

1 *Review*

# 2 **An exploration into the origins and pathogenesis of** 3 **Anaplastic Large Cell Lymphoma, Anaplastic** 4 **Lymphoma Kinase (ALK)-positive**

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11 **Abstract:** T cell Non-Hodgkin lymphoma is a heterogeneous disease ranging from malignancies  
12 arising from thymic T cells halted in development, through to mature, circulating peripheral T cells.  
13 The latter cases are diagnostically problematic with many entering the category of peripheral T cell  
14 lymphoma, not otherwise specified (PTCL, NOS). Anaplastic Large Cell Lymphoma is one of the  
15 exceptions to this whereby aberrant expression of Anaplastic Lymphoma Kinase and distinctive  
16 presence of cell surface CD30 places this entity in its own class. Besides expression of a well-studied  
17 oncogenic translocation, ALCL, ALK+ may also have a unique pathogenesis with a thymic origin  
18 like T lymphoblastic lymphoma but a peripheral presentation akin to PTCL. This review discusses  
19 evidence towards the potential origin of ALCL, ALK+ and mechanisms that may give rise to its  
20 unique phenotype.

21 **Keywords:** ALCL; ALK; thymus; lymphoma

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## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Systemic Anaplastic Large Cell Lymphoma (ALCL) is a relatively rare malignancy of T cells and is  
25 sub-divided dependent on expression of Anaplastic Lymphoma Kinase (ALK) creating ALCL,  
26 ALK+ and ALCL, ALK- sub-classes [1, 2]. The former is largely diagnosed in younger patients, has  
27 a good prognosis and is addicted to ALK, whilst the latter is seen in an older patient demographic  
28 with a relatively poor prognosis and a scarcity of driving oncogenic events. ALCL can also present  
29 as a cutaneous form or in the context of breast implants, both being ALK negative [3, 4]. Given the  
30 various presenting forms and differing prognoses, it makes sense that the ALCL sub-types should  
31 form distinct disease categories but also raises the issue of whether they are the consequence of a  
32 shared pathogenesis and origin. Indeed, mounting evidence points towards a thymic or more-  
33 primitive haemopoietic origin for ALCL, ALK+ with perhaps *in utero* derivation akin to some  
34 childhood leukaemia, in contrast to a putative peripheral and adulthood initiation of ALCL, ALK-  
35 [5-7]. However, it is likely that there are overlapping mechanisms of pathogenesis given their  
36 shared and unique histopathology. This review will discuss and present evidence eluding towards  
37 the aforementioned mechanisms, comparing and contrasting disease processes with reference to the  
38 relative merits of model systems and techniques that have been employed to divulge this  
39 information.

## 40 **2. T cell development and the origins of ALCL**

41 Solid cancers of T cells are considered as having either mature or immature origins dependent on a  
42 number of diagnostic factors ultimately presenting as either immature or mature T cell lymphoma

43 located in the thymus or at nodal/extranodal sites in the periphery. A thymic origin is reserved for  
44 T lymphoblastic lymphoma (T-LBL) whereby tumours can present in the thymus and/or periphery  
45 and may even have a leukaemic presentation but T cell receptor (TCR) rearrangements are in all  
46 cases supportive of a primitive origin [8-10]. In contrast, ALCL is considered a peripheral T cell  
47 lymphoma due to the expression of mature, activated T cell markers as well as largely peripheral  
48 presentation of tumours. However, in the absence of ALK expression, diagnosis can be difficult and  
49 may overlap with peripheral T cell lymphoma, not otherwise specified (PTCL, NOS) although  
50 expression of CD30 and key histological features enable better distinction as can the gene  
51 expression profile [11-13]. Regardless, broadly speaking, if a T cell malignancy shares features with  
52 an immature T cell, it is called a lymphoblastic lymphoma thought to arise from thymic T cells with  
53 all others presumed to derive from peripheral T cells. Whilst this is an easy way to define  
54 malignancies, one must consider that the final form in which a malignancy presents may mask its  
55 natural history.

#### 57 *2.1. T cell receptor gene rearrangement status presents a history and time stamp of thymocyte development*

58 Like B cells, T cells uniquely rearrange antigen receptors which provide a tattoo of their progression  
59 through the thymus; thymic progenitors rearrange the TCR genes in a temporal and location-  
60 specific manner on encountering neighbouring, thymic-resident cells presenting antigen in an  
61 MHC-restricted manner [10, 14]. Ultimately, successful rearrangement leads to the emergence of T  
62 cells from the thymus that recognize foreign antigens presented together with MHC but not self-  
63 proteins. Most commonly, T cells leave the thymus with rearranged  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  chains to become  $\alpha\beta$  T  
64 cells whilst some emerge as  $\gamma\delta$  T cells having not progressed to rearrangement of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  chain  
65 genes. As such, T cells only emerge into the periphery if these processes are successful except in  
66 cases where thymocyte survival is subverted by the presence of TCR-bypass events. As such,  
67 analysis of TCR rearrangement status in malignancies of these cells can provide clues as to their  
68 origin and the stage of T cell development they reached prior to transformation [10].

#### 70 *2.2. TCR rearrangements in ALCL are suggestive of stalled thymocyte development of apparently mature T cells indicative of a primitive T cell origin for this malignancy*

72 ALCL is considered a T cell lymphoma despite not often expressing any cell surface proteins  
73 indicative of this cellular phenotype but instead having molecular TCR rearrangements. An in-  
74 depth analysis of these molecular rearrangements in ALCL, ALK+ has highlighted some unusual *T*  
75 *cell receptor (TR)* genotypes not normally permissive of thymocyte survival and T cell development  
76 [6]. Whilst 56% of tumours displayed apparently normal *TRab* rearrangements, 82% of these did not  
77 have major clonal *TRb* rearrangements. This was also the case in a TRG category (11%) whereby  
78 most patients, despite having *TRg* and *TRa* rearrangements did not display clonal *TRb*  
79 rearrangements. Furthermore, 14% had no *TR* rearrangements at all consistent with a null cell  
80 immunophenotype. The remaining 19% could potentially originate in normal  $\gamma\delta$  T cells with  
81 apparently normal *TRg* and *TRd* rearrangements. Overall, there was a consistent lack of major  
82 clonal *TRb* rearrangements suggesting that thymic processes may have been perturbed in these  
83 patients whereby expression of a strong survival factor may allow T cells without survival-  
84 permissive TCR to develop and escape into the periphery. Indeed, in a murine model, NPM-ALK  
85 has the capacity to enable this whereby even in the absence of RAG, the enzyme responsible for this  
86 process, T cell development appears normal [6]. This is perhaps not surprising given the plethora of  
87 mitogenic/survival signaling pathways known to be activated by this oncogene including those  
88 normally active as a consequence of TCR engagement [15, 16].

90 Intriguingly and together with the detection of NPM-ALK in cord blood of 2% of the healthy  
91 population [17], these data raise the possibility that like T-LBL, ALCL is also a malignancy arising  
92 in thymocytes but in the latter case, thymocytes that can still apparently progress through T cell  
93 developmental stages in the absence of *TR* rearrangement [6]. Alternatively, the translocation may  
94 be induced at a more primitive stage as suggested by the findings in cord blood although this then

95 raises the question as to why NPM-ALK is restricted to T cell lymphoma as opposed to any other  
96 malignancy derived from haemopoietic stem cells. Yet, myeloid cell surface proteins such as CD13  
97 are present on ALCL cells again supportive of an origin in a pluripotent cell [18].  
98

### 99 **3. NPM-ALK induced signaling events may counteract thymic beta-selection**

100 NPM-ALK is a hyperactive tyrosine kinase by virtue of its ability to dimerise and subsequently  
101 autophosphorylate on tyrosine residues [19]. These then form docking sites for SH2 domain  
102 containing proteins activating a plethora of signaling pathways largely including those expected of  
103 a hyperactive intracellular kinase [20]. For example, signaling through PI 3-Kinase-AKT, RAS MAP  
104 Kinase, JAK/STAT and PLCg/Ca<sup>2+</sup> pathways is well-established, all pathways with the potential to  
105 drive proliferation and promote cell survival, two key hallmarks of malignancies [20-27]. The first  
106 key checkpoint in thymic development is  $\beta$ -selection, a process whereby the absence of a signal  
107 emanating from an engaged pre-TCR leads to cell death. Cell survival is dependent on activation of  
108 Notch 1, and NPM-ALK is able to activate signaling via this pathway in murine thymocytes at the  
109 DN2/3 stages of thymic development [6]. Indeed, NPM-ALK expression in thymocytes also leads to  
110 the upregulation of CD98 and CD71, nutrient transporters required for massive cellular  
111 proliferation associated with post- $\beta$ -selection thymocytes [6]. It follows that Notch 1 is expressed in  
112 the surface of established ALCL tumour cells, possibly a remnant of their time in the thymus [28]  
113 although Notch 1 is also known to play a role in mature, peripheral T cells [29] but the relative  
114 importance of Notch 1 to thymic development is underscored by the detection of Notch 1 mutations  
115 in thymic-derived T-ALL [30].  
116

### 117 **4. Accounting for the activated cellular phenotype of ALCL**

118 ALCL has an unusual presentation with an immunophenotype that does not place it neatly into any  
119 specific T cell subset. In general, most tumours are negative for CD8 but produce cytotoxic proteins  
120 such as perforin and Granzyme B, and whilst being largely CD4 positive, they lack expression of a  
121 TCR/CD3 [4, 31]. Regardless, expression of CD30 is consistent but does not confer a lineage identity  
122 to the cells beyond their apparent activation status [4, 32]. However, as mentioned above, if NPM-  
123 ALK can substitute for pre-TCR signaling in thymocytes then it can also potentially mimic signals  
124 activated on engagement of a full TCR [33]. Beyond these lineage-defining cell surface proteins,  
125 molecular TCR rearrangements are supportive of a T cell status [6].  
126

#### 127 **4.1. Is NPM-ALK, the tumour microenvironment and/or the cell of origin responsible for the** 128 **immunophenotype of cells in ALCL, ALK<sup>+</sup>?**

129 It is possible to garner more information on a cell's identity by its secretome, particularly in the T  
130 cell lineage whereby distinct cytokines can both induce a skew towards a specific effector cell type  
131 and likewise, when secreted can divulge the identity of the producing cell, as can the distinct profile  
132 of transcription factors active within it. Hence, even though primitive forms of gene expression  
133 profiling have been unable to align ALCL with either cytotoxic or helper T cells, some enriched  
134 gene sets have highlighted specific associations [32]. For example, a Th17 profile could be extracted  
135 whereby expression of a set of genes including IL17A, IL17F, IL26, IL22 and ROR $\gamma$  was noted [12].  
136 Interestingly, IL22 and IL17 are also present in the circulation of ALCL, ALK<sup>+</sup> patients [34].  
137 Naturally, immune cells are heavily influenced by their microenvironment and cytokines within it  
138 that may have stimulatory effects on them. A Th17 skew is induced by IL6 in the presence of TGF $\beta$   
139 and it follows that IL6 is produced in an autocrine manner by ALCL in an NPM-ALK dependent-  
140 manner via STAT3 and miR135b [35]. This oncogene-driven pathway was also shown to be  
141 responsible for production of IL17A and IL17F suggesting that the Th17 phenotype could be  
142 attributable to NPM-ALK expression and activity rather than microenvironmental factors or even  
143 cell of origin [35]. Furthermore, perforin and Granzyme B are produced in an NPM-ALK-dependent  
144 manner again providing evidence towards a cell phenotype modelled by the driving oncogene [35,  
145 36]. Of note, in the study by Matsuyama et al, the Th17-associated transcription factor ROR $\gamma$  was  
146 not dependent on miR-135b activity although it remains to be determined whether it is expressed in

147 an NPM-ALK-dependent manner [35]. Altogether, these data suggest that the immunophenotype  
148 of ALCL, ALK+ is not incompatible with a thymic origin whereby NPM-ALK is able to drive  
149 thymic development in the absence of complete and survival-compatible TCR rearrangements to  
150 allow cells to 'mature', enter the periphery and appear to be of a Th17/cytotoxic T cell origin.

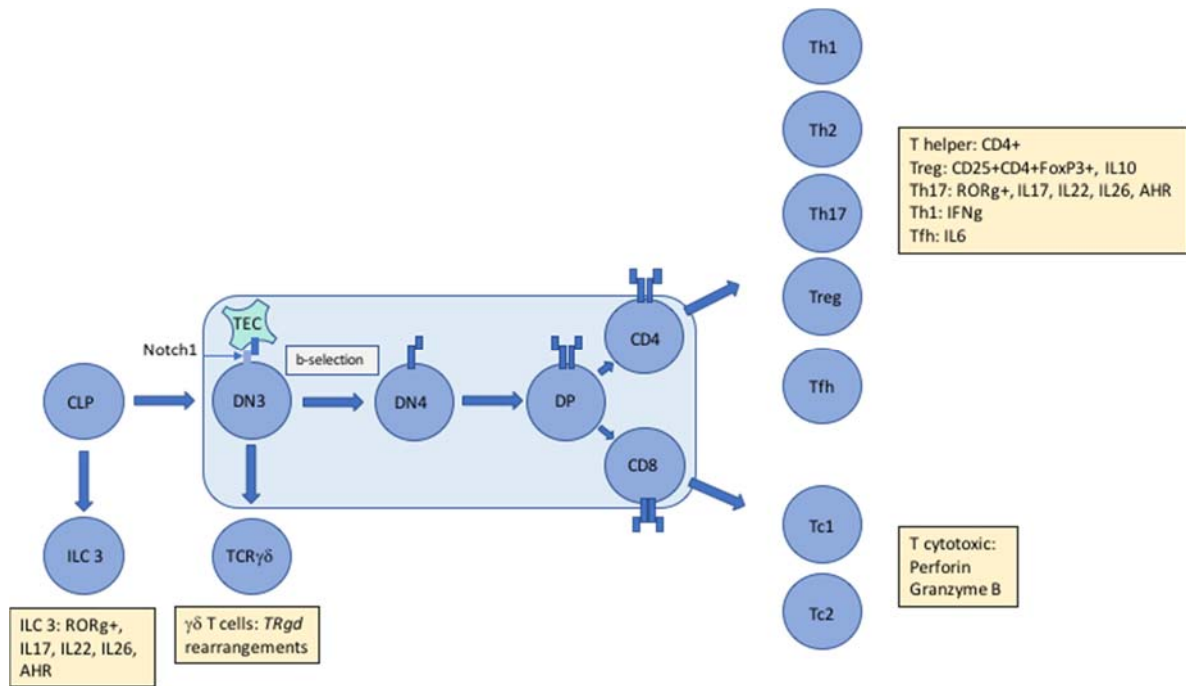
151  
152 4.2. What shapes the phenotype of ALCL, ALK-?

153 Whether a similar scenario applies to ALCL, ALK- remains to be determined but as oncogenic  
154 drivers are identified for this heterogeneous category, a similar picture emerges. For example,  
155 miR155 is up-regulated in ALCL, ALK-, a miR that is known to induce a Th17 cell skew and despite  
156 some cases displaying JAK1/STAT3 mutations, cells remain cytokine-dependent [37-39]. Whilst it  
157 can be difficult to tease apart mechanisms specific to ALCL, ALK- due to a relative paucity of model  
158 systems, the more recent description of breast-implant associated ALCL (BIA-ALCL) has provided  
159 more clues [3, 40, 41]. Cell lines derived from BIA-ALCL and cutaneous ALCL also produce IL17A,  
160 IL17F and IL6 but IL10, IL13, IL21, IFN $\gamma$ , GM-CSF, IL7 and TNF $\alpha$  are also produced, cytokines that  
161 are attributable to other helper T cell subsets [39]. However, the presence of activating JAK/STAT  
162 mutations in BIA-ALCL may also be driving this particular secretome [42, 43]. Indeed, ALCL, ALK-  
163 are also associated with activating mutations/translocations in JAK/STAT family proteins [44] and  
164 4% of cutaneous ALCL with TYK2 fusion proteins [45]. Could it be the case that each individual  
165 case of ALCL has a unique profile that is shaped not only by the intrinsic oncogenic events but also  
166 its particular microenvironmental circumstance? Th17 cells are known to react to large extracellular  
167 pathogens such as bacteria whereas Th1 cells, for example, respond to intracellular pathogens.  
168 Bacterial biofilms have been reported in the context of BIA-ALCL which fits with this hypothesis  
169 and would also give rise to an activated cell surface phenotype as exemplified by CD30 expression  
170 [46]. In this regard, ALCL have been reported associated with tick and other insect bites which  
171 could lead to infection [47, 48].

172  
173 4.3. Does infection play a role ALCL lymphomagenesis and cellular immunophenotype?

174 The fact that the tumour cells appear to be activated by virtue of CD30 expression yet not having a  
175 gene expression profile compatible with an activated CD30+ T cell hints towards an oncogene-  
176 driven rather than environmental event [32]. Indeed, CD30 expression has been reported as an  
177 NPM-ALK driven JunB-induced event in ALCL [49]. Whilst this suggests that activation is not a  
178 consequence of antigenic stimulation, as mentioned previously, ALCL, ALK+ have been reported in  
179 the context of tick and other insect bites although in some cases, ALCL, ALK+ do not have the  
180 ability to express a functional TCR and proximal signaling proteins are silenced in an epigenetic  
181 manner [6, 31, 47, 48, 50]. However, some lymphoid cells exist that respond to inflammatory  
182 environments in a receptor-independent manner. These cells are the relatively recently described  
183 innate lymphoid cells (ILC) of which there are three distinct groups with origins in common  
184 lymphoid progenitors. Of interest, group 3 ILC share many facets with Th17 cells: expression of  
185 ROR $\gamma$  and AHR as well as production of IL17 and IL22 [51]. It may therefore be the case that  
186 incipient ALCL without functional TCR respond to infections akin to ILC 3 cells whereas those  
187 with, act as Th17 or as another T cell subset. In the latter case, the TCR is subsequently down-  
188 regulated as results from a murine model show that a combination of signaling through a TCR and  
189 NPM-ALK are not compatible with lymphomagenesis and the TCR is rarely expressed in primary  
190 ALCL [6, 31].

191



192

193 **Figure 1.** The unique immunophenotype of ALCL makes it difficult to assign an exact cellular origin  
 194 with gene expression studies unable to divulge a distinct cell of origin. The presence of aberrant TCR  
 195 rearrangements suggest subversion of thymic development mediated by NPM-ALK in a Notch1-  
 196 dependent manner proposing an early origin for this largely paediatric cancer. However, tumour cells  
 197 express and secrete proteins (denoted by yellow boxes) that inhibit assignment to an exact T cell  
 198 subset. Whether these proteins are induced by driving oncogenic events and/or the tumour  
 199 microenvironment remains to be determined but in the case of ALCL, ALK+ at least, it is clear that  
 200 NPM-ALK is capable of partially mimicking the immunophenotype of multiple T cell subsets. TEC =  
 201 Thymic Epithelial Cell, ILC = Innate Lymphoid Cell, AHR = Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor, Th = helper  
 202 T cell, Tc = cytotoxic T cell, Treg = regulatory T cell, Tfh = follicular helper T cell, TR = T cell receptor  
 203 gene

## 204 5. Conclusions

205 ALCL and other T cell lymphoma remain malignancies of unknown origins and causes with few  
 206 aetiological associations. This is largely due to a lack of model systems and a relatively scarcity of  
 207 patient material from which to divulge information. However, marrying together clinical  
 208 observations with laboratory studies has allowed some progress to be made.  
 209

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213 **References**

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