

REVIEW ARTICLE

Emerging Roles of Meis1 in Cardiac Regeneration, Stem Cells and Cancer

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Abstract: Meis1 is a member of three-amino-acid loop extension (TALE) homeodomain transcription factors. Studies in the last decade have shown that Meis1 has crucial roles in cardiac regeneration, stem cell function, and tumorigenesis. We have recently demonstrated that knocking out of Meis1 in adult cardiomyocytes resulted in the induction of cardiomyocyte proliferation. This suggests that targeting of Meis1 might be utilized in the manipulation of cardiomyocyte cell cycle post cardiac injuries. In addition, hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) specific deletion of Meis1 leads to *in vivo* expansion of HSCs pool. Thus, targeting Meis1 may lead to not only cell cycle entry but also *ex vivo* and *in vivo* expansion of HSCs. On the other hand, Meis1 transcriptionally regulates the expression of hypoxic tumor markers, namely Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α . Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α are involved in the induction of cytoplasmic glycolysis and scavenging of reactive oxygen species (ROS), respectively. This review aims to highlight emerging roles of Meis1 towards development of new therapeutic approaches in the treatment of myocardial injuries, bone failure, and cancer.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Meis1, myeloid ecotropic insertion site 1, was discovered in BXH-2 mouse leukemia model as a common viral integration site [1]. Meis1 is a member of 3-amino-acid loop extension class transcription factors that activate their target genes by associating with Hox transcription factors [2]. Through its binding domains in the N terminus, Meis1 interacts with its cofactors such as the transcription factors Pbx1 and Hoxa9 [3, 4]. Meis2 and Meis3 are the two other proteins that belong to the same family (Fig. 1). All of the Meis family members were identified by sequence similarity [5]. Meis2 and Meis3 protein sequences demonstrate a high degree of similarity with Meis1 (83% and 66% respectively) [6].

Meis1 function has been studied in various types of tissues. In retinal progenitor cells [7] and olfactory epithelial cells [8] Meis1 was shown to sustain the cells in an undifferentiated state. Meis1 is highly expressed in thymic epithelial cells with immature progenitor phenotype [9]. Meis1 plays a critical role in homeostasis by maintaining the epidermal stem cells in the bulge region of the epidermis. Meis1 is highly expressed in the bulge region of the hair follicle, which is one of the stem cell niches. The number of these

adult stem cells decreases by the disruption of Meis1 in the mouse epidermal tissue [10]. Interestingly, epidermal disruption of Meis1 is involved in tumor development and malignant conversion, suggesting a multi-functional model for Meis1 in the epidermis [10]. In addition, Meis1 has been shown to be involved in tumorigenesis of neuroblastomas, nephroblastomas, ovarian carcinomas, prostate cancer, non-small cell lung adenocarcinoma and leukemia [11-16]. Although correlations have been made regarding Meis1 and tumorigenesis, the molecular mechanism behind it remains undetermined.

Meis1 is greatly expressed in primitive hematopoietic populations while its expression decreases throughout differentiation [4, 17]. Meis1^{-/-} mice die around embryonic day 11.5-14.5 by virtue of defects in hematopoiesis and vascularization [18-20]. In the liver of Meis1^{-/-} mice embryos, HSC niches are severely underdeveloped and the number of colony-forming cells is significantly low, highlighting a critical function of Meis1 in HSC regulation [18-20]. We have shown that inducible Meis1 deletion in HSCs leads to the loss of HSC quiescence, followed by robust HSC expansion and exhaustion *in vivo* [21]. Serial transplantation of Meis1 knockout HSCs consequently lead to bone marrow (BM) failure demonstrating requirement of Meis1 in HSC function [3, 21]. Meis1 is also an important regulator of the redox state of HSCs. Deletion of Meis1 results in downregulation of Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α expression and concomitant elevation of ROS levels and apoptosis in hematopoietic compartment. Manipulation of ROS levels in Meis1 knockout

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Myeloid Ecotrophic Insertion Site (MEIS) Proteins (UniProtKB)

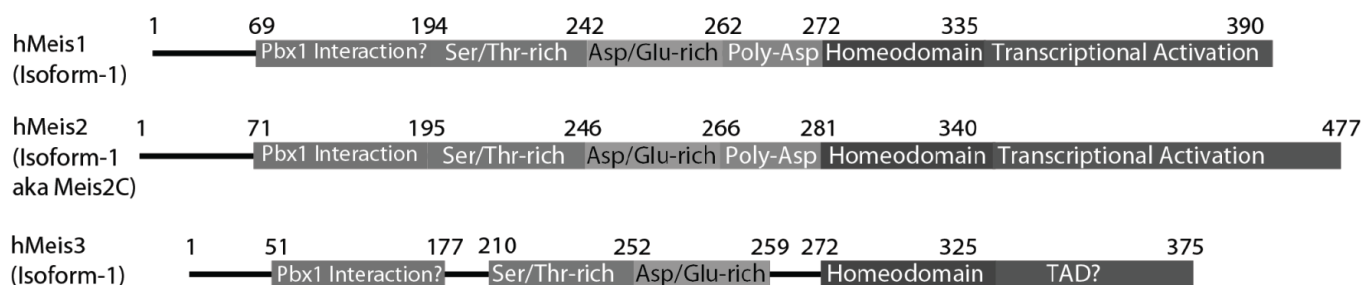


Fig. (1). Domain structure of MEIS proteins: Meis1, Meis2 and Meis3 are members of the TALE homeodomain transcription factors. MEIS proteins contain Pbx1 interaction domains, Ser/Thr and Asp/Glu rich domains. Meis1 and Meis2 (also known as Meis2C) contain Poly-Asp region followed by a highly conserved Homeobox region. MEIS proteins largely differ at their C terminus where transcriptional activation domain (TAD) is located.

HSCs by use of anti-oxidants recovers ROS related bone marrow failure and loss of HSC function [21].

Apart from the role of Meis1 in the regulation of HSC quiescence, it was shown as a transcriptional regulator of neonatal heart regeneration [22]. In mice, Meis1 expression is gradually upregulated from postnatal day 1 (P1) to postnatal day 7 (P7). In contrast to this upregulation, regenerative capacity of the heart is diminished [22]. We have demonstrated that Meis1 regulates cell cycle arrest in cardiomyocytes [22]. Moreover, conditional deletion of Meis1 in the adult heart results in reactivation of cardiomyocyte proliferation [22].

Studies showed that Meis1 is an integral part of the transcriptional network that regulates cardiomyocyte cell cycle, HSC maintenance and cellular metabolism. These findings suggest that Meis1 could be a potential therapeutic target for various conditions including altering the cancer metabolism, targeting cancer stem cells, HSC expansion, and cardiac regeneration.

2. EMERGING ROLE OF MEIS1 IN CARDIAC REGENERATION

Cardiac regeneration comprises one of the most important context of regenerative medicine (reviewed in [23]). Regenerative capacity of heart may vary between and within species [24, 25]. Some organisms with relatively simple anatomical structures such as zebrafish and newt have high capacity of regeneration [24, 25]. These organisms can regenerate myocardium and vasculature after 20% amputation of the ventricular apex. Cardiac regeneration occurs over a two-month period through dedifferentiation of cardiomyocytes marked with sarcomeric disassembly and successive cardiomyocyte [26-28]. Unlike these organisms, the adult mammalian heart cannot regenerate after injury [29-31]. Its response to injury is largely restricted to scar formation following the damage to cardiac tissue [32]. Recent studies, on the other hand, suggest that cardiac stem cells play a key role in the recovery of myocardium after an injury [33, 34]. It was shown that newly regenerated cardiomyocytes are mostly derived from pre-existing cardiomyocytes [26, 35]. Recent studies indicate that adult human heart has residual level of cardiomyocyte turnover

and this recovery mechanism may involve stem cells. In addition, rate of cardiomyocyte turnover was shown to decrease proportionally to the age, such that the rate is 1% per year at the age of 20. Moreover, the rate decreases to 0.4% around 75 years of age and 45% of cardiomyocytes can be replaced throughout human life [36-38]. Various approaches are associated with decreasing the rate of cardiomyocyte loss by inhibiting apoptosis, inducing re-entry to cell cycle of cardiomyocytes for enhancing cardiomyocyte proliferation and using cardiomyocytes, bone marrow and skeletal muscle cells for cell therapy [39-42].

Cell cycle is a vital process for all of the cell types and is regulated by a group of complex proteins. Major cell cycle regulators include cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs), CDK inhibitors (CDKIs), CDK activating kinases (CAK) and retinoblastoma (Rb) family proteins. Cyclin/CDK complex plays a major role in cell cycle as a positive regulator and this complex requires activation by CAK *via* phosphorylation [30, 39, 43]. Function of this complex is also controlled by CDKIs including Cip/Kip family (p21^{Cip1}, p27^{Kip1}, p57^{Kip2}) and Ink4 family (p15^{Ink4b}, p16^{Ink4a}, p18^{Ink4c}, p19^{Ink4d}). The members of the families bind to Cyclin-D/E/A-dependent kinases and CyclinD-CDK4/6 complex respectively and inhibit their activity.

Majority of the studies show that CDKI levels increase in adult cardiomyocytes and their activity is associated with repression of positive cell cycle regulators such as cyclins and CDKs [44-47]. Several studies demonstrated that Cdk2 and c-myc are the cell cycle regulators that play roles in increasing the expression levels of cyclins and CDKs, such as CDK4, and induction of cardiomyocyte growth respectively [48]. In addition, deletion of CDKI p27^{Kip1} or immunodepletion of p21^{Cip1} in cardiomyocytes leads to progression to S phase, thus induces an increase in cardiomyocyte proliferation and heart size [47, 49]. Recently, Meis1 deletion was shown to induce upregulation of CDKs and downregulation of CDKIs such as p16, p15 and p19^{ARF} and p21 and p57 [22]. Moreover, Meis1 deletion causes upregulation of positive cell cycle regulators such as MCM3, Chk1 and Ccnd2 and downregulation of negative cell cycle regulators such as APbb1, TP53 and Gpr132 [22]. Targeting Meis1 is a plausi-

ble mechanism to induce cardiomyocyte proliferation (Fig. 2).

Several studies addressed the involvement of Meis1 in the cardiomyopathies. 2p14 microdeletions associated with Meis1 and *actr2*, and studies suggest that they might be responsible from deafness and cardiomyopathy observed in patients with 2p14 microdeletions [50]. Intriguingly, Meis1 has been associated with restless legs syndrome in a genome-wide association analysis [51]. Thireau *et al.* (2017) showed that RLS patients with Meis1 variants could be determinant for autonomic imbalance and may be potentially at risk for development cardiovascular issues [52].

3. REGULATION OF HEMATOPOIETIC STEM CELL METABOLISM BY MEIS1

HSCs are recognized with their high differentiation and self-renewing capacity, as well as their responsibility of generating blood cells throughout life. Considering the hypoxic environment, HSCs generally reside in endosteal regions of BM that is the zone responsible for vascular organization with partition of capillaries that constitute the arteriols [53-55]. The endosteal niches attest to higher glycolytic flux and their partial pressure of oxygen is very low, which results in limited BM perfusion where the blood attains access into sinusoids through the capillaries [56]. Considering all these properties, especially low oxygen tension, the endosteal region is thought to represent the hypoxic niche of HSCs.

Stem cells generally reside in quiescent state because of their metabolic adaptation to hypoxic niche [57]. Even though importance of hypoxic conditions was known for

several stem cells, there was not enough knowledge about metabolic phenotype and its regulatory pathways or how metabolism relates to the cell cycle of stem cells [58, 59]. To this end, we have recently shown that cell cycle of the HSCs can be regulated transcriptionally and metabolically by involvement of Meis1 [21, 60]. We have shown that HSCs prefer anaerobic glycolysis instead of the mitochondrial respiration in order to generate energy with a lower rate of metabolism in a quiescent state (reviewed in and references there in [61]). Thus, their unique glycolytic metabolic phenotype allows tolerance to low oxygen tension and minimize oxidative damage. In addition, murine HSCs and human hematopoietic progenitor and stem cells (HPSCs) are characterized by low mitochondrial potential (MP) [62]. Two major transcriptional regulators, Hif-1 α and Meis1, are involved in low MP profile, hypoxic response, and glycolytic metabolism of HSCs [21, 63].

Hif-1 is an essential regulatory transcription factor for cellular and systemic responses in hypoxic conditions. Hif-1, when stabilized, causes a shift from mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation to glycolysis [64-66]. It is a heterodimeric protein that is composed of two subunits, Hif-1 α and Hif-1 β . Hif-1 α is known as an oxygen regulated subunit that can control the main Hif-1 function and forms a complex with constitutively expressed Hif-1 β [63]. Hif-1 α has a key role in maintaining quiescence of HSCs and stress resistance [56] as well as in stabilization of protein [64-66] or transcriptional activation [67-70]. Meis1 is a transcription factor that involves in the regulation of HSC metabolism through the optimal expression of Hif-1 α [60]. Meis1 and its cofactors Pbx1 and HoxA9 cooperatively take role in Hif-1 α activation

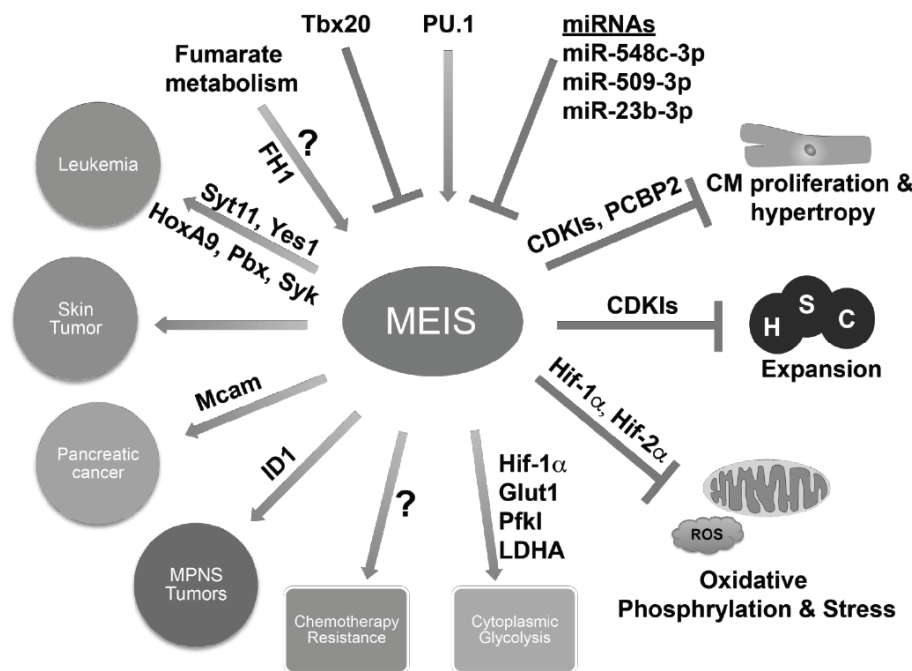


Fig. (2). Molecular pathways and cellular processes related to MEIS1: Meis1 has been shown to indirectly, and directly regulated at transcriptional and posttranscriptional levels by FH1, PU.1, Tbx20, and miRNAs. Meis1 knockout studies suggested that cardiomyocytes and HSCs could be expanded. Meis1 also involved in metabolic and oxidative stress through modulation of Hif1 α , Hif2 α , and Hif1 α target genes involved in cytoplasmic glycolysis. A number of studies, perhaps associated with preferential induction of cytoplasmic glycolysis by Meis1, showed the involvement and correlation with cancer progression, invasion, and migration. MPNS: Malignant peripheral nerve sheet, ROS: Reactive oxygen species. CDKIs: Cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors, HSC: Hematopoietic stem cells, CM: Cardiomyocyte.

through conserved Meis1, Pbx1, HoxA9 binding sites in Hif-1 α gene [62].

We have recently showed that Meis1 plays a major role in anaerobic glycolysis in the hypoxic niche of HSCs by positively regulating expression of not only Hif-1 α but also Hif-2 α [21, 63]. Meis1 deletion in HSCs down regulates expression of both Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α . The role of Hif-1 α and Meis1 in anaerobic metabolism was shown by conditional and tissue specific deletion of Hif-1 α and Meis1 in HSCs *in vivo*. Takubo and his colleagues (2010) showed that conditional deletion of Hif-1 α in BM initiates loss of HSC quiescence, increases HSC cycling and induces loss of long-term repopulation [71]. Our studies demonstrated that the shifting from cytoplasmic glycolysis to mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation can be triggered by deletion of Hif-1 α or Meis1 [21, 63]. As a result, a lower rate of glycolysis and increased mitochondrial activity occur, which leads to an increase in ROS and loss of HSC quiescence.

As discussed above, murine HSCs utilize glycolysis rather than mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation as their primary energy source but what human hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) use remained unknown till recently. We recently reported that human HSPCs own similar metabolic characteristics as shown by high levels of glycolysis and low levels of oxygen consumption [62]. In addition, repopulation ability of human low (mitochondrial potential) MP cells or HSPCs is markedly better than high MP cells [62]. Moreover, Hif-1 α expression is markedly high in human HSPCs. Similar to murine counterparts, Meis1 has a key role in the regulation of human HSPCs through regulation of Hif-1 α together with its cofactors Pbx1 and Hoxa9 [62].

The role of Meis1 is not only limited to the regulation of HSC metabolism, but it is also responsible for the regulation of oxidative stress through transcriptional regulation of Hif-2 α [21, 63]. Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α generally have discrete targets even though they are extremely homologous and may also target similar genes such as Glut1 and VEGF. A well-defined example of having different targets is that while the glycolytic enzymes such PGK, LDHA are exclusively stimulated by Hif-1 α , expression of antioxidant enzymes such as catalase, superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidase are regulated by Hif-2 α [72, 73]. Increased ROS, multiorgan dysfunction, cardiac hypertrophy, hepatic steatosis, defects in spermatogenesis and hematopoiesis are the main challenges that Hif-2 α knockout mice face [72, 74]. During mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, generation of ROS occurs. High levels of ROS cause senescence or apoptosis in HSCs. Thus, increase in ROS generation in Meis1 knockout HSCs associated with down-regulation of Hif-2 α in HSC (Fig. 2) [21]. Moreover, N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) treatment, a ROS scavenger, was efficiently been used to compensate oxidative damage in Meis1 knockout HSCs [21].

4. INVOLVEMENT OF MEIS1 IN CARCINOGENESIS, CANCER STEM CELL ESTABLISHMENT AND METABOLISM

Cell cycle regulation is one of the most significant areas of research with implications on regenerative biology and treatment of cancer [75-77]. Dysregulation of cell cycle

checkpoints results in genomic and chromosomal instability that contribute to carcinogenesis [78, 79]. Cancer cells metabolize glucose at an elevated level by cytoplasmic glycolysis compared to normal cells even oxygen is available, which is known as Warburg effect [80]. This allows survival of cancer cells in hypoxic microenvironments of tumor [81]. Even though there is a relationship between metabolic adaptation and up-regulation of Meis1 in various malignant cells, functions of Meis1 and its cofactors remain to be discovered in the process of carcinogenesis, cancer stem cell establishment and involvement in cancer metabolism.

4.1. Regulation of Meis1 Expression

A number study demonstrated that Meis1 expression is modulated by transcription factors, miRNAs and indirect metabolic changes. Xiang FL *et al.* (2016) demonstrated that Tbx20 overexpression leads to adult cardiomyocyte proliferation associated with downregulation of Meis1 and p21, two important regulators of postnatal cardiomyocyte cell cycle arrest [82, 83]. In addition, they have shown that Meis1 was directly bound and repressed by Tbx20 in cardiomyocytes. Pandey *et al.* (2016) shown that miRNAs miR-548c-3p, miR-509-3p, and miR-23b-3p have been found to downregulate expression in cardiomyocytes and trigger adult cardiomyocyte proliferation [84]. This was evident with induction of EdU+, Ph3+ cardiomyocytes and upregulation CDK2 expression post treatment with miRNAs targeting Meis1. It was shown that the loss of fumarate hydratase (Fh1), which is involved in TCA cycle and fumarate metabolism, in leukemia stem cells leads activation of Meis1/Hoxa9 oncogenic pathway [85]. These suggested that metabolic changes could trigger Meis1 pathway activation during leukemia development. Intriguingly, it was found that Dnmt3a mutations could lead to reactivation of oncogenic Meis1 pathway in acute myeloid leukemia even at the absence of fusion [86]. A recent study by Zhou *et al.* (2015) demonstrated that PU.1 involved in leukemogenesis and maintenance of proliferation through transactivation of Meis1 expression in non-MLL U937 cells [87].

Involvement of Meis1 in cancer was firstly shown by a study in myeloid leukemia cells of acute myeloid leukemia (AML) patients [14, 88-90]. Increased expression of Meis1 was detected in BM of acute lymphoid leukemia (ALL) and AML patients (Table 1) [18, 91]. Overexpression of Meis1 accelerates the onset of the disease in murine AML models [92, 93]. Meis1 associates with Hox proteins in leukemic transformation [14, 17]. Hoxa9 along with Meis1 remarkably accelerate leukemogenesis [14]. In addition, Meis1 is upregulated in neuroblastomas [11-13], nephroblastomas [15], ovarian carcinomas [16], which suggest potential involvement of Meis1 in cancer development. Furthermore, a recent study on epidermis has shown that Meis1 is involved in the development of papilloma and formation of skin tumors [10].

4.2. Meis1 Associated Carcinogenesis

Many studies suggested the involvement of Meis1 driven leukemia. Meis1 along with Hoxa9 and Pbx3 often found to be driving hematopoietic transformation in MLL-rearranged leukemia [94]. Meis1, especially associated with leukemia

Table 1. Differential expression of Meis1 gene and its cofactors in various cancer types.

Cancer Type	Observations	Reference
Leukemia (various)	Upregulation of Meis1 and HoxA9	[89-91, 113-115]
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia	Down regulation Meis1	[103]
MLL-rearranged leukemia	Upregulation of Meis1, Pbx3 and HoxA9	[94]
Neuroblastoma	Upregulation of Meis1	[116]
Nephroblastoma	Upregulation of Meis1	[117]
Ovarian carcinoma	Upregulation of Meis1 and Pbx	[118]
Skin tumor	Upregulation of Meis1	[10]
Clear cell renal cell carcinoma	Forced overexpression of Meis1	[119]
Esophageal Squamous Cell Carcinoma	Down regulation Meis1	[106]
Acute myeloid leukemia	Upregulation of Meis1	[95]
AML1-ETO-positive acute myeloid leukemia	Upregulation of Meis2	[97]
Pancreatic cancer	Activation of Mcam by Meis1	[98]
Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors	Upregulation of Meis1	[99]

stem cell maintenance while Pbx3 involved in leukemia cell survival. Similarly in acute myeloid leukemia, Meis1 found to be overexpressed in majority of patients (67 %) [95]. Importantly, a high level of Meis1 expression was found to be associated with resistance to conventional chemotherapies. Higher expression of Meis1 and Hoxa9 also found in various types of childhood acute leukemias [96]. Intriguingly, Meis2, which share identical homeobox domain with Meis1, has been shown to overexpressed and acting as oncogenic partner in AML1-ETO-positive acute myeloid leukemia through induction of Yes1 proto-oncogene expression [97].

Meis1 has been found to activate metastatic cell adhesion molecule (Mcam) expression so that it involves in induction of pancreatic cancer cell migration [98]. Patel *et al.* (2016) performed an shRNA screen and demonstrated that Meis1 involves in progression of malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors through activation of ID1, thereby increasing survival [99]. Study by Yokoyama *et al.* (2016) further demonstrated that Meis1 promotes leukemia development through transactivation of Syt11 expression and CXCL12/CXCR4 signaling [100]. Meis1 was also shown to involve in regulation of oxidative stress by transactivating hepatic leukemia factor in leukemia [101]. Study by Zhang *et al.* (2016) demonstrated that Meis1 transactivates PCBP2, which is known to negatively modulate cardiac hypertrophy, and inhibits angiotensin II-induced cardiomyocyte hypertrophy [102].

4.3. Differential Expression of Meis1

Rani L *et al.*, (2017) showed that expression of Meis1 in chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) were significantly downregulated compared to B-cells from control group [103]. In addition, the CpG islands in the promoter region of Meis1 found to be hypermethylated. Meis1 along with TCF7L1 and TCF4 genes found to be differentially ex-

pressed in gastric carcinogenesis [104, 105]. Analysis of Meis1 and MAML1 in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma samples showed that 9 out of 51 samples with downregulation of Meis1 where Meis1 is negatively correlated with MAML1 expression [106]. A recent study based on phospho-proteomic analysis by Mohr *et al.* (2017) showed Meis1 induced Syk protein expression and activity in acute myeloid leukemia [107]. Besides, Cui *et al.* (2014) demonstrated that Meis1 overexpression negatively modulate androgen receptor activity and expression in prostate cancer. In addition, Meis1 inhibited LNCaP cell growth suggesting Meis1 as repressor of androgen receptor [108]. Similarly, Meis1 overexpression inhibited non-small-cell lung cancer cell proliferation. On the contrary, downregulation of Meis1 was associated with increased DNA synthesis and proliferation.

Wong and colleagues (2007) showed that Meis1 is involved in cancer stem cell function as shown in leukemia stem cell (LSC) establishment, LSC frequency through regulating cancer stem cell self-renewal, induction of differentiation arrest, and establishment of *in vivo* LSC generation from hematopoietic progenitors [109]. Intriguingly, Meis1 expression is reduced in prostate cancer, which suggests the involvement of Meis1 in prostate cancer development [110]. The reason why Meis1 is differentially expressed in different types of tumors is not known yet. However, it suggests that Meis1 is involved with tumorigenesis of different types of tumors through different mechanisms. Moreover, Meis1 represses non-small-cell-lung adenocarcinoma cancer cell proliferation [111]. This situation is similar with results of our study on hematopoietic stem cells, in which expression of Meis1 promotes HSCs to stay in quiescence state [21] and overexpression of Meis1 also reduces neonatal and adult cardiomyocyte proliferation [22]. All these findings suggest

that Meis1 has distinct functions in the proliferation of a cell. This could be dependent on the presence of cofactors and depending on the type of metabolism cell needed. For instance, we believe glycolytic cancer cell metabolism might be triggered by increased expression of Meis1 in cancer, which in turn upregulates cytoplasmic glycolysis through Hif-1 α and down regulates oxidative damage through Hif-2 α .

Environmental and intrinsic stem cell factors influence stem cell fate, function and metabolism [112]. Meis1 and Hif-1 α are two regulators that play critical role in HSC metabolism and function [21, 56]. In addition, Meis1 controls oxidative stress response through Hif-2 α regulation. Increased expression of Meis1 and its cofactors are observed in HSCs and a wide variety of leukemia [1, 4, 14, 18, 89-91, 93] and in other cancer cell types [11-13, 15, 16]. Even though it is known that Meis1 plays a role in cancer and HSCs, further studies are required to understand its role in the mechanism of transformation and regulation of cancer cell metabolism and cancer stem cell function.

5. TARGETING MEIS1 IN HEMATOPOIETIC STEM CELL TECHNOLOGIES

HSCs underlie BM transplantation and demonstrate great importance in targeted gene therapies. Transplantation of HSCs are applied in the treatments of leukemia, lymphoma and in the autoimmune disorders [120]. An HLA-matched donor is required to overcome immunologic responses by the host. In addition, accessibility to enough quantity of HSCs from donor is necessary for successful engraftment [121]. Therefore, it is required to develop *ex vivo* methods to provide efficient number of HSCs. *Ex vivo* HSC expansion approaches mainly rely on growth factors and cytokines [120]. The balance between proliferation and quiescence of HSCs is strictly controlled to ensure homeostasis and maintenance of HSCs lifelong [122]. However, small molecules that target quiescence factors involved in HSC quiescence have not been widely used for expansion of HSCs. It is anticipated that hematopoietic small molecules will bring new approaches to the expansion of HSCs in cell-culture.

Ex vivo expansion of HSCs may harbor many difficulties, such as decreased self-renewal ability, senescence, apoptosis, and differentiation. Apart from this, knowledge about con-

stituents of HSC microenvironment and regulators of HSC function in *ex vivo* expansion procedure is restricted. Many studies concentrated on cytokines and growth factors when defining how to expand HSCs in *ex vivo* culture. Cytokines including thrombopoietin (TPO), FL3, IL3, IL6, IL11 and stem cell factor (SCF) have been proved to have function in HSC expansion [120]. Cytokines stimulate HSCs that are arrested in G₀ phase to enter the cell cycle by up-regulating factors responsible in self-renewal and by down-regulating inhibitors of cell cycle. Interestingly, p38 and some other factors that inhibit cell cycle are upregulated during *ex vivo* expansion procedure [123-125]. Use of p38 inhibitor was shown to increase *ex vivo* expansion of mouse HSCs [123-125].

Earlier studies showed the applicability of *ex vivo* HSC expansion using small molecules [21, 126, 127]. These studies demonstrated the expansion of human and mouse HSCs utilizing Garcinol (non-specific HAT inhibitor), StemRegenin (AhR antagonist) and Nicotinamide (SIRT1 inhibitor) [122, 127-130]. These studies focused on targeting of cell cycle inhibitors, HSC quiescence regulators and inhibitory factors of *ex vivo* HSC expansion by applying hematopoietic small molecules (HSMs), which induce hematopoiesis or hematopoietic stem cell expansion [128, 131-134]. One of the recently discovered targets for *ex vivo* expansion of HSCs is Meis1 (Fig. 2). We have previously reported that HSCs could be expanded *in vivo* by specific deletion of Meis1 or Hif-1 α genes (Table 2). This expansion of HSCs was evident in increase in HSC frequency, reduction of the number of HSCs in quiescent state (G₀ phase of cell cycle), and induction of percentage of HSCs in G₁ and S-G₂-M phase of cell cycle [21].

In our previous study, we demonstrated that Meis1 expression is detected in postnatal heart associated with postnatal cardiomyocyte cell cycle arrest. On the other hand, deletion of Meis1 in adult cardiomyocytes was related with induction of cell cycle re-entry [22]. This is similar with the findings from HSC cell cycle that lacks Meis1 in LT-HSCs results in loss of quiescence and increased HSC expansion [21]. These studies clearly showed that Meis1 is likely to have a critical role in cardiomyocyte proliferation as well as HSC pool expansion. Moreover, Meis1 involved in the regulation of cellular metabolism through transcriptional regula-

Table 2. *In vivo* expansion of HSC pool and increased cell cycle activity in Meis1 and Hif-1 α knockout HSCs: HSC specific deletion of Meis1 or Hif-1 α results in 4.5 and 1.75 fold increase in their HSC pools *in vivo*, respectively. This is accompanied by increased cell cycle activity as measured by increased percentage of cells in G₁ (18%) and S-G₂-M (3%) phase in Meis1^{-/-} HSCs, and increased percentage of cells in G₁ phase (20%) in Hif-1 α ^{-/-} HSCs. Meis1^{-/-} and Hif-1 α ^{-/-} long-term hematopoietic stem cell (LT-HSCs) phenotype indicate an altered quiescence in HSCs as well as a tendency to proliferate as we shown previously [21]. * p < 0.05 and ** p < 0.01 compared to WT.

Genotype	LT- HSC%	Percentage of Cells in Cell Cycle		
		G ₀ Phase	G ₁ Phase	S-G ₂ -M Phase
WT	0.0020	82.9±0.2	11.4±0.2	2.0±0.1
Meis1 ^{-/-}	0.0092 **	71.2±1.1 **	18.4±1.0 *	3.2±0.4 *
Hif-1 α ^{-/-}	0.0035 *	77.5±0.8 *	20.9±0.7 **	0.9±0.1

tion of Hif-1 α and Hif-2 α . Meis1 therapeutics could potentially be useful in various fields of research and treatment of disorders.

CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION

Not applicable.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

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ETHICAL APPROVAL

This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

INFORMED CONSENT

This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

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