

New approaches to standard of care in early-phase myeloproliferative neoplasms: can interferon- α alter the natural history of the disease?

by Florence Pasquier, Jean Pegliasco, Jean-Edouard Martin, Severine Marti, and Isabelle Plo

Received: January 28, 2024. Accepted: April 15, 2024.

Citation: Florence Pasquier, Jean Pegliasco, Jean-Edouard Martin, Severine Marti, and Isabelle Plo. New approaches to standard of care in early-phase myeloproliferative neoplasms: can interferon- α alter the natural history of the disease? Haematologica. 2024 Oct 24. doi: 10.3324/haematol.2023.283958 [Epub ahead of print]

Publisher's Disclaimer.

E-publishing ahead of print is increasingly important for the rapid dissemination of science. Haematologica is, therefore, *E-publishing PDF files of an early version of manuscripts that have completed a regular peer review and have been accepted for publication. E-publishing of this PDF file has been approved by the authors. After having E-published Ahead of Print, manuscripts will then undergo technical and English editing, typesetting, proof correction and be presented for the authors' final approval; the final version of the manuscript will then appear in a regular issue of the journal.*

All legal disclaimers that apply to the journal also pertain to this production process.

New approaches to standard of care in early-phase myeloproliferative

neoplasms: can interferon- α alter the natural history of the disease?

Florence Pasquier^{1,2,3,4}, Jean Pegliasco^{1,2,5}, Jean-Edouard Martin^{1,2,5}, Séverine Marti^{1,2,5}, Isabelle Plo^{1,2,3}

- 1- INSERM U1287, Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, 94800
- 2- Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, France
- 3- Université Paris-Saclay, Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, France
- 4- Département d'Hématologie, Gustave Roussy, Villejuif, France
- 5- Université Paris-Cité, Paris

Running title: Natural history of MPN and IFN therapy

Keywords :

IFN α , JAK2^{V617F}, CALR^{mut}, early phase MPN, early detection

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from INSERM, INCA Plbio2023 and Agence Nationale de la Recherche under grant ANR-18-IBHU-0002, and financial support from Institut Thematique Multi-Organismes (ITMO) Cancer of Aviesan within the framework of the 2021-2030 Cancer Control Strategy to IP. Labex GR-Ex is funded by the program "Investissements d'avenir". JP, JEM and SM were supported by Ph.D grants from FRFT (AVIESAN/ ITMO Cancer), Poste d'accueil INSERM and Association pour la recherche sur le Cancer, respectively. We want to thank Caroline Marty for critical reading of the manuscript and editing.

Author contribution: All the authors participated in the writing and critical reading of this review. IP led the writing. FP was more involved in clinical part, JP in early detection, and JEM and SM in natural history of the disease.

Conflict-of-interest disclosure:

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Abstract (219 words)

The classical BCR::ABL-negative myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN) include Polycythemia Vera (PV), Essential Thrombocytemia (ET), and Primary Myelofibrosis (PMF). They are acquired clonal disorders of the hematopoietic stem cells (HSC) leading to hyperplasia of one or several myeloid lineages. MPN are caused by three main recurrent mutations, $JAK2^{V617F}$ and mutations in the calreticulin (CALR) and the thrombopoietin receptor (MPL) genes. Here, we review the general diagnosis, the complications, and the management of MPN. Second, we explain the physiopathology of the natural disease development and its regulation, which contributes to MPN heterogeneity. Thirdly, we describe the new paradigm of the MPN development highlighting the early origin of driver mutations decades before the onset of symptoms and the consequence on early detection of MPN cases in the general population for early diagnosis and better medical management. Finally, we present the interferon alpha $(IFN\alpha)$ therapy as a potential early disease-modifying drug after reporting its good hematological and molecular efficacies in ET, PV and early MF in clinical trials as well as its mechanism of action in pre-clinical studies. As a result, we may expect that, in the future, MPN patients will be diagnosed very early during the course of disease and that new selective therapies under development, such as IFN α , JAK2^{V617F} inhibitors and CALR^{mut} monoclonal antibodies, would be able to intercept the mutated clones.

1- Generalities on classical myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN) Diagnosis, complications and progression of MPN

MPN are heterogeneous clonal disorders of the hematopoietic stem cells (HSC) characterized by increased production of myeloid cells. Classical *BCR::ABL1*-negative MPN include essential thrombocythemia (ET), polycythemia vera (PV) and primary myelofibrosis (PMF). Their diagnosis is based upon the WHO 2016 and 2022 classifications ^{1,2}. Excess of platelet production, excess of red blood cells (RBC) production and megakaryocytic hyperplasia with bone marrow fibrosis characterize ET, PV, and PMF, respectively. Although they have different phenotypes, they are a continuum of diseases as ET can progress into PV and ET/PV into secondary myelofibrosis (SMF). Moreover, since the WHO 2016 classification, overt PMF has been distinguished from prefibrotic PMF, which is an intermediary phenotype between ET and overt PMF ³. At last, leukemic transformation of dismal prognosis is a common complication of classical MPN. The other main non-hematological complications are vascular events (mainly in ET and PV) and symptoms like pruritus, fatigue, night sweats that alter the patients' quality of life (QoL).

MPN are due to the acquisition of a driver mutation in an HSC that constitutively activates the JAK2/STAT signaling pathway. These driver mutations affect 3 genes encoding *JAK2*, the calreticulin (*CALR*) and the thrombopoietin receptor (*MPL*) $^{4-7}$. Their identification is a major diagnostic criterion in the WHO classifications.

JAK2^{V617F} is found in 95% of PV and around half of ET and PMF. Around 100 different CALR mutations (CALR^{mut}) have been described to date and observed in 20-30% of ET and PMF ^{4–7}. Among them, the most frequent are the deletion of 52 base pairs (type 1) and the insertion of 5 base pairs (type 2). They are found at nearly the same frequencies in ET but the type 1 mutation is highly enriched in PMF. Three to five percent of ET and PMF patients harbor MPL mutations, which mainly occur on the W515 residue of the protein.

General management of MPN

Management of ET and PV patients has for main goal the prevention of vascular events (thrombosis and hemorrhages) and relies on a rigorous treatment of the cardiovascular risk factors (CVRF) for all patients, and the administration of low dose acetyl salicylic acid (ASA) and cytoreductive therapy depending on individual vascular risk. International guidelines ^{8,9}

recommend using the revised IPSET-thrombosis (IPSET-th) scoring system to stratify the vascular risk of ET patients ^{10,11}. All ET patients should receive ASA apart from very low risk (LR) asymptomatic ET patients with $CALR^{mut}$ for whom observation is only recommended ¹². Cytoreductive treatment is indicated in patients > 60 years with $JAK2^{V617F}$ mutation and/or CVRF, in patients with history of vascular events and in patients with extreme thrombocytosis (platelet count > $1,500 \times 10^{9}/L$)^{8,9,12}. Current international guidelines recommend that all PV patients should receive ASA and phlebotomies to maintain their hematocrit $\leq 45\%^{8,9,13,14}$. High-risk (HR) PV patients, defined by age ≥ 60 years and/or prior history of thrombosis, are eligible for cytoreductive drugs ^{8,9,13,14}. The risk of complications in PV does not only rely on the increase of the hematocrit level¹⁵. Several criteria reflecting a higher thrombotic risk (i.e. leukocytosis, inadequate hematocrit control with phlebotomies, relevant CVRF), a bleeding risk (thrombocytosis > $1,500 \times 10^{9}$ /L), as well as disease related symptoms (e.g. splenomegaly, pruritus) are additional indications for cytoreductive treatment in LR PV patients ^{8,9,16–18}. For both ET and PV, the recommended first-line agents are hydroxyurea (HU) and pegylated IFN α . Anagrelide and ruxolitinib (RUX) are second-line the rapeutic options in ET and PV, respectively $^{9,15-17}$.

Despite recent improvements in the management of MF, allogeneic stem cell transplantation (ASCT) remains the only curative treatment for these patients ¹⁹. The significant risk of treatment-related morbidity and mortality implies a rigorous selection of eligible patients. Prognostic scoring systems and individual factors guide the transplant decision-making^{8,9,18,20}. However, due to advanced age and comorbidities, only a minority of patients with expected poor survival are eligible for ASCT. Therefore, the management of MF patients remains mainly symptomatic. MF patients have heterogeneous phenotypes, from absence of symptoms through pronounced constitutional symptoms, bulky splenomegaly and deep cytopenias. Observation alone is recommended for asymptomatic patients ^{8,9,18}. HU is a therapeutic option for the treatment of splenomegaly in patients with LR or int-1 risk MF and in case of leukocytosis or thrombocytosis needing cytoreduction ^{8,9,18}. JAK inhibitors (JAKi) are effective for the treatment of constitutional symptoms and splenomegaly $^{21-26}$. RUX is approved by the FDA in intermediate (int-) and high-risk MF patients with platelet count > 50.10⁹/L, fedratinib for \geq int-2 risk MF patients with platelet count > 50.10⁹/L and pacritinib for \geq int-risk MF patients with platelet count < 50.10⁹/L¹⁸. Conventional therapies for MF-related anemia have insufficient and transient efficacy (reviewed in ²⁷), however a fourth JAKi, Momelotinib, was recently approved for the treatment of \geq int-risk MF patients with anemia ^{28,29}.

RUX administration significantly improves survival compared to historical treatment and decreases of $JAK2^{V617F}$ variant allele frequency (VAF) and fibrosis in some MF patients (reviewed in ³⁰), as well as $JAK2^{V617F}$ VAF in some PV patients ³¹. However, there is little evidence for a disease-modifying role for either RUX or any of the others molecules currently used to treat MPN. IFN α appears to be the only molecule with a distinctive effect on MPN cells in clinical and preclinical studies.

2-Natural history of MPN

Function of MPN driver mutations

JAK2^{V617F} activates the oncogenic JAK2/STAT signaling downstream of the homodimeric type 1 cytokine receptors (erythropoietin receptor (EPOR), MPL, G-CSFR), while CALR mutants act as a rogue chaperone and ligand by binding, oligomerizing and activating MPL at the cell-surface ^{32–36}. The *JAK2*^{V617F}, *CALR*^{mut} and *MPL* mutation have been proven to be drivers of the disease in different settings of mouse modeling ^{37–40}. Importantly, inactivation of JAK2^{V617F} through deletion of *JAK2* in an innovative conditionally mouse model led to the abrogation of the MPN disease, demonstrating the monogenic character of MPN development⁴¹.

Although these driver mutations occur in HSC and activates the JAK2/STAT signaling, they have distinct effects on the hematopoiesis. JAK2^{V617F} gives a major proliferative advantage during hematopoietic differentiation of the three myeloid lineages but less at the HSC level. Heterozygous $JAK2^{V617F}$ mutation that is mainly observed in ET patients induces a mild advantage in the HSC compartment but strongly amplifies the myeloid differentiation resulting in lower VAF in HSC than in the peripheral blood cells (PBC) ^{42–44}. The homozygous clones have a stronger competitive advantage over the heterozygous clones even in the HSC compartment ^{43,45}. ET patients have generally low $JAK2^{V617F}$ VAF in their blood (around 20% or less), compared to 50% in PV patients and to 70-80% in post-ET/PV MF due to $JAK2^{V617F}$ homozygosity, in line with the continuum of diseases. In contrast, in $CALR^{mut}$ ET patients, the VAF were found at around 30-50% at the HSC level with very mild increase during hematopoietic differentiation. During the progression of ET to MF, $CALR^{mut}$ VAF may increase slightly to around 50% ⁴⁵. Homozygous $CALR^{mut}$ clones are observed in ET patients with CALR

type 2 mutations and in advanced MF with *CALR*^{mut} type 1. Altogether, these data suggest that *CALR*^{mut} give a stronger clonal advantage to HSC than *JAK2*^{V617F} in ET patients or that the *CALR*^{mut} disease occurs when the HSC are nearly all mutated ⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ (Figure 1). Anyway, this difference points to an important concept to be considered when determining the interplay between driver mutation identity, VAF and the resultant disease phenotype. These different effects on hematopoiesis could be due to distinct intensity in the activation of the JAK2/STAT signaling or to JAK2/STAT-independent pathways involving CALR^{mut}-mediated endoplasmic reticulum stress, unfolded protein response ^{49–51} and immunosuppression ⁵².

The natural history of MPN, i.e ET/PV towards SMF or ET towards SMF, can be modified by additional somatic mutations as well as germline and extrinsic factors.

Intrinsic and extrinsic regulators responsible for MPN heterogeneity

In association to the driver mutations, MPN patients can harbor additional somatic mutations of the epigenetic regulators, the spliceosome machinery and the transcription factors, which are also found in other myeloid malignancies. Their type, number and order of appearance are of importance as disease-modifying factors. They contribute to the disease onset, the type of MPN, the risk of progression and the resistance to therapy ^{53,54}. Additional mutations can appear before or after $JAK2^{V617F}$ but generally after $CALR^{mut}$. Mutations in TET2 (5-methylcytosine dioxygenase) and DNMT3A (DNA methyltransferase) induce a strong HSC advantage and in combination with $JAK2^{V617F}$, accelerate the progression into SMF ^{55,56}. When acquired before $JAK2^{V617F}$, these co-occurring mutations can also lead to a higher clonality than $JAK2^{V617F}$ and contribute to the disease onset ⁵⁷. Several other mutations are associated with the progression of ET into SMF disease by skipping the development of PV. ASXL1, EZH2 and several splicing mutations are associated with PMF. ASXL1 mutations are also linked to higher risk of leukemic transformation, except when associated with type 1 CALR^{mut} mutation, and poorer survival ^{27,58,59}. IDH1/2 neomorphic mutations are also at highrisk of inducing leukemic transformation of JAK2^{V617F} MPN^{60,61}. SRSF2 and U2AF1 mutations are of poor prognosis. SRSF2 mutations are strongly involved in leukemic transformation and U2AF1 mutations are associated with anemia and thrombocytopenia²⁷. Several mutations in transcription factors contribute to the leukemic transformation such as TP53 alterations in 20% of mutated cases ⁶².

Genetic factors also contribute to the MPN heterogeneity. Common genetic variants have been identified in the general population in large genome-wide association studies (GWAS) as predisposing to the development of sporadic MPN patients (haplotype 46/1, MECOM, GFI1B, MYB, GATA2, TET2, CHEK2, TERT, ATM, TP53, etc.) ^{63,64}. More recently, polygenic risk scores underlying common hematological traits were identified as important for *JAK2*^{V617F} clonal expansion ⁶⁵. Pan-genomic approaches in some MPN families identified very rare germline predisposing factors like *RBBP6*, *EPOR*, and a structural copy number variation (duplication) located at 14q32, which is associated with high penetrance of the disease and with ET rapidly progressing to MF and to leukemia in half of cases ^{66,67}.

Several extrinsic factors may also modify initiation, phenotype and progression of MPN such as aging and inflammatory cytokines (TNF α , IL1 β , IL-6, IL-13, IL-8) ⁶⁸. MPN are mainly diseases of the elderly and age is associated with "inflammaging" phenomenon that can drive DNA damages and the exit of quiescence of HSC ⁶⁹, allowing the selection of *JAK2*^{V617F} HSC ⁷⁰. Acute or chronic infections ⁷¹ and exposure to toxicants such as chemotherapy are environmental stressors that may modify the HSC homeostasis or the composition of the bone marrow microenvironment to play a role in the selection and the expansion of the mutated clone (for example *ASXL1, EZH2* and *RAS* selection with RUX). Conversely, *JAK2*^{V617F} alone or in combination with others mutations could fuel the disease towards progression by maintaining an inflammatory state due to the secretion of various pro-inflammatory cytokines and the production of ROS ^{68,72,73}.

Although, MPN are due to driver mutations, they are heterogeneous depending on how the different intrinsic and extrinsic regulators affect the initiation, promotion and selection of the malignant clone.

3- New paradigm of MPN development: early origin of the driver mutations and diagnosis

From clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP) to MPN development The concept of clonal hematopoiesis emerged with the identification of people without hematological malignancy but with abnormal X-linkage ratios in the circulating blood increasing over time ⁷⁴. In 2014, several groups reported *DNMT3A*, *TET2*, *ASXL1* and *JAK2*^{V617F} mutations in 10% of healthy people older than seventy and in 1% of younger individuals ^{75–77}. This clonal hematopoiesis without disease was named CHIP or age-related

clonal hematopoiesis (ARCH) since the frequency of the mutations correlates with the age of the general population. CHIP was associated with an increased risk of hematological malignancies, coronary heart disease, and ischemic stroke. Recently, CHIP was defined by the WHO/ICC classification as a precursor state of myeloid disease ^{1,3}. JAK2, CALR, and MPL CHIP have been associated with higher platelet count and hemoglobin level, and an increased risk of developing an MPN⁷⁸. Therefore, these CHIP (VAF>2%) could be considered as a pre-MPN state since JAK2, CALR, and MPL mutations alone without associated mutations, are sufficient to drive the disease. Even if JAK2^{V617F} CHIP were reported in around 0.2% of the general population^{75,76}, the use of more sensitive methods allowed the identification of a 3 to 30 times higher prevalence of JAK2^{V617F} (3.1%) and CALR^{mut} (0.16%) in other cohorts ^{79,80}. In these later studies, the VAF of the clonal hematopoiesis was corelated with age and blood count, in line with the hypothesis of a continuum from CHIP to MPN. Moreover, the VAF of JAK2^{V617F} and CALR^{mut} clonal hematopoiesis was initially identified in young healthy individuals at very low allele burden, but expanded slowly over time (Figure 2A). This high frequency of $JAK2^{V617F}$ and $CALR^{mut}$ clonal hematopoiesis found with these sensitive methods in the general population contrasts with the low penetrance of the MPN disease with an incidence of 1/100,000 at an advanced age (median of 65 years old), suggesting that JAK2^{V617F} and CALR^{mut} can only induce a MPN disease in particular conditions when they give robust HSC clonal amplification. In agreement, the disease develops in mouse models when there are a sufficient number of mutated HSC (around 30 HSC), while the penetrance of the disease is less than 1% of the mice when only a single mutated HSC is engrafted ⁸¹. Interestingly, $JAK2^{V617F}$ clonal hematopoiesis has been detected in familial MPN cases before the development of the diseases, especially in patients harboring with the 14q32 duplication or the EPOR P488S mutation^{67,82}; strongly suggesting that genetic factors could contribute to an earlier and/or faster amplification of mutated HSC. Therefore, the early screening of the driver mutation could be an asset in those cases to improve clinical care and to avoid inaugural thrombo-hemorrhagic events

In aggregate, all these data suggest that the MPN driver mutations occur quite frequently in the individuals, expand slowly with age but induce the disease with a low penetrance. This heterogeneity in MPN development might be due to intrinsic and extrinsic factors that regulate the age of acquisition of the mutations, the mutated HSC amplification or the function of normal HSC.

8

Early origin of the driver mutations

The discovery of clonal hematopoiesis expansion over time, suggests that the acquisition of the driver mutation may occur long before the onset of the disease symptoms. The reconstruction of the HSC phylogenetic trees using somatic mutations as a molecular clock to time the origin of the driver mutations strikingly reveals that the *JAK2*^{V617F} mutation can occur in the first or second decade of life ⁴⁴ and even during fetal development ⁸³. The early onset of *JAK2*^{V617F} was also confirmed using a mathematical model that retrospectively inferred the number of mutated HSC from the initial mutation to the sampling over time using clonal architecture of the patients' progenitors and patient age ⁴⁸. Occurrence of *JAK2*^{V617F} in the fetal life was confirmed by its identification in a cord blood unit used for ASCT in an AML patient ⁸⁴. *CALR*^{mut} was inferred to occur 10 years later than JAK2^{V617F} (average acquisition at 25 years versus 15 years for *JAK2*^{V617F}) ⁴⁸, in line with the absence of *CALR*^{mut} MPN in children under 10 unlike *JAK2*^{V617F} MPN ⁸⁵. However, in an exceptional case of monozygotic twins diagnosed with MF at ages 37 and 38 and carrying the same *CALR*^{mut}, a whole-genome sequencing lineage tracing indicated that the *CALR*^{mut} was acquired during fetal life by twin-to-twin transplacental transmission ⁸⁶.

Early screening for an early diagnosis

The early onset of $JAK2^{V617F}$ and $CALR^{mut}$ decades before the disease presents the challenge of the early detection of MPN in the general population. To address this issue, our laboratory determined the common characteristics of a MPN patient population by mathematical modeling using the data set actually observed from clonal architecture of the mutations in progenitors ⁴⁸. The different possible clonal expansion dynamics in individuals who developed MPN were determined as well as the probability of distribution of the clonal fraction of mutated HSC at any age. The best age to detect the mutation was determined to avoid identifying it too late (after the development of the symptoms) or too early, with the risk of false-negative results, even using methods with a sensitivity of 0.01% sensitivity. This mathematical method revealed that early screening of $JAK2^{V617F}$ mutation in people at risk to develop MPN might be feasible at an optimal age of 30 while early screening of $CALR^{mut}$ seems more difficult to establish. Interestingly, the parameter of $JAK2^{V617F}$ clonal advantage inferred from the MPN cohort was stronger than that obtained by Watson et al. who studied

CHIP in normal individuals ⁸⁷ highlighting the higher fitness of *JAK2*^{V617F} HSC in MPN. These results need further validation, but they suggest the possibility of detecting the *JAK2*^{V617F} mutation from a certain age in true cases of pre-MPN (Figure 2B). Another strategy was to predict MPN disease in people with CHIP (VAF>2%). Whole exome sequencing data from people who developed myeloid neoplasms over a 15-year period showed that the diagnosis could be predicted years before the development of a symptomatic disease, enabling the development of a robust time-dependent Cox proportional hazards model to predict the risk of myeloid malignancies including MPN.⁷⁸

These results suggest the possibility of an early detection of MPN. Understanding the regulation of mutated HSC dynamic in larger cohorts of patients would improve the power of these mathematical models. The detection of people at risk of MPN in the general population would allow them to be carefully monitored and eventually, to prevent the development of MPN using molecules targeting the malignant clones or the vascular events (Figure 2C).

4- Interferon alpha (IFNα): a disease-modifying drug?

IFNα signaling

IFN are cytokines produced in response to infectious and inflammatory stimuli. They have antiviral, immunomodulatory and/or antioncogenic properties. The IFNα receptor consists in two subunits, IFNAR1 (signal-transducing unit) and IFNAR2 (ligand binding/signaling unit), which are members of the class II cytokine receptor superfamily. IFNAR1 is associated with TYK2 and IFNAR2 with JAK1. The interaction of IFNα with its receptor activates STAT1 and STAT2 hetero/homodimers formation and results in the transcription of IFN stimulating genes (ISGs) and IFN-γ-activated factor (GAF) ^{88,89}. Further diversity of IFNAR signaling is achieved by the activation of non-STAT pathways, including the p38 MAPK and PI3K pathway. The IFNα response is negatively controlled by phosphatases, protein inhibitors of activated STAT (PIAS) and two well-known ISGs: SOCSs and USP18 ⁸⁸.

Cellular and molecular mechanism of IFN a in MPN

Interestingly, hematological response and $JAK2^{V617F}$ deep molecular responses (MR) were reported in MPN patients treated with IFN α^{90} . In mice, IFN α induces the depletion of the $JAK2^{V617F}$ disease-initiating HSC ^{37,38}, by increasing their cell cycle and inducing their

10

differentiation leading to the expansion of megakaryocyte (MK)/myeloid HSC with lower long-term reconstitution capacities ^{38,91}. In primary *JAK2*^{V617F} MPN samples, Tong *et al.* found by single cell transcriptomic that IFN α induces quiescence of homozygous *JAK2*^{V617F} MK-biased HSC and apoptosis of heterozygous *JAK2*^{V617F} MK-biased HSCs ⁹². A mathematical model developed on a prospective longitudinal cohort of 48 MPN patients treated with IFN α demonstrated that IFN α selectively targets mutated HSC through a process compatible with their exhaustion by differentiation, in line with previous work showing that IFN α increased the percentage of HSPCs in the active phase of the cell cycle ⁹³. These effect depends on the type of the driver mutation and on IFN α doses : IFN α was found to be more efficient on homozygous *JAK2*^{V617F} HSC than on heterozygous *JAK2*^{V617F} HSC, then on type 2 *CALR*^{mut} HSC and finally on type 1 *CALR*^{mut} HSC ⁹⁴. Thus, the *CALR*^{mut} HSC appear to be more resistant to IFN α than *JAK2*^{V617F} HSC. Targeting of the mutated HSC was slow over several years suggesting altering disease outcome involves long-term exposure to IFN α .

The signaling mechanisms by which IFN α specifically targets the *JAK2*^{V617F} or *CALR*^{mut} HSC are still largely unknown. In mouse *Jak2*^{V617F} models, IFN α preferentially targets the JAK2^{V617F} HSC through several mechanisms such as cell cycle activation, ROS induction and accumulation of DNA damages ⁹⁵. The IFN α -induced PKC ∂ -ULK1-P38 MAPK pathway was recently evidenced in *JAK2*^{V617F} MPN cells as antiproliferative ⁹⁶. The effects of IFN α appear to be dependent on p53 ⁹⁷. Finally, it has been observed that *JAK2*^{V617F}, but not *CALR*^{mut}, was shown to prime IFN α via transcriptional induction of STAT1 ^{95,98}.

Clinical trials of IFN α in MPNs

IFN α has been shown to be efficacious in MPN for decades. A single center retrospective study of 470 PV patients that compared IFN α to either HU or phlebotomy reported longer myelofibrosis-free survival (MFS) and overall survival (OS) with IFN α , suggesting a disease-modifying role of this drug ⁹⁹. However, frequent sub-cutaneous injections and short-term side effects lead to high treatment discontinuation rate ^{100,101}. The most frequent adverse events (AEs) are flu-like symptoms, weight loss, bone pain, depression, and autoimmune complications. Development of pegylated recombinant IFNa2 (Peg-IFN α), Pegasys[®] (Peg-IFNa2a) and PegIntron[®] (Peg-IFna2b), with weekly injections ¹⁰² and more recently of ropeginterferon alfa-2b (ropeg-IFN α) with a fortnightly administration has improved tolerance and compliance.

Phase 2 clinical trials of pegylated IFNa in monotherapy in high-risk ET and PV

Several phase 2 clinical trials of Peg-IFNa2 monotherapy in HR ET and PV patients have reported a high rate of complete hematological response (CHR) rate in around 80% of patients ^{90,101,103–106}, even in patients who are refractory or intolerant to HU ¹⁰⁷. A decrease of $JAK2^{V617F}$ VAF was observed in 40% to 90% of patients with some deep molecular responses. Patients with $JAK2^{V617F}$ mutation seemed to have better responses than patients harboring additional driver mutations. A prospective study on 123 ET patients and 136 PV patients reported similar responses ¹⁰⁸. It is worth noting that hematological and molecular responses increased over the time and were durable. A bone marrow response was also reported in a subset of patients. The rate of thromboembolic events was uniformly low (reviewed in ¹⁰⁹). The multicenter PEGINVERA phase 1/2 clinical trial of ropeg-IFN α in PV patients had similar results ¹¹⁰.

Randomized phase 3 clinical trials of pegylated IFN α in monotherapy in high-risk ET and PV The MPD-RC 112 ¹¹¹, DALIAH ¹¹² and PROUD/CONTINUATION–PV ¹¹¹ phase 3 trials randomized pegylated IFN α to HU in HR adult ET and PV patients (Table 1).

The MPD-RC 112 trial compared Peg-IFNa2a to HU in HR ET and PV patients. The study enrolled 168 patients (81 ET and 87 PV) out of the targeted number of 300 patients due to the lack of availability of Peg-IFNa2a, which limited its statistical power. In the DALIAH trial patients aged over 60 were randomized to either Peg-IFNa2a, Peg-IFNa2b or HU and patients \leq 60 years of age to Peg-IFNa2a or Peg-IFNa2b, resulting in imbalance between the two arms with 38 patients assigned to the HU arm and 135 patients to the Peg-IFN α arm; patients were significantly younger in the Peg-IFN α arm. Of note, 20% of the patients had MF. The PROUD/CONTINUATION–PV trial randomized ropeg-IFN α versus HU in 257 PV patients who required cytoreduction with no prior treatment or with no CHR after less than 3 years of HU. Despite some limitations, these studies concluded to comparable efficacy of pegylated IFN α and HU with no difference in term of hematological and molecular response rates at 12 months. Then, the overall response rate (ORR) and CHR gradually increased among patients treated with pegylated IFN α and decreased in patients treated with HU, reaching statistical significance at the later evaluation time points. From 24 months, patients treated with pegylated IFN α had significant higher, deeper and longer molecular responses.

12

In the DALIAH trial, the Peg-IFN α arm compared to HU had a significant higher rate of discontinuation due to toxicity (30% of the PV patients), probably reflecting a lower clinical tolerability of Peg-Intron[®]. Tolerability data were indeed better in patients treated with Peg-IFNa2a and ropeg-IFN α . In the MPD-RC 112 trial, > or = grade 3 AEs were more frequent with Pegasys[®] but the discontinuation rate for AE was similar between arms (11% *versus* 15%). Only 11% of patients in the ropeg-IFN α arm stopped their treatment due to drug-related toxicity in the PROUD/CONTINUATION-PV study.

Combination therapy of RUX and pegylated IFN α in high risk PV

In contrast to its inhibitory effect on JAK1, adding RUX to IFN α increased efficacy and tolerance to treatment by reducing inflammation ¹¹³. In the phase 2 COMBI-I study, 32 patients with active PV received a combination of RUX and Peg-IFN α . Eighty-one percent of them achieved complete PBC normalization within 6 months with a median time to response of 1 month ¹¹⁴. At the 2 years final analysis, 22% of patients achieved a partial response (including absence of symptoms, normal spleen size, normal PBC, no progression or vascular event) and 9% achieved CHR (PR with histological remission). The *JAK2*^{V617F} VAF significantly decreased at all time points. Although the majority of patients were intolerant to IFN α before enrollment, only 31% of them stopped Peg-IFN α . There were few \geq grade 3 hematological AEs. Grade 3-4 pneumonias were reported in 15.6% of patients ¹¹⁵. The COMBI-II trial is currently evaluating the efficacy and safety of RUX and Peg-IFN α combination in 25 newly diagnosed PV patients. Preliminary data show high CHR rate after 1 month of treatment as well as a significant decrease of *JAK2*^{V617F}, with an acceptable toxicity profile ¹¹⁶.

Pegylated IFNα in low-risk PV

The randomized phase 2 Low-PV study compared ropeg-IFN α and phlebotomy versus phlebotomy alone in low-risk PV patients ¹¹⁷. Addition of ropeg-IFN α led to higher response rate and improvement of symptoms and PBC. Response to ropeg-IFN α was durable ^{117,118}. There was no difference for grade 3 AE between arms.

Clinical trials of pegylated IFN α in MF

Several case series and preliminary results of the phase 2 P1101MF trial reported efficacy of pegylated IFN α in monotherapy in MF patients with resolution of symptoms, reduction of spleen size, PBC improvement and decrease of *JAK2*^{V617F} VAF with acceptable safety profile ^{119–122}. In the P1101MF study, among the 46 patients who had serial bone marrow biopsies, eight patients (17.4%) had resolution of marrow fibrosis by 48 weeks. MF patients seem to benefit from IFN α in monotherapy at early stage of the disease. Eighty MF patients enrolled in the COMBI I study and 37 MF patients in the phase 1/2 RUXOPEG (preliminary results) received combination of Peg-IFN α and RUX. They obtained rapid clinical, hematological, molecular and histological responses with acceptable toxicities ^{114,115,123}. Molecular response in *CALR*^{mut} patients was more infrequent than for *JAK2*^{V617F} patients.

Clinical trials of pegylated IFN α in MPN: conclusion

Clinical trials confirm the high rate of hematological and molecular responses particularly in JAK2^{V617F} patients as well as the safety of IFN α for the treatment of ET, PV, and early PMF. Response to IFN α is more gradual compared to HU but is deeper and more durable but needs long-term exposition to IFN α to obtained full efficiency. These trials point IFN α as a disease-modifying therapy that could counteract disease progression and even cure JAK2^{V617F} MPN, suggesting the possibility of IFN α discontinuation in patients with long-term and deep molecular responses. Eligibility criteria for IFN α interruption have still to be clearly defined but works have been done based on mathematical modeling and statistical inference ¹²⁴⁻¹²⁶. Association of IFN α with RUX led to fast response without limiting toxicity. Therefore, improvement of IFN α treatment could rely on the combination with other drugs. Pre-clinical models have suggested a synergistic association between IFN α and arsenic ¹²⁷ as well as IFN α and 5-azacytidine that could specifically overcome resistance to treatment due to DNMT3A loss ^{128,129}. The development of oral forms of arsenic and 5-azacytidine could make the administration of these drugs easier in MPN patients, but the toxicities of these combinations could be a limiting factor. Moreover, additional non-driver mutation should be taken into account, especially TP53 mutation that is a risk factor for leukemia transformation ⁶¹ and can be selected upon IFN α treatment ¹³⁰. Therefore, in presence of *TP53* mutation, treatment with IFN α should be carefully followed or avoided.

Conclusions and perspectives

In conclusion, MPN are due to driver mutations occurring in HSC during fetal life or early childhood and that leads to slow clonal expansion until the disease reveals itself decades after, mainly after sixty, opening new avenues for the early detection of MPN in the general population and for the early diagnosis and treatment of MPN diseases. Pioneer works have started but should be more deeply refined in view of the large diversity of MPN development (age, type of disease, progression). In the future, we can hope to intercept the MPN development with selective therapies (IFN α , CALR^{mut} monoclonal antibodies and JAK2^{V617F} inhibitors) that will decrease of the malignant clone. Furthermore, additional mutations occurring during the progression of the disease are likely to alter the response to conventional therapies, which is why it is also important to use therapies such as IFN α in the prevention of MPN progression at the time of presentation. Such therapies will be difficult to evaluate in early MPN patients and remain a challenge in people without any symptoms such as in pre-MPN state.

REFERENCES

1. Khoury JD, Solary E, Abla O, et al. The 5th edition of the World Health Organization Classification of Haematolymphoid Tumours: Myeloid and Histiocytic/Dendritic Neoplasms. Leukemia. 2022;36(7):1703-1719.

2. Arber DA, Orazi A, Hasserjian R, et al. The 2016 revision to the World Health Organization classification of myeloid neoplasms and acute leukemia. Blood. 2016;127(20):2391-405.

3. Arber DA, Orazi A, Hasserjian RP, et al. International Consensus Classification of Myeloid Neoplasms and Acute Leukemias: integrating morphologic, clinical, and genomic data. Blood. 2022;140(11):1200-1228.

4. James C, Ugo V, Le Couedic JP, et al. A unique clonal JAK2 mutation leading to constitutive signalling causes polycythaemia vera. Nature. 2005;434(7037):1144-1148.

5. Klampfl T, Gisslinger H, Harutyunyan AS, et al. Somatic mutations of calreticulin in myeloproliferative neoplasms. N Engl J Med. 2013;369(25):2379-2390.

6. Nangalia J, Massie CE, Baxter EJ, et al. Somatic CALR mutations in myeloproliferative neoplasms with nonmutated JAK2. N Engl J Med. 2013;369(25):2391-2405.

7. Pikman Y, Lee BH, Mercher T, et al. MPLW515L is a novel somatic activating mutation in myelofibrosis with myeloid metaplasia. PLoS Med. 2006;3(7):e270.

8. Barbui T, Tefferi A, Vannucchi AM, et al. Philadelphia chromosome-negative classical myeloproliferative neoplasms: revised management recommendations from European LeukemiaNet. Leukemia. 2018;32(5):1057-1069.

9. Mesa RA, Jamieson C, Bhatia R, et al. NCCN Guidelines Insights: Myeloproliferative Neoplasms, Version 2.2018. J Natl Compr Canc Netw. 2017;15(10):1193-1207.

10. Haider M, Gangat N, Lasho T, et al. Validation of the revised international prognostic score of thrombosis for essential thrombocythemia (IPSET -thrombosis) in 585 Mayo clinic patients. Am J Hematol. 2016;91(4):390-394.

11. Alvarez-Larrán A, Cuevas B, Velez P, et al. Application of IPSET-thrombosis in 1366 Patients Prospectively Followed From the Spanish Registry of Essential Thrombocythemia. Hemasphere. 2023;7(8):e936.

12. Alvarez-Larrán A, Sant'Antonio E, Harrison C, et al. Unmet clinical needs in the management of CALR-mutated essential thrombocythaemia: a consensus-based proposal from the European LeukemiaNet. Lancet Haematol. 2021;8(9):e658-e665.

13. Landolfi R, Marchioli R, Kutti J, et al. Efficacy and Safety of Low-Dose Aspirin in Polycythemia Vera. N Engl J Med. 2004;350(2):114-124.

14. Marchioli R, Finazzi G, Specchia G, et al. Cardiovascular Events and Intensity of Treatment in Polycythemia Vera. N Engl J Med. 2013;368(1):22-33.

15. Gordeuk VR, Key NS, Prchal JT. Re-evaluation of hematocrit as a determinant of thrombotic risk in erythrocytosis. Haematologica. 2019;104(4):653-658.

16. Mazza GL, Mead-Harvey C, Mascarenhas J, et al. Symptom burden and quality of life in patients with high-risk essential thrombocythaemia and polycythaemia vera receiving hydroxyurea or pegylated interferon alfa-2a: a post-hoc analysis of the MPN-RC 111 and 112 trials. Lancet Haematol. 2022;9(1):e38-e48.

17. Marchetti M, Vannucchi AM, Griesshammer M, et al. Appropriate management of polycythaemia vera with cytoreductive drug therapy: European LeukemiaNet 2021 recommendations. Lancet Haematol. 2022;9(4):e301-e311.

18. Gerds AT, Gotlib J, Ali H, et al. Myeloproliferative Neoplasms, Version 3.2022, NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology. J Natl Compr Canc Netw. 2022;20(9):1033-1062.

19. McLornan D, Eikema DJ, Czerw T, et al. Trends in allogeneic haematopoietic cell transplantation for myelofibrosis in Europe between 1995 and 2018: a CMWP of EBMT retrospective analysis. Bone Marrow Transplant. 2021;56(9):2160-2172.

20. Passamonti F, Mora B, Barraco D, Maffioli M. Post-ET and Post-PV Myelofibrosis: Updates on a Distinct Prognosis from Primary Myelofibrosis. Curr Hematol Malig Rep. 2018;13(3):173-182.

21. Verstovsek S, Mesa RA, Gotlib J, et al. A Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Trial of Ruxolitinib for Myelofibrosis. N Engl J Med. 2012;366(9):799-807.

22. Harrison C, Kiladjian JJ, Al-Ali HK, et al. JAK inhibition with ruxolitinib versus best available therapy for myelofibrosis. N Engl J Med. 2012;366(9):787-798.

23. Pardanani A, Harrison C, Cortes JE, et al. Safety and Efficacy of Fedratinib in Patients With Primary or Secondary Myelofibrosis: A Randomized Clinical Trial. JAMA Oncol. 2015;1(5):643.

24. Harrison CN, Schaap N, Vannucchi AM, et al. Janus kinase-2 inhibitor fedratinib in patients with myelofibrosis previously treated with ruxolitinib (JAKARTA-2): a single-arm, open-label, non-randomised, phase 2, multicentre study. Lancet Haematol. 2017;4(7):e317-e324.

25. Mesa RA, Vannucchi AM, Mead A, et al. Pacritinib versus best available therapy for the treatment of myelofibrosis irrespective of baseline cytopenias (PERSIST-1): an international, randomised, phase 3 trial. Lancet Haematol. 2017;4(5):e225-e236.

26. Mascarenhas J, Hoffman R, Talpaz M, et al. Pacritinib vs Best Available Therapy, Including Ruxolitinib, in Patients With Myelofibrosis: A Randomized Clinical Trial. JAMA Oncol. 2018;4(5):652.

27. Tefferi A. Primary myelofibrosis: 2023 update on diagnosis, risk-stratification, and management. Am J Hematol. 2023;98(5):801-821.

28. Mesa RA, Kiladjian J-J, Catalano JV, et al. SIMPLIFY-1: A Phase III Randomized Trial of Momelotinib Versus Ruxolitinib in Janus Kinase Inhibitor–Naïve Patients With Myelofibrosis. J Clin Oncol. 2017;35(34):3844-3850.

29. Verstovsek S, Gerds AT, Vannucchi AM, et al. Momelotinib versus danazol in symptomatic patients with anaemia and myelofibrosis (MOMENTUM): results from an international, double-blind, randomised, controlled, phase 3 study. Lancet. 2023;401(10373):269-280.

30. Pemmaraju N, Bose P, Rampal R, Gerds AT, Fleischman A, Verstovsek S. Ten years after ruxolitinib approval for myelofibrosis: a review of clinical efficacy. Leuk Lymphoma. 2023;64(6):1063-1081.

31. Harrison CN, Kiladjian J-J, Palandri F, Hamer-Maansson J, Braunstein EM, Passamonti F. Ruxolitinib Treatment in Polycythemia Vera Results in Reduction in JAK2 Allele Burden in Addition to Improvement in Hematocrit Control and Symptom Burden. Blood. 2023;142(Supplement 1):4553.

32. Elf S, Abdelfattah NS, Chen E, et al. Mutant Calreticulin Requires Both Its Mutant Cterminus and the Thrombopoietin Receptor for Oncogenic Transformation. Cancer Discov. 2016;6(4):368-381.

33. Chachoua I, Pecquet C, El-Khoury M, et al. Thrombopoietin receptor activation by myeloproliferative neoplasm associated calreticulin mutants. Blood. 2016;127(10):13251335.

34. Marty C, Pecquet C, Nivarthi H, et al. Calreticulin mutants in mice induce an MPLdependent thrombocytosis with frequent progression to myelofibrosis. Blood. 2016;127(10):1317-1324.

35. Araki M, Yang Y, Masubuchi N, et al. Activation of the thrombopoietin receptor by mutant calreticulin in CALR-mutant myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2016;127(10):13071316.

36. Pecquet C, Papadopoulos N, Balligand T, et al. Secreted mutant calreticulins as rogue

cytokines in myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2023;141(8):917-929.

37. Hasan S, Lacout C, Marty C, et al. JAK2V617F expression in mice amplifies early hematopoietic cells and gives them a competitive advantage that is hampered by IFNalpha. Blood. 2013;122(8):1464-1477.

38. Mullally A, Bruedigam C, Poveromo L, et al. Depletion of Jak2V617F myeloproliferative neoplasm-propagating stem cells by interferon-alpha in a murine model of polycythemia vera. Blood. 2013;121(18):3692-3702.

39. Benlabiod C, Cacemiro M da C, Nédélec A, et al. Calreticulin del52 and ins5 knock-in mice recapitulate different myeloproliferative phenotypes observed in patients with MPN. Nat Commun. 2020;11(1):4886.

40. Li J, Prins D, Park HJ, et al. Mutant calreticulin knockin mice develop thrombocytosis and myelofibrosis without a stem cell self-renewal advantage. Blood. 2018;131(6):649-661.

41. Dunbar A, Bowman RL, Park Y, et al. Jak2 ^{V617F} Reversible Activation Shows an Essential Requirement for Jak2 ^{V617F} in Myeloproliferative Neoplasms (MPNs). Blood. 2022;140(Supplement 1):803-804.

42. Anand S, Stedham F, Beer P, et al. Effects of the JAK2 mutation on the hematopoietic stem and progenitor compartment in human myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2011;118(1):177-181.

43. Dupont S, Masse A, James C, et al. The JAK2 617V>F mutation triggers erythropoietin hypersensitivity and terminal erythroid amplification in primary cells from patients with polycythemia vera. Blood. 2007;110(3):1013-1021.

44. Van Egeren D, Escabi J, Nguyen M, et al. Reconstructing the Lineage Histories and Differentiation Trajectories of Individual Cancer Cells in Myeloproliferative Neoplasms. Cell Stem Cell. 2021;28(3):514-523.

45. Rumi E, Pietra D, Ferretti V, et al. JAK2 or CALR mutation status defines subtypes of essential thrombocythemia with substantially different clinical course and outcomes. Blood. 2014;123(10):1544-1551.

46. Kjaer L, Holmstrom MO, Cordua S, et al. Sorted peripheral blood cells identify CALR mutations in B- and T-lymphocytes. Leuk Lymphoma. 2018;59(4):973-977.

47. El-Khoury M, Cabagnols X, Mosca M, et al. Different impact of calreticulin mutations on human hematopoiesis in myeloproliferative neoplasms. Oncogene. 2020;39(31):5323-5337.

48. Hermange G, Rakotonirainy A, Bentriou M, et al. Inferring the initiation and development of myeloproliferative neoplasms. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2022;119(37):e2120374119.

49. Salati S, Genovese E, Carretta C, et al. Calreticulin Ins5 and Del52 mutations impair unfolded protein and oxidative stress responses in K562 cells expressing CALR mutants. Sci Rep. 2019;9(1):10558.

50. Nam AS, Kim K-T, Chaligne R, et al. Somatic mutations and cell identity linked by Genotyping of Transcriptomes. Nature. 2019;571(7765):355-360.

51. Jutzi JS, Marneth AE, Jiménez-Santos MJ, et al. CALR-mutated cells are vulnerable to combined inhibition of the proteasome and the endoplasmic reticulum stress response. Leukemia. 2023;37(2):359-369.

52. Liu P, Zhao L, Loos F, et al. Immunosuppression by Mutated Calreticulin Released from Malignant Cells. Mol Cell. 2020;77(4):748-760.

53. Vainchenker W, Kralovics R. Genetic basis and molecular pathophysiology of classical myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2017;129(6):667-679.

54. Ortmann CA, Kent DG, Nangalia J, et al. Effect of mutation order on

myeloproliferative neoplasms. N Engl J Med. 2015;372(7):601-612.

55. Delhommeau F, Dupont S, Della Valle V, et al. Mutation in TET2 in myeloid cancers. N Engl J Med. 2009;360(22):2289-2301.

56. Vainchenker W, Plo I. TET2 loss, a rescue of JAK2V617F HSCs. Blood 2015;125(2):212-213.

57. Nussenzveig RH, Swierczek SI, Jelinek J, et al. Polycythemia vera is not initiated by JAK2 mutation. Exp Hematol. 2007;35(1):32.e1-32.e9.

58. Shimizu T, Kubovcakova L, Nienhold R, et al. Loss of Ezh2 synergizes with JAK2-V617F in initiating myeloproliferative neoplasms and promoting myelofibrosis. J Exp Med. 2016;213(8):1479-1496.

59. Yang Y, Akada H, Nath D, Hutchison RE, Mohi G. Loss of Ezh2 cooperates with Jak2V617F in the development of myelofibrosis in a mouse model of myeloproliferative neoplasm. Blood. 2016;127(26):3410-3423.

60. McKenney AS, Lau AN, Somasundara AVH, et al. JAK2/IDH-mutant-driven myeloproliferative neoplasm is sensitive to combined targeted inhibition. J Clin Invest. 2018;128(10):4743.

61. Rodriguez-Meira A, Norfo R, Wen S, et al. Single-cell multi-omics identifies chronic inflammation as a driver of TP53-mutant leukemic evolution. Nat Genet. 2023;55(9):1531-1541.

62. Harutyunyan A, Klampfl T, Cazzola M, Kralovics R. p53 lesions in leukemic transformation. N Engl J Med. 2011;364(5):488-490.

63. Bick AG, Weinstock JS, Nandakumar SK, et al. Inherited causes of clonal haematopoiesis in 97,691 whole genomes. Nature. 2020;586(7831):763-768.

64. Bao EL, Nandakumar SK, Liao X, et al. Inherited myeloproliferative neoplasm risk affects haematopoietic stem cells. Nature. 2020;586(7831):769-775.

65. Guo J, Walter K, Quiros PM, et al. Inherited polygenic effects on common hematological traits influence clonal selection on JAK2V617F and the development of myeloproliferative neoplasms. Nat Genet. 2024;56(2):273-280.

66. Bellanné-Chantelot C, Rabadan Moraes G, Schmaltz-Panneau B, Marty C, Vainchenker W, Plo I. Germline genetic factors in the pathogenesis of myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood Rev. 2020;42:100710.

67. Rabadan Moraes G, Pasquier F, Marzac C, et al. An inherited gain-of-function risk allele in EPOR predisposes to familial JAK2V617F myeloproliferative neoplasms. Br J Haematol 2022;198(1):131-136.

68. Koschmieder S, Chatain N. Role of inflammation in the biology of myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood Rev. 2020;42:100711.

69. Walter D, Lier A, Geiselhart A, et al. Exit from dormancy provokes DNA-damageinduced attrition in haematopoietic stem cells. Nature. 2015;520(7548):549-552.

70. Fleischman AG, Aichberger KJ, Luty SB, et al. TNFalpha facilitates clonal expansion of JAK2V617F positive cells in myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2011;118(24):6392-6398.

71. Meisel M, Hinterleitner R, Pacis A, et al. Microbial signals drive pre-leukaemic myeloproliferation in a Tet2-deficient host. Nature. 2018;557(7706):580-584.

72. Rai S, Grockowiak E, Hansen N, et al. Inhibition of interleukin-1 β reduces myelofibrosis and osteosclerosis in mice with JAK2-V617F driven myeloproliferative neoplasm. Nat Commun. 2022;13(1):5346.

73. Melo-Cardenas J, Bezavada L, Crawford JC, et al. IL-13/IL-4 signaling contributes to fibrotic progression of the myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2022;140(26):2805-2817.

74. Busque L, Gilliland DG, Prchal JT, et al. Clonality in juvenile chronic myelogenous leukemia. Blood. 1995;85(1):21-30.

75. Jaiswal S, Fontanillas P, Flannick J, et al. Age-related clonal hematopoiesis associated with adverse outcomes. N Engl J Med. 2014;371(26):2488-2498.

76. Genovese G, Kahler AK, Handsaker RE, et al. Clonal hematopoiesis and blood-cancer risk inferred from blood DNA sequence. N Engl J Med. 2014;371(26):2477-2487.

77. Busque L, Patel JP, Figueroa ME, et al. Recurrent somatic TET2 mutations in normal elderly individuals with clonal hematopoiesis. Nat Genet. 2012;44(11):1179-1181.

78. Gu M, Kovilakam SC, Dunn WG, et al. Multiparameter prediction of myeloid neoplasia risk. Nat Genet. 2023;55(9):1523-1530.

79. Cordua S, Kjaer L, Skov V, Pallisgaard N, Hasselbalch HC, Ellervik C. Prevalence and phenotypes of JAK2 V617F and calreticulin mutations in a Danish general population. Blood. 2019;134(5):469-479.

80. McKerrell T, Park N, Moreno T, et al. Leukemia-associated somatic mutations drive distinct patterns of age-related clonal hemopoiesis. Cell Rep. 2015;10(8):1239-1245.

81. Lundberg P, Takizawa H, Kubovcakova L, et al. Myeloproliferative neoplasms can be initiated from a single hematopoietic stem cell expressing JAK2-V617F. J Exp Med. 2014;211(11):2213-2230.

82. Pegliasco J, Hirsch P, Marzac C, et al. Germline ATG2B/GSKIP-containing 14q32 duplication predisposes to early clonal hematopoiesis leading to myeloid neoplasms. Leukemia.2022;36(1)126-137.

83. Williams N, Lee J, Mitchell E, et al. Life histories of myeloproliferative neoplasms inferred from phylogenies. Nature. 2022;602(7895):162-168.

84. Hirsch P, Mamez AC, Belhocine R, et al. Clonal history of a cord blood donor cell leukemia with prenatal somatic JAK2 V617F mutation. Leukemia. 2016;30(8):1756-1759.
85. Sobas M, Kiladjian J-J, Beauverd Y, et al. Real-world study of children and young adults with myeloproliferative neoplasms: identifying risks and unmet needs. Blood Adv. 2022;6(17):5171-5183.

86. Sousos N, Ní Leathlobhair M, Simoglou Karali C, et al. In utero origin of myelofibrosis presenting in adult monozygotic twins. Nat Med. 2022;28(6):1207-1211.
87. Watson CJ, Papula AL, Poon GYP, et al. The evolutionary dynamics and fitness

landscape of clonal hematopoiesis. Science. 2020;367(6485):1449-1454.

88. Schneider WM, Chevillotte MD, Rice CM. Interferon-stimulated genes: a complex web of host defenses. Ann Rev Immunol. 2014;32:513-545.

89. Decker T, Muller M, Stockinger S. The yin and yang of type I interferon activity in bacterial infection. Nat Rev Immunol. 2005;5(9):675-687.

90. Kiladjian JJ, Cassinat B, Turlure P, et al. High molecular response rate of polycythemia vera patients treated with pegylated interferon alpha-2a. Blood. 2006;108(6):2037-2040.

91. Rao TN, Hansen N, Hilfiker J, et al. JAK2-mutant hematopoietic cells display metabolic alterations that can be targeted to treat myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2019;134(21):1832-1846.

92. Tong J, Sun T, Ma S, et al. Hematopoietic Stem Cell Heterogeneity Is Linked to the Initiation and Therapeutic Response of Myeloproliferative Neoplasms. Cell Stem Cell. 2021;28(3):502-513.

93. King KY, Matatall KA, Shen C-C, Goodell MA, Swierczek SI, Prchal JT. Comparative long-term effects of interferon α and hydroxyurea on human hematopoietic progenitor cells. Exp Hematol. 2015;43(10):912-918.

94. Mosca M, Hermange G, Tisserand A, et al. Inferring the dynamics of mutated hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells induced by IFN α in myeloproliferative neoplasms. Blood. 2021;138(22):2231-2243.

95. Austin RJ, Straube J, Bruedigam C, et al. Distinct effects of ruxolitinib and interferonalpha on murine JAK2V617F myeloproliferative neoplasm hematopoietic stem cell populations. Leukemia. 2020;34(4):1075-1089.

96. Saleiro D, Wen JQ, Kosciuczuk EM, et al. Discovery of a signaling feedback circuit that defines interferon responses in myeloproliferative neoplasms. Nat Commun. 2022;13(1):1750.

97. Lu M, Wang X, Li Y, et al. Combination treatment in vitro with Nutlin, a smallmolecule antagonist of MDM2, and pegylated interferon alpha 2a specifically targets JAK2V617F positive polycythemia vera cells. Blood. 2012;120(15):3098-3105.

98. Czech J, Cordua S, Weinbergerova B, et al. JAK2V617F but not CALR mutations confer increased molecular responses to interferon- α via JAK1/STAT1 activation. Leukemia. 2019;33(4):995-1010.

99. Abu-Zeinah G, Krichevsky S, Cruz T, et al. Interferon-alpha for treating polycythemia vera yields improved myelofibrosis-free and overall survival. Leukemia. 2021;35(9):2592-2601.

100. Lengfelder E, Berger U, Hehlmann R. Interferon α in the treatment of polycythemia vera. Ann Hematol. 2000;79(3):103-109.

101. Kiladjian J-J, Chomienne C, Fenaux P. Interferon- α therapy in bcr-abl-negative myeloproliferative neoplasms. Leukemia. 2008;22(11):1990-1998.

102. Kozlowski A, Charles SA, Harris JM. Development of Pegylated Interferons for the Treatment of Chronic Hepatitis C. BioDrugs. 2001;15(7):419-429.

103. Radin AI, Kim HT, Grant BW, et al. Phase II study of $\alpha 2$ interferon in the treatment of the chronic myeloproliferative disorders (E5487): A trial of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. Cancer. 2003;98(1):100-109.

104. Quintás-Cardama A, Kantarjian H, Manshouri T, et al. Pegylated Interferon Alfa-2a Yields High Rates of Hematologic and Molecular Response in Patients With Advanced Essential Thrombocythemia and Polycythemia Vera. J Clin Oncol. 2009;27(32):5418-5424.

105. Masarova L, Patel KP, Newberry KJ, et al. Pegylated interferon alfa-2a in patients with essential thrombocythaemia or polycythaemia vera: a post-hoc, median 83 month followup of an open-label, phase 2 trial. Lancet Haematol. 2017;4(4):e165-e175.

106. Masarova L, Yin CC, Cortes JE, et al. Histomorphological responses after therapy with pegylated interferon alpha-2a in patients with essential thrombocythemia (ET) and polycythemia vera (PV). Exp hematol Oncol. 2017;6:30.

107. Yacoub A, Mascarenhas J, Kosiorek H, et al. Pegylated interferon alfa-2a for polycythemia vera or essential thrombocythemia resistant or intolerant to hydroxyurea. Blood. 2019;134(18):1498-1509.

108. Huang B-T, Zeng Q-C, Zhao W-H, Li B-S, Chen R. Interferon α -2b gains high sustained response therapy for advanced essential thrombocythemia and polycythemia vera with JAK2V617F positive mutation. Leuk Res. 2014;38(10):1177-1183.

109. Bewersdorf JP, Giri S, Wang R, et al. Interferon alpha therapy in essential thrombocythemia and polycythemia vera—a systematic review and meta-analysis. Leukemia. 2021;35(6):1643-1660.

110. Them NCC, Bagienski K, Berg T, et al. Molecular responses and chromosomal aberrations in patients with polycythemia vera treated with peg-proline-interferon alpha-2b. Am J Hematol. 2015;90(4):288-294.

111. Mascarenhas J, Kosiorek HE, Prchal JT, et al. A Randomized, Phase 3, Trial of Interferon- α versus Hydroxyurea in Polycythemia Vera and Essential Thrombocythemia. Blood. 2022;139(19):2931-2941.

112. Knudsen TA, Hansen DL, Ocias LF, et al. Final Analysis of the Daliah Trial: A Randomized Phase III Trial of Interferon- α Versus Hydroxyurea in Patients with MPN. Blood. 2023;142(Supplement 1):746.

113. Bjørn ME, De Stricker K, Kjær L, Ellemann K, Hasselbalch HC. Combination therapy with interferon and JAK1-2 inhibitor is feasible: Proof of concept with rapid reduction in JAK2V617F-allele burden in polycythemia vera. Leuk Res Rep. 2014;3(2):73-75.

114. Mikkelsen SU, Kjaer L, Bjørn ME, et al. Safety and efficacy of combination therapy of interferon- α 2 and ruxolitinib in polycythemia vera and myelofibrosis. Cancer Med. 2018;7(8):3571-3581.

115. Sørensen AL, Mikkelsen SU, Knudsen TA, et al. Ruxolitinib and interferon- α 2 combination therapy for patients with polycythemia vera or myelofibrosis: a phase II study. Haematologica. 2020;105(9):2262-2272.

116. Sørensen ALL, Skov V, Kjær L, et al. Combination Therapy with Ruxolitinib and Interferon in Newly Diagnosed Patients with Polycythemia Vera. Blood. 2022;140(Supplement 1):6806-6807.

117. Barbui T, Vannucchi AM, De Stefano V, et al. Ropeginterferon alfa-2b versus phlebotomy in low-risk patients with polycythaemia vera (Low-PV study): a multicentre, randomised phase 2 trial. Lancet Haematol. 2021;8(3):e175-e184.

118. Barbui T, Carobbio A, De Stefano V, et al. Ropeginterferon phase 2 randomized study in low-risk polycythemia vera: 5-year drug survival and efficacy outcomes. Ann Hematol. 2024;103(2):437-442.

119. Ianotto J-C, Chauveau A, Boyer-Perrard F, et al. Benefits and pitfalls of pegylated interferon- α 2a therapy in patients with myeloproliferative neoplasm-associated myelofibrosis: a French Intergroup of Myeloproliferative neoplasms (FIM) study. Haematologica. 2018;103(3):438-446.

120. Silver RT, Barel AC, Lascu E, et al. The effect of initial molecular profile on response to recombinant interferon- α (rIFN α) treatment in early myelofibrosis. Cancer. 2017;123(14):2680-2687.

121. O'Neill C, Siddiqi I, Brynes RK, Vergara-Lluri M, Moschiano E, O'Connell C. Pegylated interferon for the treatment of early myelofibrosis: correlation of serial laboratory studies with response to therapy. Ann Hematol. 2016;95(5):733-738.

122. Gill H, Au L, Leung GMK, et al. Ropeginterferon Alfa-2b for Pre-Fibrotic Primary Myelofibrosis and DIPSS Low/Intermediate-1 Risk Myelofibrosis: Durable Responses and Evidence of Disease Modification. Blood. 2023;142(Supplement 1):4562.

123. Kiladjian JJ, Ianotto JC, Soret J, et al. Final Results of Ruxopeg, a Phase 1/2 Adaptive Randomized Trial of Ruxolitinib (Rux) and Pegylated Interferon Alpha (IFNa) 2a in Patients with Myelofibrosis (MF). Blood. 2022;140(Supplement 1):577-578.

124. Hermange G, Cournède P-H, Plo I. Optimizing IFN alpha therapy against Myeloproliferative Neoplasms. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 2023;387(1):31-43.

125. "Hermange G, Vainchenker W, Plo I, Cournède PH. Mathematical modelling, selection and hierarchical inference to determine the minimal dose in IFNα therapy against Myeloproliferative Neoplasms. arXiv:2112.10688 [q-bio.QM]. Accessed on 20 Dec 2021. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2112.10688

126. Ottesen JT, Pedersen RK, Dam MJB, et al. Mathematical Modeling of MPNs Offers Understanding and Decision Support for Personalized Treatment. Cancers. 2020;12(8):2119.
127. Dagher T, Maslah N, Edmond V, et al. JAK2V617F myeloproliferative neoplasm eradication by a novel interferon/arsenic therapy involves PML. J Exp Med. 2021;218(2):e20201268.

128. Knudsen TA, Skov V, Stevenson K, et al. Genomic profiling of a randomized trial of interferon- α vs hydroxyurea in MPN reveals mutation-specific responses. Blood Adv. 2022;6(7):2107-2119.

129. Lock M, Luque Paz D, Hansen N, et al. Combination of 5-Azacytidine and Pegifna Is Able to Overcome Resistance in *JAK2* -V617F Positive MPN with Loss of *Dnmt3a*. Blood. 2022;140(Supplement 1):3876-3877.

130. Plo I. p53 at the crossroads of MPN treatment. Blood. 2014;124(5):668-669.

Clinical Trials	Туре	Treatments	Diseases	Hematological/Molecula r responses	Refs
MPD-RC 112	Randomize	Comparison	High risk ET	After 12 months: no	111
	d phase 3	of Peg-	and PV	difference in CHR nor MR	
		IFNa2a with	patients	After 36 months:	
		HU		increased CHR and MR in	
				IFN	
DALIAH trial	Randomize	Peg-IFNa2a,	MPN patients	From 36 to 60 months:	112
	d phase 3	Peg- FNa2b		increased CHR and MR in	
		or HU		IFN in patients per	
				protocol	
PROUD/CONTINUATION	Randomize	Ropeg- FNa	Early stage	After 12 months: no	111
–PV trial	d phase 3	versus HU	PV (no	difference in CHR nor MR	
			history of	After 36 months:	
			cytoreductive	increased CHR and MR in	
			treatment or	IFN	
			< 3 years of		
			previous		
			hydroxyurea		
			treatment		
COMBI-I study	Phase 2	RUX and	Active PV	After 6 months: CHR in	115
		Peg- FNa	patients	80% of patients	
				After 24 months:	
				22% of patients achieved	
				partial response (PR) and	
				9% achieved CHR	
				MR decreased at all time	
				points	
COMBI-II trial	Phase 2	RUX and	Newly	After 1 month: CHR	116
		Peg- FNa	diagnosed PV	After 24 months:	
		combinatio	patients	significant MR	
		n in 25			
		newly			
		diagnosed			
		PV patients			
Low-PV study	Randomize	Ropeg- FNa	Low-risk PV	After 2 years: higher	117,118

Table 1 : Latest clinical trials with $\text{IFN}\alpha$

	d phase 2	and	patients	response rate and	
		phlebotomy		improvement of	
		versus		symptoms and blood	
		phlebotomy		counts with Ropeg-IFNa	
		alone		and phlebotomy	
P1101MF trial	Phase 2	Ropeg- FNa	Prefibrotic	After 48 weeks:	116
			primary	decreased symptoms,	
			myelofibrosis	reduction of spleen size,	
			or low- or	CBC improvement,	
			intermediate	resolution of marrow	
			-1—risk	fibrosis (17.4%) and	
			myelofibrosis	significant MR	
COMBI study	Phase 2	Peg-IFNa	MF	Rapid clinical,	114,115,12
		and RUX		hematological, molecular	3
				and histological	
				responses with MR	
RUXOPEG	Phase 1/2	Peg- FNa	MF	Rapid clinical,	114,115,12
		and RUX		hematological, molecular	3
				and histological	
				responses with MR	

New approaches to standard of care in early phase MPN – can IFN α alter disease natural history?

Figures legend:

Figure 1 : Impact of driver mutations in hematopoiesis.

In ET patients, *CALR^{mut}* show strong clonal dominance in all the HSC compartment. *CALR^{mut}* induce a mild amplification during hematopoietic differentiation, being present with almost similar VAF in granulocytes than in the HSC compartment. Moreover, *CALR^{mut}* are also present in lymphoid cells including T cells. In contrast, in ET patients, *JAK2^{V617F}* is generally present with low clonal dominance in the HSC compartment but strongly amplifies during myeloid differentiation. *JAK2^{V617F}* is generally not present or at very low VAF in lymphoid cells.

Figure 2 : Early detection, early diagnosis and early prevention

A- The clonal hematopoiesis of indeterminate potential (CHIP) corresponds to a state in which driver mutations (VAF>2%) are present without giving disease. Nevertheless, as JAK2^{V617F} alone can be responsible of MPN, CHIP with JAK2^{V617F} can be considered as a pre-MPN state. The VAF of JAK2^{V617F} CHIP correlates with complete blood count (cbc) levels and with the increased risk of triggering a MPN.

B- The MPN disease onset is the result of many factors: the age of acquisition of MPN driver mutations at the level of HSC and the dynamics of mutated HSC. The latter depends on many intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

C- Natural development of the MPN diseases and early standard of care approaches in early phase of MPN. Given that driver mutations appear decades before the onset of symptoms, early detection of MPN in the general population is important to improve medical care and follow-up. Preventive medicine, which involve intercepting mutated clones using targeted therapy such as IFN α or new selective treatments, could be a breakthrough in preventing the development, progression and complications of MPN.



