The Multikinase Inhibitor Sorafenib Induces Apoptosis in Highly Imatinib Mesylate-Resistant Bcr/Abl+ Human Leukemia Cells in Association with Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription 5 Inhibition and Myeloid Cell Leukemia-1 Down-Regulation

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ABSTRACT

The effects of the multikinase inhibitor sorafenib (BAY 43-9006), an agent shown previously to induce apoptosis in human leukemia cells through inhibition of myeloid cell leukemia-1 (Mcl-1) translation, have been examined in Bcr/Abl+ leukemia cells resistant to imatinib mesylate (IM). When administered at pharmacologically relevant concentrations (10–15 µM), sorafenib potently induced apoptosis in imatinib mesylate-resistant cells expressing high levels of Bcr/Abl, cells exhibiting a Bcr/Abl-independent, Lyn-dependent form of resistance, and CD34+ cells obtained from imatinib-resistant patients. In addition, Ba/F3 cells expressing mutations rendering them resistant to IM (e.g., E255K, M351T) or to IM, dasatinib, and nilotinib (T315I) remained fully sensitive to sorafenib. Induction of apoptosis by sorafenib was associated with rapid and pronounced down-regulation of Mcl-1 and diminished signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) 5 phosphorylation and reporter activity but only very modest and delayed inactivation of the Bcr/Abl downstream target Crkl. Moreover, transfection with a constitutively active STAT5 construct partially but significantly protected cells from sorafenib lethality. Ba/F3 cells expressing Bcr/Abl mutations were as sensitive to sorafenib-induced Mcl-1 down-regulation and dephosphorylation of STAT5 and eukaryotic initiation factor 4E as wild-type cells. Finally, stable knockdown of Bcl-2-interacting mediator of cell death (Bim) with short hairpin RNA in K562 cells significantly diminished sorafenib lethality, arguing strongly for a functional role of this proapoptotic Bcl-2 family member in the lethality of this agent. Together, these findings suggest that sorafenib effectively induces apoptosis in highly imatinib-resistant chronic myelogenous leukemia cells, most likely by inhibiting or down-regulating targets (i.e., STAT5 and Mcl-1) downstream or independent of Bcr/Abl.

Chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML) is a stem cell disorder characterized by a reciprocal translocation of the long arms of chromosomes 9 and 22, giving rise to the characteristic Bcr/Abl chimeric fusion protein (Walz and Sattler, 2006). Bcr/Abl is a constitutively active tyrosine kinase that signals downstream to multiple survival signaling pathways, including signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) 5, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase-1/2 (MEK1/2)/extracellular signal-regulated kinase-1/2 (ERK1/2), and nuclear factor-κB, which collectively confer on CML

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cells a survival advantage (Van Etten, 2004). CML treatment has been revolutionized by the development of Bcr/Abl kinase inhibitors, of which imatinib mesylate (IM; Gleevec) is the prototype. IM traps Bcr/Abl in an inactive configuration and potently inhibits Bcr/Abl and other kinases, including c-Kit and PDGF (Buchdunger et al., 2000). Despite its success in chronic phase disease (Druker et al., 2001), patients with CML eventually become refractory to IM through various mechanisms, including diminished drug uptake, bcr/abl amplification and/or increased expression of Bcr/Abl, or the development/pre-existence of kinase domain mutants that prevent drug binding (Waltz and Sattler, 2006). The latter mechanism is most commonly encountered in IM-refractory patients (Waltz and Sattler, 2006). To circumvent this problem, novel second-generation Bcr/Abl kinase inhibitors (e.g., AMN107, nilotinib and BMS-354825, dasatinib) have been developed that are more potent than IM and are active against most mutations in the phosphorylation loop or ATP-binding site (e.g., E255K, M351T), rendering cells resistant to IM (Talpaz et al., 2006). However, they are ineffective against mutations in the “gatekeeper” region (i.e., T315I) (Talpaz et al., 2006). Therefore, the development of new strategies to eradicate such cells represents a high priority.

The Raf pathway, which activates MEK1/2/ERK1/2, is frequently dysregulated in human cancer (Davies et al., 2002; Rajagopalan et al., 2002). Attention has recently focused on the multikinase inhibitor sorafenib (BAY 43-9006), originally developed as a specific inhibitor of C-Raf and B-Raf (Lyons et al., 2004). However, sorafenib inhibits multiple other kinases, including VEGFR-2, VEGFR-3, PDGFR-β, Flt3, and c-Kit (Wilhelm et al., 2004). Sorafenib is well-tolerated when administered with continuous dosing on a 200-mg, twice-daily schedule (Awada et al., 2005; Strumberg et al., 2005) and inactivates ERK1/2 at these doses. It is noteworthy that steady-state sorafenib plasma levels of 15 to 20 μM have been reported (Awada et al., 2005; Strumberg et al., 2005). Several groups, including our own, have reported that sorafenib potently induces apoptosis in human leukemia cells, including Bcr/Abl+ leukemias, through down-regulation of Mcl-1 (Rahmani et al., 2005a; Yu et al., 2005). Mcl-1, a multidomain member of the Bcl-2 family, promotes the survival of malignant human hematopoietic cells, including multiple myeloma and leukemia cells (Moulding et al., 2000; Derenne et al., 2002). The mechanism by which sorafenib down-regulates Mcl-1 expression involves translation inhibition, a phenomenon associated with dephosphorylation of the eIF4E translation initiation factor (Rahmani et al., 2005a). It is noteworthy that sorafenib-mediated down-regulation of Mcl-1 is independent of MEK1/2/ERK1/2 (Rahmani et al., 2005a; Yu et al., 2005), suggesting that the proapoptotic effects of sorafenib involve actions other than disruption of Raf and downstream signaling pathways.

Current information is lacking concerning the activity of sorafenib against imatinib mesylate-resistant CML cells. Resistance to imatinib mesylate has been characterized as either Bcr/Abl-dependent (Donato et al., 2003; Walz and Sattler, 2006) or Bcr/Abl-independent (Donato et al., 2003; Dai et al., 2004). For example, mutations in the Bcr/Abl kinase domain (e.g., T315I) induce sterie changes in the kinase domain that prevent drug binding and reduce or abrogate activity (Gorre et al., 2001); nevertheless, cells remain dependent on Bcr/Abl for survival. A logical approach to the eradication of such cells would be the use of alternative small molecules to inhibit mutant Bcr/Abl. Indeed, certain aurora kinase inhibitors (e.g., VX-680) inhibit Bcr/Abl displaying the T315I mutation and effectively kill highly IM-resistant cells (Young et al., 2006). On the other hand, IM resistance associated with loss of Bcr/Abl, and increased activity of the Src kinase Lyn has been described previously (Donato et al., 2003; Dai et al., 2004). Because such cells have lost Bcr/Abl-dependence, their elimination may require interruption of other survival pathways. The present studies were prompted by a desire to determine whether sorafenib triggers apoptosis in various IM-resistant Bcr/Abl+ leukemic cells and to elucidate mechanisms underlying these actions. Our results indicate that sorafenib potently induces apoptosis in Bcr/Abl+ cells highly resistant to IM through diverse mechanisms, including expression of the T315I Bcr/Abl mutation. These events are associated with a rapid inactivation of STAT5, a transcriptional factor that plays a critical role in myeloid leukemia cells survival, and down-regulation of the antiapoptotic multidomain Bcl-2 family member Mcl-1.

Materials and Methods

Cells. Human leukemia K562 cells were cultured as reported previously (Rahmani et al., 2005b). STI571-resistant K562 cells designated K562-STI-R were generated by culturing cells in progressively higher concentrations of STI571. These cells exhibit an STI571 IC50 value ~15-fold greater than parental cells. K562 cells ectopically overexpressing constitutively active STAT5 (Flag-tagged pMX-STAT5A-N1442H) and their control empty vector pMX-neo were described previously (Rahmani et al., 2005b). K562 cells, which display a marked reduction in Bcr/abl protein levels (K562-Bcr/Abl−), have been described in detail previously (Dai et al., 2004). Ba/F3 cells expressing wild-type Bcr/Abl (Bcr/Abl wt) and Bcr/Abl bearing 3 major clinically relevant mutations (E255K, T315I, and M351T) have been described previously (La Rosée et al., 2002).

K562 cells stably expressing short hairpin RNA (shRNA) directed against Bim were generated as follows: Two complementary DNA oligonucleotides containing the targeted sequence reported previously (Malhi et al., 2006; 5'-ATTACCAAGCAGCCGAAGAC-3') were synthesized, annealed, and cloned into pSUPER.retro.neo vector (Oligoengine, Seattle, WA) using standard techniques. An shRNA directed against GFP (gggtatgacagcaagagc-3') was synthesized, annealed, and cloned into pSUPER.retro.neo vector (Oligoengine, Seattle, WA) using standard techniques. An shRNA directed against GFP (gggtatgacagcaagagc-3') was synthesized, annealed, and cloned into pSUPER.retro.neo vector (Oligoengine, Seattle, WA) using standard techniques.

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National Institutes of Health (Bethesda, MD). It was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide, and aliquots were maintained at −80°C.

Assessment of Apoptosis. Apoptotic cells were routinely identified by Annexin V-fluorescein isothiocyanate staining as described previously (Rahmani et al., 2002). In brief, 10⁶ cells were collected, washed in cold phosphate-buffered saline, and then resuspended in binding buffer (10 mM HEPES/NaOH, pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl, and 2.5 mM CaCl₂) containing fluorescein-labeled annexin V (BD Pharmingen, San Diego, CA) and propidium iodide. Samples were incubated for 15 min and then analyzed by flow cytometer (FACScan; BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA).

Transient Transfection and Reporter Gene Assay. Transient transfection was performed using Amaxa nucleofector (Koenig, Germany) as described previously (Rahmani et al., 2005b). To determine the transcriptional activity of STAT5, K562 cells were cotransfected with STAT5-luc or its control counterpart TA-luc plasmids encoding the transcriptional activity of STAT5, K562 cells were cotransfected many) as described previously (Rahmani et al., 2005b). To determine luciferase activity. Then the ratios obtained for STAT5-luc were divided by those obtained for TA-luc. luciferase activity were normalized to those obtained for

Firefly luciferase using the Amaxa nucleofector system (Promega, Madison, WI). Values of firefly luciferase activity were normalized to those obtained for Renilla reniformis luciferase using the Amaxa nucleofector. Cells were incubated for 6 h and then treated with indicated agents for an additional 16 h, after which activity of firefly and Renilla reniformis luciferases were measured using the Dual-Luciferase reporter assay system (Promega, Madison, WI). Values of firefly luciferase activity were normalized to those obtained for Renilla reniformis luciferase activity. Then the ratios obtained for STAT5-luc were divided by those obtained for TA-luc.

Immunoblotting. Immunoblotting was performed using whole-cell lysates prepared as described in detail previously (Rahmani et al., 2002). The primary antibodies used in this study were Mc1-1 (BD Pharmingen), poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP, BIOMOL Research Laboratories, Plymouth Meeting, PA), phospho-STAT5 Tyr694 and phospho-eIF4E (Ser209; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA), and α-tubulin (Calbiochem).

Statistical Analysis. The significance of differences between experimental conditions was determined using the Student’s t test for unpaired observations.

Results

Imatinib Mesylate-Resistant Cells Exhibiting Increased Bcr/Abl Expression or a Bcr/Abl-Independent Form of Resistance Remain Sensitive to Sorafenib. Previous studies indicated that wild-type Bcr/Abl⁺ cells were susceptible to sorafenib-induced apoptosis (Rahmani et al., 2005a; Yu et al., 2005). Attempts were therefore undertaken to determine whether sorafenib might be active against cells resistant to imatinib mesylate through various mechanisms. To this end, sorafenib dose-response curves were compared in three cell types: wild-type K562 cells, K562 cells cultured in progressively higher concentrations of IM as described previously (Yu et al., 2002) and that exhibited approximately a 4- to 5-fold increase in Bcr/Abl protein, and imatinib-resistant K562 cells that displayed a reduction in Bcr/Abl expression accompanied by an increase in Lyn activation (Dai et al., 2004) (Fig. 1A). The latter two cell types have been shown previously to exhibit a marked reduction in IM sensitivity (Yu et al., 2002; Dai et al., 2004). However, dose-response curves for sorafenib concentrations of 5 to 20 µM were identical for the three cell lines (P > 0.05 in each case; Fig. 1B). Thus, IM-resistant K562 cells displaying increased Bcr/Abl expression or the development of a Bcr/Abl-independent form of resistance remained fully sensitive to sorafenib.

Imatinib Mesylate-Resistant Bcr/Abl⁺ Cells Expressing Bcr/Abl Kinase Mutations Remain Sensitive to Sorafenib. To determine whether cells displaying various Bcr/Abl mutations rendering them resistant to imatinib would remain sensitive to sorafenib, Ba/F3 cells transfected with wild-type, Bcr/Abl-E255K, Bcr/Abl-T315I, or Bcr/Abl-M351T were used. Consistent with previous reports (La Rosée et al., 2002), each of the mutant cell lines was highly resistant to IM (1 µM) administered for 24 or 48 h (Fig. 2A). In contrast, there was little or no cross-resistance to sorafenib administered at concentrations of 2.5 to 20 µM for 24 (Fig. 2B) and 2.5 to 15 µM for 48 h (Fig. 2C). Consistent with these results, sorafenib (10 µM) exerted similar effects on PARP degradation in each of the cell lines after 24-h (Fig. 2D) or 48-h drug exposure (data not shown). These findings indicate that Bcr/Abl mutations conferring a high degree of resistance to IM, including the T315I mutation, which effectively protects cells from agents such as dasatinib and AMN107 (Talpaz et al., 2006; von Bunhoff et al., 2006), fail to attenuate sorafenib-induced apoptosis.

Sorafenib Inhibits STAT5 Phosphorylation and Activity through a MEK1/2/ERK1/2-Independent Mechanism. The STAT5 signaling pathway is activated by Bcr/Abl and plays an important role in Bcr/Abl-mediated leukemogenic actions (de Groot et al., 1999). Furthermore, other Bcr/Abl kinase inhibitors have been shown to inactivate STAT5 (Huang et al., 2002; Fiskus et al., 2006). As a consequence, the effects of sorafenib on STAT5 activation were examined. As shown in Fig. 3A, exposure of K562 cells to sorafenib induced a rapid (i.e., within 2 h) inactivation of STAT5, which persisted throughout the entire exposure interval (16 h, a period in which 40% of cells were apoptotic, data not shown). Levels of total STAT5 decreased only
Sorafenib Induces McI-1 Down-Regulation, STAT5 Inactivation, and eIF4E Dephosphorylation in Imatinib Mesylate-Resistant Cells Exhibiting Bcr/Abl Kinase Mutations. To determine whether these events also occurred in Bcr/Abl\(^+\) cells expressing various Bcr/Abl mutants, wild-type and mutant Ba/F3 cells were exposed to 10 \(\mu\)M sorafenib for 2 to 24 h, after which expression of phospho-STAT5 was monitored. Expression of the antiapoptotic protein McI-1, a downstream target of STAT5 (Aichberger et al., 2005) that we have also shown to be down-regulated at the translational level by sorafenib (Rahmani et al., 2005a), was monitored in parallel. As shown in Fig. 4, A through D, 10 \(\mu\)M sorafenib rapidly (e.g., within 2 h) induced inactivation of STAT5 in each of the cell lines. Although a slight rebound phenomenon was observed in E255K cells, activity in all cases was essentially abrogated after 24 h. In addition, McI-1 expression was also rapidly down-regulated in cells expressing wild-type or each of the Bcr/Abl mutant proteins and was largely complete after 8 h of exposure. Furthermore, a rapid and pronounced dephosphorylation of the translation initiation factor eIF4E was observed in Ba/F3-expressing wild type and mutant Bcr/Abl after sorafenib exposure. Thus, sorafenib rapidly and potently inactivated STAT5, dephosphorylated eIF4E, and down-regulated McI-1 expression in cells expressing mutant forms of Bcr/Abl, which confer marked resistance to IM.
Sorafenib-Mediated Cell Death Involves BH3 Domain-only Bim. Extensive evidences indicate that anti-apoptotic activity of Mcl-1 involves its interaction with and blockade of the proapoptotic BH3 domain-only Bim (Gomez-Bougie et al., 2005). Given the finding that sorafenib down-regulates Mcl-1, the possibility that Bim might play a functional role in sorafenib-mediated lethal-ity seemed plausible. To test this hypothesis, K562 cells were stably transfected with constructs encoding for shRNA directed against Bim. As shown in Fig. 5A, two clones exhibiting significant knockdown of Bim proteins were used. It is noteworthy that cells in which Bim was knocked down were significantly more resistant to sorafenib-mediated lethality than their control counterparts (Fig. 5B). These findings suggest that Bim plays a functional role in sorafenib-mediated lethality in K562 cells.

Sorafenib Induces Apoptosis in Primary CD34+ Bone Marrow Cells Obtained from Patients Who Progressed on Imatinib Mesylate. Finally, the effects of sorafenib were examined with respect to apoptosis induction in CD34+ bone marrow cells from four patients who experienced disease progression while receiving IM. As shown in Fig. 6A, exposure to 10 or 15 µM sorafenib for 48 h markedly increased apoptosis in three of four patients samples (e.g., 60–95%; P < 0.01 versus controls), whereas only the 15 µM concentration was effective in the fourth patient specimen. In separate studies, exposure of normal bone marrow CD34+ to 10 or 15 µM sorafenib (48 h) resulted in only a minor increase in apoptosis (Fig. 6B). These findings indicate that a clinically relevant concentration of sorafenib can induce apoptosis in vitro in primary CD34+ cells from patients with CML, including those who have developed resistance to IM.

Discussion

Despite the success of IM in Bcr/Abl+ leukemias, the development of drug resistance represents a significant barrier to cure in such diseases (Walz and Sattler, 2006). Moreover, patients in accelerated or blast-phase CML are relatively refractory to this agent. The development of second-generation Bcr/Abl kinase inhibitors such as nilotinib and dasatinib represent a significant advance, because in addition to their enhanced activity, such agents remain active against leuke-mia cells bearing most Bcr/Abl mutations, including those residing in the activation loop and ATP-binding domain (Tal-paz et al., 2006; Walz and Sattler, 2006). However, these agents are unable to bind to Bcr/Abl-exhibiting mutations in the gatekeeper region (e.g., T315I) (O’Hare et al., 2005; Tal-
paz et al., 2006; von Bubnoff et al., 2006), raising the possibility that cells expressing this or related mutations will be selected for during therapy with second-generation kinase inhibitors. Indeed, the appearance of this and related mutations has been observed in preliminary trials involving these agents (Talpaz et al., 2006; von Bubnoff et al., 2006). Therefore, a search for alternative strategies capable of eradicating cells bearing such mutations is clearly justified.

Several groups, including our own, have reported that sorafenib potently induced apoptosis in human leukemia cells, including Bcr/Abl+ leukemias, through a mechanism involving down-regulation of Mcl-1 (Rahmani et al., 2005a; Yu et al., 2005). Furthermore, we demonstrated that this process stemmed from inhibition of Mcl-1 translation, a process associated with diminished phosphorylation of the eIF4E translation initiation factor. Recent studies suggest that Mcl-1 cooperates with Bcl-xL to tether the proapoptotic proteins Bak and Bim, a multidomain and BH3-only domain protein, respectively, and prevent their activation (Gomez-Bougie et al., 2005). Furthermore, we demonstrated that this process occurred independently of Bcr/Abl, such a mechanism would be operational in cells resistant to IM through multiple mechanisms, including increased expression of Bcr/Abl, or diverse mutations in the kinase domain. Indeed, each of the resistant cell types examined in this study displayed roughly equivalent sensitivity to sorafenib-induced lethality. Moreover, sorafenib was equally effective in blocking eIF4E phosphorylation in imatinib-sensitive and -resistant cells, including those expressing the T315I mutation.

The results of this study indicate, for the first time, that sorafenib induces a rapid and pronounced dephosphorylation downstream target of Bcr/Abl that has been implicated in Bcr/Abl-related leukemogenesis (de Groot et al., 1999). In addition, previous studies demonstrated that sorafenib potently and rapidly diminishes the expression of Mcl-1 in Bcr/Abl leukemia cells primarily through translation inhibition (Rahmani et al., 2005a). Thus, although sorafenib-mediated disruption of Bcr/Abl and STAT5 function cannot be excluded as contributing factors in Mcl-1 down-regulation, it is likely that interference with Mcl-1 translation represents the predominant mode of action. The finding that knockdown of Bim significantly diminished sorafenib lethality in K562 cells argues strongly for a functional role of this proapoptotic Bcl-2 family member in sorafenib-mediated lethality. In this regard, the bulk of evidence indicates that Mcl-1 physically interacts with Bim and blocks its proapoptotic activity (Gomez-Bougie et al., 2005). It is therefore conceivable that down-regulation of Mcl-1 might lead to an increase in free Bim protein, thereby enhancing its proapoptotic activity. In addition, other studies have shown that Mcl-1 down-regulation by itself may be sufficient to trigger apoptosis in certain transformed cells (Moulding et al., 2000; Derenne et al., 2002). In any case, to the extent that Mcl-1 down-regulation occurs independently of Bcr/Abl, such a mechanism would be operative in cells resistant to IM through multiple mechanisms, including increased expression of Bcr/Abl, or diverse mutations in the kinase domain. Indeed, each of the resistant cell types examined in this study displayed roughly equivalent sensitivity to sorafenib-induced lethality. Moreover, sorafenib was equally effective in blocking eIF4E phosphorylation in imatinib-sensitive and -resistant cells, including those expressing the T315I mutation.

Fig. 4. Exposure to sorafenib results in dephosphorylation of STAT5 and eIF4E and down-regulation of Mcl-1 in Ba/F3-expressing wild-type and mutant Bcr/Abl. Ba/F3 cells expressing wild-type Bcr/Abl (Bcr/abl-wt) or mutated forms of Bcr/Abl (E255K, T315I, or M351T) were exposed to 10 μM sorafenib for the designated intervals, after which cells were lysed and Western blot performed to monitor cleavage of PARP, phosphorylation of STAT5 and eIF4E, and levels of Mcl-1 protein. Each lane was loaded with 20 μg of protein; blots were subsequently reprobed with antibodies to tubulin to document equivalent loading and transfer. The blots shown are representative of three separate experiments.

Fig. 5. Sorafenib-mediated lethality involves the BH3 only protein Bim. A, protein lysates were prepared from two clones (Bim-shRNA4 Bim-shRNA10) of K562 cells stably transfected with shRNA construct against Bim and cells transfected with a shRNA construct directed against GFP and subjected to Western blot analysis to monitor Bim levels. B, Bim-shRNA4, Bim-shRNA10, and GFP-shRNA cells were exposed to sorafenib (10 μM) for 24 h, after which the extent of apoptosis was determined by annexin V staining assay. Values represent the means for three separate experiments ± S.D. *, significantly lower than values for GFP-shRNA cells (p < 0.05).
of STAT5, a major survival transcription factor in myeloid leukemia cells (de Groot et al., 1999). This was associated with diminished STAT5 activity as observed in cells exposed to IM but in striking contrast to the actions of the MEKI/2 inhibitors U0126 and PD184352, which failed to diminish STAT5 phosphorylation or activity. This suggests that sorafenib inactivates STAT5 through a MEKI/2/ERK1/2-independent mechanism. Moreover, the capacity of constitutively active STAT5 to protect Bcr/Abl” cells from sorafenib lethality argues that STAT5 inactivation plays a significant functional role in sorafenib-induced apoptosis. It is noteworthy that sorafenib down-regulated phospho-STAT5 levels in cells both sensitive and resistant to IM, including those bearing the T315I mutation. The finding that sorafenib rapidly and profoundly diminished STAT5 phosphorylation whereas the Bcr/Abl downstream target Crkl (ten Hoeve et al., 1994) was minimally affected suggests that sorafenib disrupts STAT5 signaling through a Bcr/Abl-independent mechanism. In this context, STAT5 is known to be phosphorylated by JAK2 and the nonreceptor tyrosine kinase Src, members of kinase families that lie downstream of multiple tyrosine kinase receptors including PDGFR and VEGFR, which are recognized targets of sorafenib (Wilhelm et al., 2004). It is therefore possible that sorafenib inactivates STAT5 through a mechanism involving the inhibition of PDGFR and VEGFR and their downstream kinases JAK2 and Src. However, the contribution of other mechanisms to this phenomenon cannot be excluded, and clearly additional studies are required to resolve these issues.

The bulk of evidence from this and our earlier study (Rahmani et al., 2005a) suggest that sorafenib acts independently of Bcr/Abl to induce apoptosis. We observed previously that sorafenib modestly diminished the expression of total and phospho-Bcr/Abl in wild-type CML cells (Rahmani et al., 2005a), effects that are likely to reflect a reduction in Bcr/Abl translation. The finding that sorafenib diminished phosphorylation of Crkl only modestly, and at relatively late intervals, argues against direct inhibition of Bcr/Abl as a primary mechanism of lethality. Thus, the actions of sorafenib stand in marked contrast to those of other tyrosine kinase inhibitors recently found to be active in IM-resistant leukemia cells. For example, the tyrophostin adaphostin (NSC680410) has been shown to inactivate/down-regulate Bcr/Abl in Bcr/ Abl mutant cells, including those expressing T315I (Chandra et al., 2006). On the other hand, the lethality of adaphostin in these cells stems from the induction of oxidative damage (i.e., reactive oxygen species generation), a phenomenon that may be independent of effects on Bcr/Abl (Chandra et al., 2006). More recently, the aurora kinase inhibitor VX-680 has shown activity against patient-derived CML cells exhibiting the T315I mutation (Young et al., 2006). This capacity is believed to stem from the ability of VX-680 to bind to the active form of the T315I variant Bcr/Abl and to prevent phosphorylation of the activation loop (Young et al., 2006). The present results also differ sharply from those of a very recent report demonstrating that the growth of hematopoietic cells bearing constitutively active FIP1L1-PDGFRα, the oncogenic kinase responsible for chronic eosinophilic leukemia (CEL) (Lierman et al., 2006), was extremely sensitive to sorafenib. It is noteworthy that sorafenib was also highly active against IM-resistant cells expressing the FIP1L1-PDGFRα T647I mutation, which is similar to the T315I Bcr/Abl mutation (Lierman et al., 2006). In this setting, sorafenib acts directly on the oncogenic kinase to inhibit cell survival. In striking contrast, the present results suggest that in cells bearing Bcr/Abl mutations rendering them resistant to IM, sorafenib acts downstream and/or independently of the Bcr/Abl kinase rather than inhibiting it directly and is therefore able to kill cells resistant to second-generation Bcr/Abl kinase inhibitors such as dasatinib and nilotinib (e.g., those bearing the T315I mutation) (Talpaz et al., 2006; von Bubnoff et al., 2006).

In summary, the present findings suggest that as in the case of IM-resistant CEL cells (Lierman et al., 2006), CML cells resistant to IM may remain susceptible to sorafenib, albeit through a fundamentally different mechanism. Although sorafenib kills IM-resistant CEL cells by inhibiting FIP1L1-PDGFRα bearing the T674I mutation that confers resistance, it seems to induce apoptosis in IM-resistant CML cells through a Bcr/Abl-independent mechanism. It is likely that activation of a distinct death pathway involving disruption of Mcl-1 translation and inhibition of STAT5 contributes significantly to this phenomenon. An important consideration is whether sorafenib will be able to eradicate CML stem cells postulated to account for disease recurrence after therapy. For example, imatinib mesylate has been shown to be relatively ineffective in eliminating such stem cells (Graham et al., 2002), and recent studies suggest that newer-genera- tion kinase inhibitors (e.g., dasatinib) may also have limited activity against these cells (Copland et al., 2006). In this context, the dependence of hematopoietic stem cells on Mcl-1 for survival (Opferman et al., 2005) may be relevant. In any case, the present results suggest that investigation of sorafenib as an agent capable of eradicating IM-resistant CML cells, either alone or perhaps in combination with other agents, deserves further consideration. Therefore, studies addressing this issue are currently underway.

**Fig. 6.** Sorafenib induces apoptosis in primary CD34+ cells isolated from patients with CML. CD34+ cells were isolated as described under Materials and Methods from the bone marrow of four patients with CML who had progressed after treatment with IM (A) or normal subject (B) and exposed to 10 and 15 μM sorafenib for 48 h, after which the extent of cell death was determined by flow cytometry using the annexin V staining assay. Values represent the means ± S.D. for each experiment performed in triplicate.


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