pathology

The TPO/Mpl system has been examined in myeloproliferative disorders with an excess of MKs to understand whether abnormalities could be involved in the pathogenesis of these diseases. In essential thrombocythemia (ET), it has been reported that serum TPO levels are either normal or slightly elevated when compared to those of normal subjects. Given the regulation of TPO plasma levels by the platelet and MK masses, this observation was quite unexpected. Flow cytometry and Western blot analyses indicate that Mpl expression is markedly reduced in platelets from ET patients as compared to platelets from normal subjects.^{132,133} Another study shows that expression of Mpl is markedly reduced in platelets from patients with either polycythemia vera (PV) or idiopathic myelofibrosis (PMF), but not in patients with ET.¹³⁴ A study performed on a family with hereditary thrombocy-

themia reports that all affected members have elevated serum TPO levels. Genetic analyses demonstrate that a splice donor mutation in the *TPO* gene is responsible for overexpression of the protein due to increased translational efficiency.¹³⁵ More recently, we have investigated a possible involvement of the TPO/Mpl system in CD34⁺ and MK from patients with ET or PMF. We show that, in both diseases, CD34⁺ progenitor cells produce autonomously developing MK colonies at a single cell level. We were unable to detect autocrine production of TPO in the CD34⁺ population or in mature MKs despite using a highly sensitive and quantitative RT-PCR technique. In addition, no missense mutation in the coding region of the *c-mpl* gene was detected. Interestingly, addition of soluble Mpl to cultures specifically inhibited the growth of autonomous MK colonies.^{136,137} Our data indicate that it seems unlikely that the primary defect in ET and PMF is at the level of the TPO/Mpl loop. More work is needed to understand whether a molecular defect involving a regulatory protein along the signal transduction cascade is involved in these pathologies, as recently suggested for PV.¹³⁸ Together, these data provide new insights into the physiopathology of myeloproliferative disorders.

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