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Molecular and alternative methods for diagnosis of acute myeloid leukemia with mutated *NPM1*: flexibility may help

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Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) is a molecularly and clinically heterogeneous disease.¹ Nucleophosmin (*NPM1*) gene mutations resulting in cytoplasmic delocalization of nucleophosmin (NPMc+)² are the most

common genetic alteration in AML, being detected in about one-third of cases. Because of its unique molecular, genotypic, immunophenotypic and prognostic features³⁻⁶ (Table 1), AML with mutated *NPM1* was included as a

separate provisional entity in the 2008 World Health Organization (WHO) classification of myeloid neoplasms, under the heading of “AML with recurrent genetic abnormalities”.⁷ In the 2001 WHO classification, this category included only AML with t(15;17), t(8;21), inv(16), and *MLL* rearrangements and in 2008 it was expanded to include AMLs carrying t(6;9), inv(3) or t(3;3), AML (megakaryoblastic) with t(1;22) and two provisional entities, i.e. AML with mutated *NPM1* and AML with mutated *CEBPA*. Thus, in the 2008 WHO classification, the category of “AML with recurrent genetic abnormalities” covers about 60% of AML.

The identification of the specific genetic alteration underlying each of the AML subtypes listed in the category of “AML with recurrent genetic abnormalities” is of critical importance since it helps to assign patients to different prognostic groups, thus influencing therapy. For example, in AML patients under 60 years of age, *NPM1* mutations consistently predict favorable prognosis,⁶ when no concomitant *FLT3*-ITD mutation is present, whilst in AML patients 70 years old or over *NPM1* mutations appear to be the only factor influencing prognosis in multivariate analysis.⁸

The search for genetic alterations using molecular methods would ideally be the gold standard for diagnosis. Unfortunately, not all centers, especially in developing countries, are equipped for molecular studies and this may hamper the worldwide use of the WHO classification. These problems could potentially be solved by developing simple surrogates for molecular studies. Here, we briefly review the molecular methods and their alternatives that are currently available for diagnosing AML with mutated *NPM1*.

Detection of *NPM1* mutations by molecular techniques

The normal *NPM1* gene configuration and the first six *NPM1* mutations we identified in AML,² which lead to common structural changes of the NPM1 protein C-terminus, are shown in Figure 1. Over the past five years, several qualitative and quantitative molecular assays for identifying

NPM1 mutations have been developed and tested in a large number of AML patients.

(i) Qualitative assays for *NPM1* mutations: these highly sensitive and specific assays for detecting *NPM1* mutations⁹⁻¹⁵ are best applied to RNA or DNA extracted from fresh bone marrow or peripheral blood leukemic cells¹³ but plasma¹⁶ and paraffin-embedded samples¹⁷ are also suitable. More than 50 molecular variants of *NPM1* mutations have been identified to date,¹⁸ mostly involving exon-12, and occasionally other exons.¹⁹ *NPM1* mutations occur in about 30% of adult AML⁴ (50-60% of AML with normal karyotype). *NPM1* mutation A (a duplication of TCTG at position 956 to 959 of the reference sequence) accounts for 75-80% of cases.² Mutation B and D account for about 10% and 5% of cases, respectively; other mutations are very rare. *NPM1* mutations are less frequent in childhood (about 8% of pediatric AML)^{20,21} and have been never found in children under three years of age.²¹ Pediatric and adult AML with mutated *NPM1* appear to differ not only in frequency but also in the type of mutation as, unlike adults, the majority of children carry non-type A mutations.²² Identifying the specific type of mutation by molecular techniques is essential when PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction)-based quantitative studies are planned (*see below*).

(ii) Monitoring of minimal residual disease. Since *NPM1* mutations are frequent and very stable over the course of disease,²³ they are an optimal marker for monitoring minimal residual disease (MDR)²⁴ in approximately 30% of adult AML. Indeed, the clinical value of PCR-based quantitative assessment of *NPM1* mutant copies in predicting relapse and prognosis of AML with mutated *NPM1* was demonstrated in several studies.²⁵⁻²⁸ Notably, Schnittger *et al.*²⁸ reported the best clinical outcome was associated with the greatest reduction in the number of *NPM1* mutant copies (<0.01 *NPM1/ABL* ratio). Monitoring of *NPM1* mutant copies every 4-6 months is advisable.²⁹

Detection of *NPM1* mutated proteins by Western blot

The Western blot assay uses antibodies that recognize

Table 1. Main features of acute myeloid leukemia with mutated *NPM1* (*NPM1*+ AML).

- <i>NPM1</i> mutations leading to cytoplasmic dislocation of nucleophosmin
- <i>NPM1</i> mutations/cytoplasmic NPM are specific for AML*, usually <i>de novo</i>
- One-third of all adult AML (about 8% in children)
- Higher incidence in female (in most trials)
- Close association with normal karyotype (about 85% of cases)
- Mutually exclusive with other AML carrying recurrent genetic abnormalities
- About 15% cases carry secondary chromosome aberrations (+8, del9(q), +4)
- Wide morphological spectrum (more often M4 and M5)
- Frequent multilineage involvement
- Negativity for CD34 (>95% of cases)
- Unique GEP molecular signature (↓ <i>CD34</i> gene; ↑ <i>HOX</i> genes)
- Distinct microRNA profile
- High frequency of <i>FLT3</i> -ITD (about 40% of cases)
- Good response to induction therapy (80-85% of cases)
- Relatively good prognosis (in the absence of <i>FLT3</i> -ITD)

* Not detectable in other human neoplasms by immunohistochemistry (more than 5,000 samples tested) and/or mutational analysis. GEP: gene expression profiling.

NPM1 mutants but not wild-type NPM1 protein in lysates from AML samples.³⁰ These antibodies identify the specific band (37kDa) of mutated NPM1 protein only in *NPM1*-mutated AML cases and recognize over 95% of *NPM1* mutations.³⁰

Morphology and immunophenotype of *NPM1*-mutated acute myeloid leukemia

Advanced molecular or biochemical techniques are not always available or easy to apply and, therefore, a “realistic classification” based on morphological appearance was, in the past, suggested as a compromise solution for some AML subtypes.³¹ Since some typical FAB categories such as M3, M2 with increased eosinophils (M2eo), or M4 with increased eosinophils (M4eo), closely correlated with the presence of t(15;17), t(8;21), and inv(16), respectively, recognition of these morphological features was proposed as a surrogate for cytogenetic studies. The morphology-based approach is, however, limited by imperfect morphological-genetic correlations³² since inv(16) or t(16;16) correlate with M4eo morphology in only some cases, whilst AML with t(8;21) sometimes shows an M1 or M4 morphology. Morphology is also a poor predictor of *NPM1* mutations because, although often associated with M4 and M5 morphology,^{2,33} AML with mutated *NPM1* encompasses all other FAB categories except M3, M4eo and M7.² Interestingly, a similar broad morphological spectrum is also seen in AML with *MLL* rearrangements.³⁴

Immunophenotype combined with morphology may further increase the ability to identify specific AML genetic entities. Examples include positivity for CD19 and PAX5 in AML with t(8;21),³⁵ low expression of HLA/DR and CD34 in acute promyelocytic leukemia (APL),⁷

expression of the chondroitin sulfate molecule NG2 omolog (encoded by *CSGP4*)³⁶ in AML with *MLL* rearrangements, and the consistent CD34 negativity in *NPM1*-mutated AML,^{2,4} but again the correlation immunophenotype/genotype is not complete.

Thus, in most AML cases, morphological/immunophenotypic studies alone cannot reliably predict genetic lesions, and other surrogates for molecular investigations need to be found.

Immunohistochemical detection of cytoplasmic nucleophosmin

In the 2008 WHO classification, AML with mutated *NPM1* is also indicated with the synonym of NPMc+ AML (NPM cytoplasmic positive AML).⁷ In fact, one simple, low cost, highly-specific alternative approach to diagnosis is immunohistochemical detection of cytoplasmic nucleophosmin.^{37,38} This assay is fully predictive of *NPM1* mutations since all molecular variants of *NPM1* mutations (including those affecting exons other than 12) result in aberrant export of NPM1 mutant from the nucleus to the cytoplasm of leukemic cells.^{37,38} Immunohistochemistry is usually performed with monoclonal antibodies that recognize wild-type and mutated NPM1 proteins.³⁸ Cytoplasmic nucleophosmin is optimally detected in paraffin sections from B5-fixed/EDTA-decalcified bone marrow trephines^{2,38,39} (Figure 2). Partial concordance between sub-cellular expression of nucleophosmin and *NPM1* gene status was seen in one study⁴⁰ where samples were fixed in formalin and decalcified in formic acid. It is at present unclear whether the technical problem is due to formalin fixation and/or formic acid decalcification.

Searching for cytoplasmic nucleophosmin is reminiscent

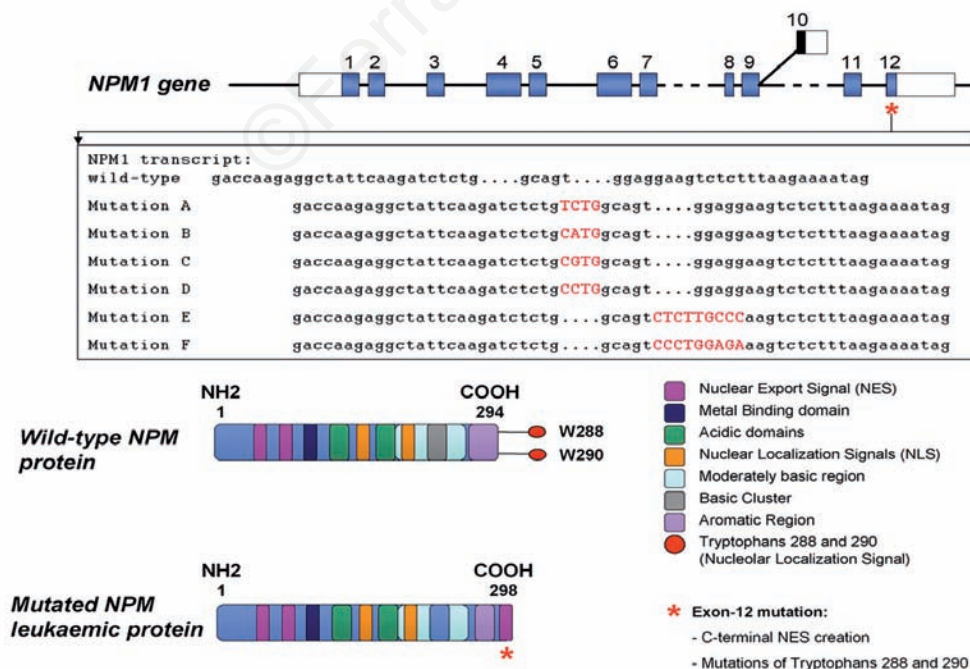


Figure 1. Configuration of the normal *NPM1* gene. *NPM1* mutations in AML occur almost exclusively at exon-12 (asterisk). (A – F) The first 6 discovered mutations.² Mutation A is the most frequent (75–80% of cases). All *NPM1* mutations (about 50 so far identified) result in common changes at the C-terminus end (asterisk) of the NPM1 protein, i.e. changes of tryptophans (288 and 290) and insertion of a new nuclear export signal (NES) motif. These changes cause aberrant cytoplasmic accumulation of NPM1 mutants which is easily detectable by immunohistochemistry (see Figure 2). This figure is provided by the Author (BF) and was originally reported in the 2008 WHO classification.⁷

of identifying APL with t(15,17) by means of the PG-M3 (anti-PML) monoclonal antibody.⁴¹ In fact, the rationale for both tests is similar. The *NPM1* mutation and the *PML/RAR*-alpha fusion gene both cause ectopic subcellular relocalization of the respective proteins: nucleophosmin is found in cytoplasm (instead of nucleolus) and PML is observed as nuclear microspeckles (instead of nuclear bodies). In a recent study, Rego *et al.*⁴² combined morphology with the PML immunofluorescence test (PG-M3 monoclonal antibody) to investigate 102 APL patients from developing countries (Brazil, Mexico and Uruguay). Notably, this approach resulted in a more accurate and rapid diagnosis which led in turn to the immediate start of chemotherapy plus ATRA. Consequently, overall survival

markedly increased from the unsatisfactory 50% in historical controls to about 80%. This study provides an example model of the big impact of using a simple test as surrogate for molecular investigations in the therapy of AML.

Immunohistochemical detection of cytoplasmic nucleophosmin may also be useful in developed countries as simple front-line screening for *NPM1* mutations.^{37,38} The expected 30% of adults with aberrant cytoplasmic nucleophosmin could then be referred to more specialized centers for confirmation and identification of mutation type by molecular techniques. Moreover, immunohistochemistry is critical for diagnosis of AML cases presenting with “dry tap” or as myeloid sarcoma.¹⁷

As bone marrow trephines are not routinely performed in AML patients in all hematologic centers, the ability to predict *NPM1* mutations from cytoplasmic expression of nucleophosmin in smears or cytopspins would be particularly useful. In the present issue of *Haematologica*, Mattsson *et al.*⁴³ found no significant correlation between sub-cellular expression of nucleophosmin and *NPM1* gene status in their immunocytochemical study of smears and cytopspins from 60 AMLs (31 *NPM1*-mutated; 29 *NPM1* wild-type). Why cytoplasmic nucleophosmin is detected in fixed paraffin-embedded material but not cytological samples remains unclear. A possible explanation is that preparation and/or fixation of smear and cytopspins leads to nucleophosmin diffusion across cell compartments and even out of the cells, thus preventing accurate tracking of the protein. In contrast, fixation and paraffin-embedding may optimally stabilize cell membranes (especially nuclear membrane) thus allowing accurate visualization of sub-cellular distribution of nucleophosmin.

Mattsson *et al.*'s⁴³ claim that cytoplasmic nucleophosmin in paraffin sections may represent non-specific staining appears unfounded because there is much strong evidence indicating that in *NPM1*-mutated AML immunohistochemistry on paraffin sections depicts the real status of nucleophosmin sub-cellular distribution. In fact, aberrant cytoplasmic expression of nucleophosmin in B5 fixed/EDTA decalcified bone marrow trephines is fully predictive of *NPM1* mutations.^{37,39} Aberrant nuclear export of nucleophosmin is consistent with the molecular alterations at the C-terminus of all *NPM1* mutant proteins (Figure 1) including those generated by *NPM1* mutations involving exons other than exon 12.³⁸ Moreover, antibodies that specifically recognize mutant but not wild-type *NPM1* protein, consistently label the cytoplasm of *NPM1*-mutated AML cells at both immunohistochemistry⁴⁴ and

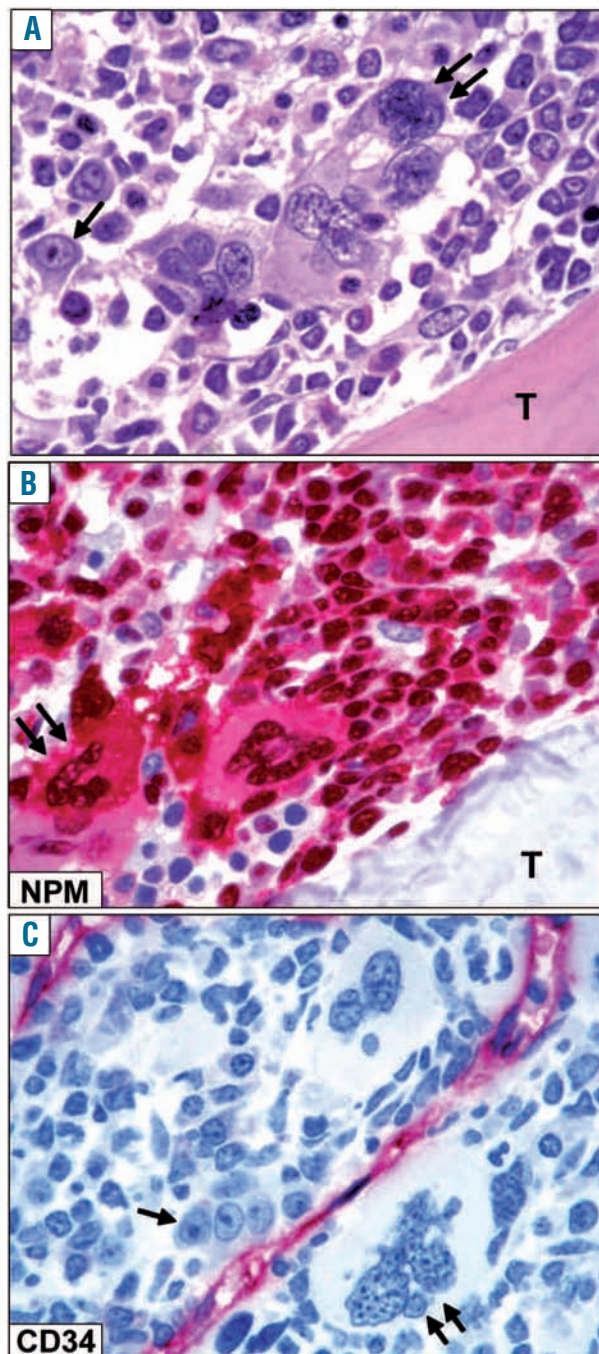


Figure 2. Detection of cytoplasmic nucleophosmin by immunohistochemistry (bone marrow trephines, paraffin sections). (A) AML with mutated *NPM1*. Marrow infiltration by myeloid blasts admixed with megakaryocytes (double arrows) and erythroid precursors (single arrow). T indicates a bone trabecula (hematoxylin-eosin; x1,000). (B) Myeloid blasts, megakaryocytes (double arrows) and erythroid precursors show aberrant cytoplasmic expression of nucleophosmin (multilineage involvement) (APAAP technique; x1,000). T indicates a bone trabecula. (C) Myeloid blasts, as well as megakaryocytes (double arrows) and erythroid precursors (single arrow) belonging to the leukemic clone, are CD34-negative (APAAP technique; x1,000). (B and C) Hematoxylin counterstaining.

Western blotting.³⁰ Finally, laser confocal microscopy of transfected cells clearly showed that fluorescent-tagged wild-type and mutated NPM1 proteins localized respectively in the nucleolar and cytoplasmic cell compartments.^{4,38}

Whatever the reason for the failure to detect cytoplasmic nucleophosmin in smears or cytopspins, the comprehensive study by Mattsson *et al.*⁴⁵ clearly indicates this method cannot be at present recommended as surrogate marker for *NPM1* mutations. One promising approach based on the use of intracellular flow cytometry for rapid, specific detection of nucleophosmin in the cytoplasm of leukemic cells has been recently proposed as an alternative to bone marrow trephines in the diagnosis of *NPM1*-mutated AML.⁴⁵ Because of its simplicity, this test may emerge in the future as a valuable surrogate to molecular studies for initial screening of AML samples. Another method that can be used in alternative to bone marrow trephines for detection of cytoplasmic nucleophosmin is immunostaining of sections cut from paraffin-embedded pellets of peripheral blood leukemic cells (B. Falini, unpublished observation, 2009).

Surrogates for molecular studies are expected to be particularly useful in older patients where *NPM1* mutations appear to play a prognostic role independently of the *FLT3* gene status.⁸ For younger patients, whose favorable prognosis is associated with the *NPM1*-mutated/*FLT3*-ITD negative genotype,^{4,6} we must search for rapid, inexpensive assays which can also allow us to assess the *FLT3* gene status, which is still only evaluable by molecular methods.

Conclusions

Because of its distinctive features, AML with mutated *NPM1* (NPMc+ AML) was included as a provisional entity in the 2008 WHO classification of myeloid neoplasms. Over the past five years several methods have been developed to diagnose this new entity. *NPM1* mutations can be detected by molecular techniques or surrogates such as immunohistochemistry, Western blotting and possibly flow cytometry. These methods are complementary rather than competitive and offer a flexible approach to diagnosis which is essential if the WHO Classification is to be implemented, as intended, worldwide.

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Splenic marginal zone lymphoma: a hydra with many heads?

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In this issue of the Journal, Baseggio *et al.*¹ report on a series of 24 patients with CD5-positive, t(11;14)-negative splenic marginal zone lymphoma (SMZL) diagnosed by means of cytology and flow cytometry of peripheral blood. All the patients were splenectomized at diagnosis or during follow-up and, consequently, spleen specimens were available for histological examination in all cases. The biological features of the CD5-positive SMZL cases did not appear to be different from those of a comparative series of 42 CD5-negative SMZL cases with the exception of a tendency to a more mutated immunoglobulin variable heavy chain genes (IGHV) sta-

tus. Clinically, CD5-positive SMZL were characterized only by more marked lymphocytosis at diagnosis and more frequent diffuse bone marrow infiltration. No significant differences were found in outcome.

Marginal zone lymphomas

The marginal zone is an anatomically distinct B-cell compartment that surrounds the lymphocytic corona of the mantle. In the past, cases of lymphoma considered to be derived from monocytoid/marginal zone B cells have been described,² including cases primarily involving extranodal sites. The 1992 updated Kiel classification³ first