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Minireview

The double life of *HOXB4*

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Abstract *HOXB4* is a homeodomain-containing transcription factor with diverse roles in embryonic development and the regulation of adult stem cells. Intriguingly, this gene can act in opposite ways when expressed by different cells, promoting the proliferation of stem cells whilst activating the apoptotic pathway in some embryonic structures. This review considers the basis for these differences in terms of the molecular biology of *HOXB4* and the cells that express it.

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1. Introduction

One of the key events in development and in the renewal of adult issues is the specification and maintenance of cellular identity. The genes that underlie this often consist of closely related groups that are frequently conserved across different animal phyla. Here, we consider one of the best known and most extensively studied examples, the HOX genes. These are a family of transcription factors characterised by a very highly conserved DNA-binding domain, and which are clustered in closely linked groups on chromosomes, their order within these groups being reflected in both the timing and region of expression in the embryo. Mutation or substitution of a HOX gene can lead to the replacement of one body part by another, reflecting the key significance of these genes in determining cellular identity [1–4]. In addition to numerous functions during development, the HOX genes later regulate stem cell proliferation and differentiation, in what is arguably an extension of embryogenesis into the adult form.

The ability of *HOX* genes to determine cellular identity may lie in part with their unusual property of both repressing and activating the transcription of different target genes. Positive regulation by HOX proteins requires the binding of a number of co-factors, most notably members of the PBX and MEIS transcription factor families [5–12]. This interaction increases the binding specificity of HOX proteins for specific target sequences in the enhancer and promoter regions of target genes.

*Corresponding author. Fax: +44 208 725 3326. E-mail address: rmorgan@sghms.ac.uk (R. Morgan). A recent study has suggested that *PBX* and *MEIS* may also assist in *HOX* target activation by penetrating inactive chromatin, thereby allowing access to previously hidden sites [13].

HOX mediated repression may occur by direct competition of the HOX complexes for other transcriptional activators, but it may also involve additional mechanisms such as the recruitment of histone deacetylase to convert chromatin to an inactive state [14]. HOX target repression may also occur in a PBX/MEIS independent manner, by blocking the histone acetyl transferase activity of the CBP protein and, again, preventing chromatin remodelling [15].

This complex mode of transcriptional regulation may account for the equally complex and often paradoxical behaviour of *HOX* genes. One example of particular note is *HOXB4*, a gene that has recently attracted widespread attention due to its apparent ability to maintain and expand haemopoietic stem cell (HSC) populations. *HOXB4* also has numerous roles in the early embryo, some of which seem to be the direct opposite of its function in the adult.

2. HOXB4 in development

One of the most extensively studied *HOX* genes is *HOXB4*. This has a key role in determining the identity of parts of the vertebrate nervous and skeletal system during development [16–19]. *Deformed* (*Dfd*), the *Drosophila* homologue of *HOXB4*, seems to have analogous functions in the fly embryo as *Dfd* mutants lack maxillary and mandibular structures [20]. In addition to defining cell identity, *Dfd* also acts as pro-apoptotic gene during early developmental stages, maintaining the boundary between maxillary and mandibular head lobes by inducing the bordering cells to enter the apoptotic pathway through activation of the *Reaper* gene [21].

Curiously, there was until recently little evidence to suggest a comparable function for the vertebrate *HOXB4* gene (or indeed any *HOX* gene), although some cell types that would normally undergo apoptosis escape this fate in the developing brains of mice lacking a functional *Hoxa1* gene [22]. A more direct demonstration for an apoptopic role of HOXB4 comes from a recent study showing that *HOXB4* expression in the notochord cells of *Xenopus* activates cell death [23]. The notochord is an early embryonic structure consisting of a rod of cells that underlie the neural tube. Early on in development, it has a number of functions that include patterning the neural tube, but it subsequently degenerates leaving a remnant to form the nuclei pulposi that in turn give rise to

the intervertebral discs. Some of the notochord cells undergo apoptosis and HOXB4 is necessary for this to occur. One of the target genes for HOXB4 in this context is FLASH, a component of the FAS mediated cell death pathway [23]. Hence, both Dfd and HOXB4 activate apoptosis during development. We should perhaps be cautious in taking this parallel too far, however, as the notochord bears no embryonic relationship to the cells that separate the head lobes in Drosophila, and in addition, Dfd activates an apoptopic pathway, via modulation of the Reaper gene, that is distinct from that activated by HOXB4 [21].

3. HOXB4 in adult stem cells

In addition to the numerous roles in development described above, *HOXB4* is also a key regulator of HSCs in the adult. Ectopic *HOXB4* expression is sufficient to confer the definitive adult HSC characteristics on embryonic progenitor cells [24]. Furthermore, retrovirally driven *HOXB4* expression in transduced adult HSC populations leads to a 1000-fold net increase in growth [25], without any apparent reduction in the ability of these cells to subsequently differentiate into lymphoid and myeloid lineages [24,25], and without the cells becoming transformed. The in vivo significance of this finding is reflected in the impaired haemopoiesis in mice lacking the *HOXB4* gene [26] and in the apparent ability of HOXB4 protein itself to expand HSC populations ex vivo [27].

How does HOXB4 promote HSC proliferation? The answer presumably lies in the downstream target genes which are activated or repressed in HOXB4 expressing cells. Several studies have indicated that the PBX co-factor is not required for the proliferative effects of HOXB4 and may in fact limit HOXB4-induced proliferation [28,29]. Despite this, HOXB4 expression in HSC activates the transcription of a number of genes involved in the regulation of cell division, including cmyc [30]. Forced expression of c-myc mirrors the effects of HOXB4 expression in HSCs, suggesting that it is actually sufficient to mediate HOXB4 action. Interestingly, c-myc is also strongly upregulated by Notch, a membrane ligand/receptor protein that promotes HSC proliferation in a similar manner to HOXB4 [30]. In addition to c-myc, two components of the AP-1 transcriptional activation complex, Jun-B and Fra-1, are also directly upregulated by HOXB4, and their overexpression can likewise replicate the proliferative effects of HOXB4 [31] (see Fig. 1).

4. Differential activity of HOXB4

HOXB4 is not the first example of a transcription factor that can both activate and repress apoptosis. One of the best characterised is the Rel/NF- κB transcription factor, which has both anti- and proapoptopic roles in T-cells (reviewed in [32]). Like HOXB4, Rel/NF- κB promotes apoptosis by activating the transcription of proapoptopic genes and can block apoptosis by the direct activation of antiapoptopic genes. Unlike Rel/NF- κB however, HOXB4 does not just repress apoptosis in some circumstances, but actively promotes proliferation. What are the key differences in the cellular environments that allow HOXB4 to function in such drastically different ways? There are probably numerous possibilities, but the two that seem

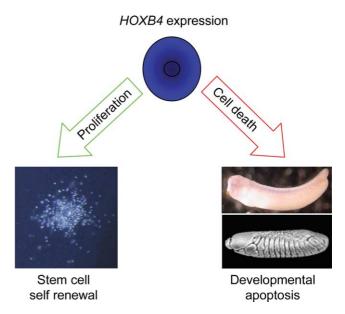


Fig. 1. *HOXB4* can activate either proliferation or apoptosis depending on the identity of the cell that expresses it. Drosophila image reproduced with the kind permission of Rudolf Turner, University of Indiana.

most likely are summarised in Fig. 2. The first of these is a difference in the expression of HOX co-factors in different contexts (Fig. 2A). This certainly seems to be important in the modulation of Rel/NF- κ B activity [33,34]. Furthermore, it is clear that co-factors such as PBX and MEIS significantly alter the functionality of HOX proteins, both directly and indirectly, primarily to activate gene transcription. Other co-factors, for example histone deacetylase, may mediate transcriptional repression. The activity of HOX proteins may then be modu-

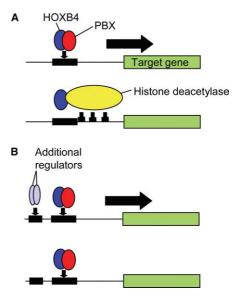


Fig. 2. Modulating *HOXB4* activity. (A) Differential availability of cofactors. HOXB4 (blue oval) may activate the transcription of a target gene when present as a complex with, for example, PBX (red oval). Alternatively, transcription could be blocked by its association with other co-factors such as histone deacetylase (yellow oval). (B) The activation of transcription may require additional factors (lilac oval) to bind to other sites in the genes enhancer, and these factors may only be available in specific cells and tissues.

lated by the presence of distinct sets of co-factors expressed in different cells. There is at present little evidence to suggest that this form of control is important in vivo, and indeed one study has shown that *HOXB4* can repress the transcription of the *Rap1* gene in cells which do express *PBX* and *MEIS* [35].

A second possibility is that, due to the inherent multi-component nature of transcriptional activation, HOX proteins will differentially activate target genes depending on the presence of other enhancer binding proteins (Fig. 2B). A possible example of this could be the regulation of FLASH, a proapoptotic gene in the notochord of Xenopus embryos. HOXB4 is not only expressed in the notochord, but also in surrounding tissues of the neural tube and the somitic mesoderm [17]. Despite this, FLASH expression is upregulated only in notochord cells by HOXB4 [23]. The notochord is quite distinct from its neighbouring tissues, however, and it expresses, for example, a number of notochord-specific transcription factors. It is possible then that FLASH transcription depends not only upon HOXB4, but also upon a number of other components that are specific to the notochord. Deletion and mutation studies of the FLASH promoter region, together with better characterisation of notochord-specific transcription factors, may help us gain a better understanding of this form of control.

Of course, both or neither of these models may explain differential *HOXB4* activity in different contexts, and to date there have been no comprehensive studies to establish which occur in vivo. What is clear though is that the possible therapeutic use of HOXB4 protein needs to be considered carefully in light of the very different responses that cells have to this multifunctional gene. Hopefully, further studies will help us to understand better these diverse, context dependent properties of *HOXB4*.

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