



Super-enhancers in cancer

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ABSTRACT

Cancer is fueled by the aberrant activity of oncogenic and tumor suppressive pathways. Transcriptional dysregulation of these pathways play a major role both in the genesis and development of cancer. Dysregulation of transcriptional programs can be mediated by genetic and epigenetic alterations targeting both protein coding genes and non-coding regulatory elements like enhancers and super-enhancers. Super-enhancers, characterized as large clusters of enhancers in close proximity, have been identified as essential oncogenic drivers required for the maintenance of cancer cell identity. As a result, cancer cells are often addicted to the super-enhancer driven transcriptional programs. Furthermore, pharmacological inhibitors targeting key components of super-enhancer assembly and activation have shown great promise in reducing tumor growth and proliferation in several pre-clinical tumor models. This article reviews the current understanding of super-enhancer assembly and activation, the different mechanisms by which cancer cells acquire oncogenic super-enhancers and, finally, the potential of targeting super-enhancers as future therapeutics.

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1. Introduction

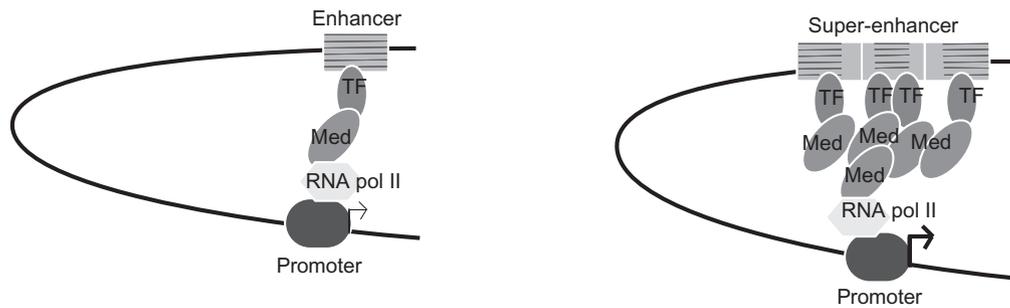
Our view of the regulatory genome has changed drastically in recent years. It is now clear that transcriptional activation defining cellular state is controlled by a combination of cell type specific proximal and distal regulatory elements, known as enhancers. Enhancers are functionally defined as noncoding elements that can activate transcription

of a linearly distant gene, independent of its genomic orientation, through long-range *cis* chromatin interactions (Bulger & Groudine, 2011). In addition to typical enhancers, the genome is also comprised of large stretches of enhancers in close linear proximity, often spanning several kilobases in size, called super-enhancers (Whyte et al., 2013). Enhancers and super-enhancers alike, are occupied by the same components generally associated with enhancer activity, including transcription factors (TFs), co-activators such as the Mediator complex, chromatin regulators and the RNA polymerase II (pol II) complex. However, super-enhancers are unique in that they harbor these factors on an average 10-fold higher density than typical enhancers (Hnisz et al., 2013; Loven et al., 2013; Whyte et al., 2013). As a result, super-enhancers can drive higher levels of transcription of their target genes than typical enhancers (Fig. 1a). Super-enhancer influence on gene expression can be either additive of their individual enhancers,

Abbreviations: TF, Transcription factor; pol II, Polymerase II; H3K4me1, Histone H3 lysine 4 monomethylation; H3K27ac, Histone H3 lysine 27 acetylation; CTCF, CCCTC-binding factor; TAD, Topological associating domain; MED1, Mediator 1; YY1, Ying Yang 1; BRD, Bromodomain and extra terminal domain; CDK, Cyclin dependent kinase; IDH, Isocitrate dehydrogenase; TAL1, T cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia 1; T-ALL, T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia; AML, Acute myeloid leukemia; SNP, Single nucleotide polymorphism; CTD, Carboxy terminal domain.

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a) Typical enhancer vs super-enhancer



b) Phase separation model of super-enhancer activation

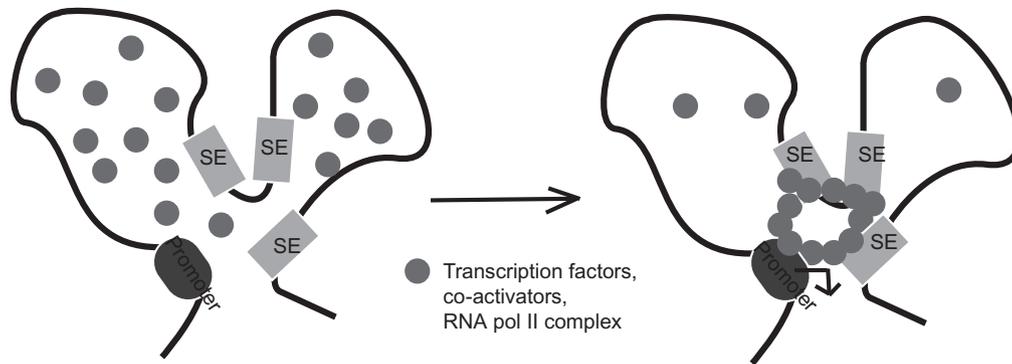


Fig. 1. Super-enhancer organization and activation. a) Schematic depiction of a typical enhancer and a super-enhancer. Enhancers and super-enhancers are bound by the same factors including transcription factors, co-activators, RNA pol II complex. However, super-enhancers are longer in length and are occupied by higher density of these transcriptional regulators. Enhancer elements within the stitched super-enhancer are highlighted by striped lines. b) A phase separation model of transcriptional activation by super-enhancers. High density interactions of transcriptional regulators can lead to the formation of phase separated multi molecular complex at the super-enhancer locus leading to frequent transcriptional bursts.

or can have a temporal and functional hierarchy within the constitutive enhancers (Hay et al., 2016; Hnisz et al., 2015; Shin et al., 2016).

Super-enhancers were initially identified in mouse embryonic stem cells (ESC) based on the high-density occupancy of ESC specific master transcription factors OCT4, SOX2 and NANOG at regulatory enhancers nearby genes that define ESC identity (Whyte et al., 2013). Subsequently, super-enhancers were identified in a broad array of cell types based on the enrichment of cell type specific master transcription factors nearby genes that dictate the biology of these cell types (Hnisz et al., 2013; Whyte et al., 2013). Following these initial observations, a role for super-enhancers in cancer development was suggested when several genetic variations within super-enhancers were identified in various cancer subtypes (D. Hnisz et al., 2013; Sengupta & George, 2017; Sur & Taipale, 2016). In addition, super-enhancers were found to regulate expression of key oncogenic drivers in many tumor samples (Bradner, Hnisz, & Young, 2017; Loven et al., 2013), suggesting that cancer cells are often addicted to the super-enhancer driven transcriptional programs (Bradner et al., 2017). This unique dependency of cancer cells combined with the extreme sensitivity of super-enhancers to perturbation of components associated with most enhancers has opened up new opportunities for targeting super-enhancers in cancer. In this review, we briefly summarize the current model of super-enhancer assembly and activation, discuss the different mechanisms by which cancer cells acquire or activate super-enhancers to upregulate oncogenic transcriptional programs, and finally explore the promising avenue of targeting super-enhancers using pharmacological inhibitors for future cancer therapeutics.

2. Super-enhancers: organization and activation

A central feature of enhancers and super-enhancers is that they contain clustered binding sites for multiple TFs. This enables the coordinated binding of multiple TFs, including master TFs and transcriptional effectors of signaling pathways, ensuring integration of intrinsic and extrinsic environmental cues at these elements (Yan et al., 2013). Occupancy of TFs at enhancers and super-enhancers are associated with regions of nucleosomal depletion and increased DNA accessibility as measured by hypersensitivity to DNA nucleases, such as the DNase I (Gross & Garrard, 1988). Nucleosomes flanking these TF binding sites have a distinct chromatin signatures including, but not limited to, histone H3 lysine 4 monomethylation (H3K4me1), histone H3 lysine 27 acetylation (H3K27ac) (Consortium et al., 2012; Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015). In fact, preferential enrichment of the H3K4me1 mark over H3K4me3 is often used to differentiate enhancers from active promoters (Heintzman et al., 2007), whereas H3K27ac distinguishes active enhancers from inactive/poised enhancers containing H3K4me1 (Creyghton et al., 2010). These two modifications in combination with nuclease hypersensitivity data or coactivator occupancy of Mediator 1 provide a robust readout of active enhancers, and have often been utilized for enhancer and super-enhancer annotation in numerous studies.

Binding of pioneering TF is the primary event that primes enhancer/super-enhancer elements for activation by the subsequent recruitment of co-activator proteins such as histone modifiers, ATP-dependent

chromatin remodelers and Mediator complex (Calo & Wysocka, 2013). The importance of the binding of pioneering TF in super-enhancer activation is highlighted by the fact that insertional mutations leading to generation of *de novo* TF binding site can trigger cooperative binding of multiple TFs and co-activators resulting in the activation of the super-enhancer element (Brown et al., 2014; Mansour et al., 2014). Activated super-enhancer facilitate long range physical interaction that bring the super-enhancer and promoter in close 3D proximity via looping out the intervening DNA sequence. The resultant chromatin loops enable interactions with the basal RNA pol II transcription machinery at target promoters to activate transcription (Levine, Cattoglio, & Tjian, 2014; Spitz & Furlong, 2012). The importance of this spatial interaction for transcriptional activation is highlighted by the fact that forced looping between β -globin promoter and enhancers 40 kb apart triggers transcription (Deng et al., 2012), providing a causal link between spatial interaction and transcriptional activation (Chen et al., 2018). However, the mechanism and the factors that mediate the physical interaction between enhancers and target promoter is not yet clearly understood. It was previously shown that cohesin binding is enriched at promoters and enhancers that forms chromatin loops (Kagey et al., 2010). Further immunoprecipitation assays confirmed interaction of cohesin with Mediator complex suggesting cohesin and mediator interaction could bridge enhancer-promoter contacts. It remains unclear if there are additional structural regulators that can mediate enhancer-promoter interactions. A recent report implicated TF, Yin Yang 1 (YY1), in mediating physical enhancer-promoter interactions both involving typical enhancers and super-enhancers (Weintraub et al., 2017). YY1 acts as a dimer and is a ubiquitously expressed protein that binds enhancers and promoters across cell types. Perturbation of YY1 binding disrupts enhancer-promoter interactions and associated gene expression.

In addition to the classical model of the orderly recruitment of TFs and transcriptional co-activators in super-enhancer assembly and activation, a phase separation model particularly for super-enhancer assembly and activation has recently been proposed (Hnisz, Shrinivas, Young, Chakraborty, & Sharp, 2017). High density conglomerates of proteins and nucleic acids and cooperative interactions amongst them can lead to phase separation and formation of membraneless organelles (Bergeron-Sandoval, Safaei, & Michnick, 2016). This is now a well-recognized mechanism for the assembly of ribonucleoprotein granules like processing bodies (p-bodies) and stress granules (Brangwynne et al., 2009; Molliex et al., 2015). Since super-enhancers are hubs of high density interactions of transcriptional regulators and nucleic acids that exhibit rapid formation following a single nucleation event (Brown et al., 2014; Mansour et al., 2014), and dissolution following the deletion of the nucleation site (Hnisz et al., 2015; Shin et al., 2016) or upon pharmacological depletion of high-density factors from the super-enhancer region (Chapuy et al., 2013; Chipumuro et al., 2014; Kwiatkowski et al., 2014; Loven et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2015), a potential role for phase separation in super-enhancer activation is being explored (Fig. 1b). In support of this hypothesis, a recent report identified transcriptional co-activators like BRD4 and MED1 which are bound at high density at super-enhancers can form nuclear condensates at the sites of super-enhancer mediated transcription (Sabari et al., 2018). The authors further demonstrated that the phase separation properties of BRD4 and MED1 are mediated by their large intrinsically disordered regions (IDRs) that share properties with IDRs of several proteins that were previously reported to facilitate condensate formation (Banani, Lee, Hyman, & Rosen, 2017; Shin & Brangwynne, 2017). A similar role of initiating formation of phase separated condensates was also identified for the activation domains of master TFs OCT4 and GCN4 along with Mediator complex bound to super-enhancers (Boija et al., 2018). These reports have opened up a new model of transcriptional control by regulatory elements like super-enhancers that also explains different aspects of super-enhancer biology including formation, activation and extreme sensitivity to perturbations of its high-density coactivators (Hnisz et al., 2017).

3. Mechanisms of super-enhancer driven oncogenesis

Acquisition of super-enhancers driving expression of oncogenes can be broadly mediated by i) genetic variations that target the core super-enhancer element itself or ii) genetic variations that modify the 3D genome by disrupting higher order chromatin organization leading to oncogene activation by inadvertent super-enhancer promoter looping.

3.1. Genetic variations that affect the core super-enhancer element

Large scale genome-wide studies have uncovered that somatic variations commonly associated with disease frequently occur in the non-coding genome, and are often enriched within regulatory regions including enhancers and super-enhancers (Maurano et al., 2012; Schaub, Boyle, Kundaje, Batzoglou, & Snyder, 2012). Genetic alterations targeting super-enhancers, such as genomic deletions, duplications, inversions, insertions, translocations or single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), can modify the copy number of super-enhancers, alter its genomic space, disrupt TF binding sites in putative super-enhancers that can either activate or repress super-enhancer function, all potential mechanisms resulting in the deregulation of nearby target genes (Krijger & de Laat, 2016; Spielmann, Lupianez, & Mundlos, 2018). In this section, several examples of how genetic variations targeting the core super-enhancer element can lead to oncogenic activation will be discussed.

Copy number variations such as super-enhancer amplification is a common mechanism of oncogenic activation (Fig. 2a). Somatic copy number analysis combined with tissue specific epigenetic profiling in 12 tumor types led to the identification of focal amplification of super-enhancers nearby putative oncogenes including *KLF5*, *USP12*, *PARD6B* and *MYC* (Zhang et al., 2016). In another study, systematic examination of chromosomal rearrangements in a large cohort of breast cancers identified 33 hotspots of tandem duplications (>100 kb) most of which were enriched in breast-tissue specific super-enhancer elements (Glodzik et al., 2017). These super-enhancer elements regulated the expression of individual oncogenes, including *MYC* and *ESR1*. In addition to copy number changes, genomic rearrangements such as inversions or translocations, as well as deletions, can place super-enhancers in new genomic context. Super-enhancers, as promiscuous regulatory elements, can now activate proto-oncogenes in their new genomic context. This phenomenon also known as 'enhancer hijacking' has been widely reported in cancer (Krijger & de Laat, 2016). One such translocation of a super-enhancer element was identified to mediate overexpression of the oncogenic TF, MYB, in adenoid cystic carcinoma (Drier et al., 2016). Epigenetic analysis confirmed the generation of a novel chimeric super-enhancer element nearby the *MYB* oncogene. Further chromatin conformation capture analysis confirmed chromatin interactions between the *MYB* promoter and the aberrantly translocated super-enhancer. Moreover, the translocated super-enhancer element was identified to harbor MYB binding sites that were actively bound by MYB itself leading to a positive feedback loop that further enhanced MYB expression in the samples harboring this translocation. Another example of enhancer hijacking was observed in the medulloblastoma subtypes group 3 and 4, particularly amongst the samples with high expression of growth factor independent 1 family proto-oncogenes, *GFI1* and *GFI1B* (Northcott et al., 2014). Most of these cases had recurrent structural variations that resulted in the relocation of *GFI1* and *GFI1B* in close proximity to active super-enhancers, initiating oncogenic activity. In acute myeloid leukemia (AML), a 9 kb inversion event redirected a super-enhancer element from the *GATA2* tumor suppressor gene to the *EV1* oncogene that led to simultaneous oncogenic activation and downregulation of a tumor suppressor (Groschel et al., 2014; Yamazaki et al., 2014).

Oncogenic super-enhancers can also be established as a result of acquired somatic mutations within the super-enhancer element that leads to the creation of *de novo* binding sites for master TFs. Binding of a master TF can activate the super-enhancer element by recruiting additional

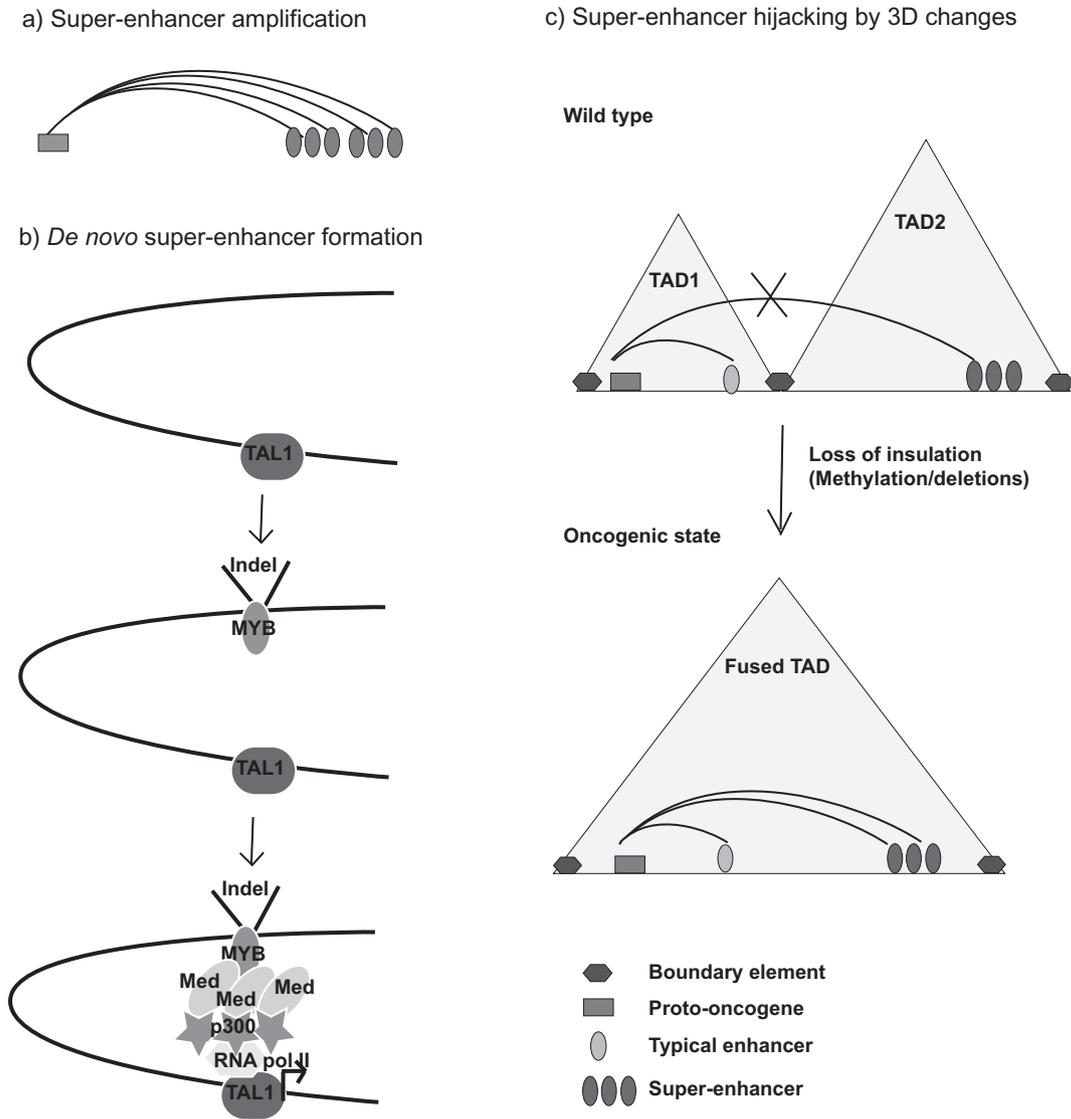


Fig. 2. Different mechanisms of Oncogenic super-enhancer formation. a) Focal amplification of super-enhancers can upregulate expression of driver oncogenes. b) Insertional mutations that introduce *de novo* transcription factor binding sites can enable nucleation and super-enhancer activation regulating expression a neighboring proto-oncogene. c) Structural variation or epigenetic deregulation can alter 3D chromatin architecture leading to aberrant super-enhancer promoter interactions resulting in increased expression of neighboring oncogenes.

co-activators resulting in transcriptional upregulation of a neighboring proto-oncogene. Mansour and colleagues observed that a subset of T-ALL samples expressed high levels of DNA binding TF, TAL1 (Mansour et al., 2014). However, this TAL1 overexpression was not associated with large chromosomal rearrangements near the *TAL1* gene, commonly identified in T-ALL samples with high TAL1 expression. While assessing the regulatory landscape near the *TAL1* gene through observation of the H3K27ac chromatin state commonly associated with active promoter and enhancer activity, the authors observed an active super-enhancer region proximal to the *TAL1* promoter not observed in T-ALL samples that lacked TAL1 overexpression. Targeted sequencing of this region led to the identification of small insertions of 2–18 bp that introduced *de novo* binding sites for the TF MYB. Further experiments confirmed MYB binding to these *de novo* binding sites that was essential for the downstream recruitment of several other TFs to this super-enhancer element to maintain an active enhancer state and drive the expression of the oncogene TAL1 (Fig. 2b). In addition to insertional mutations, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) can sometimes directly alter the super-enhancer activity in cancer. One such SNP was identified in the *LMO1* gene locus and was associated with neuroblastoma susceptibility and oncogenic addiction to LMO1 (Oldridge et al., 2015). The G > T SNP was located within an intronic super-enhancer element of the *LMO1*

gene. The tumorigenic “G” allele resides within a conserved GATA3 binding site and this allele was associated with an active super-enhancer state whereas the protective “T” allele disrupts GATA3 binding and is associated with significantly reduced super-enhancer activity and LMO1 expression. Alternatively, SNPs occurring in super-enhancers can also promote tumorigenesis by disrupting super-enhancer activity associated with tumor suppressor genes. In chronic lymphocytic leukemia, a SNP disrupts the binding of TF RELA to the super-enhancer linked with the pro-apoptotic BH3-only protein, BMF (Kandaswamy et al., 2016). This SNP was associated with decreased BMF expression, increased anti-apoptotic function of BCL2, thereby promoting tumorigenesis.

3.2. Hijacking of super-enhancers by 3D chromatin changes

Recent results from high resolution chromosome conformation capture methods suggest that the mammalian genomes are organized into a series of topologically associating domains (TADs) of average size of ~1 Mb (Dixon et al., 2012; Lieberman-Aiden et al., 2009; Rao et al., 2014; Sexton et al., 2012). Chromatin regions within a TAD on average interact with themselves more frequently than with regions outside the TAD. TAD structures are largely invariant across diverse cell types and are evolutionarily conserved across related species (Dixon,

Gorkin, & Ren, 2016), and are partitioned by regions displaying abrupt changes in the directionality of the interactions, which are defined as the boundary regions. It is now clear that one of the main functions of TADs is to constrain long range enhancer-promoter interactions within the TAD thereby insulating promoters from distal enhancers and super-enhancers located in the neighboring TADs (Dekker & Mirny, 2016; Dixon et al., 2016; Sexton & Cavalli, 2015). Naturally, either genetic or epigenetic disruption of TAD boundaries can result in aberrant enhancer/super-enhancers to promoter interactions forming new regulatory circuits (Furlong & Levine, 2018; Spielmann et al., 2018).

TAD structures are established through the binding of insulator CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF) in association with the cohesin complex at TAD boundaries (Nora et al., 2017; Rao et al., 2014; Zuin et al., 2014). Interestingly, most of these TAD boundaries are formed between pairs of CTCF binding sites in convergent (forward-reverse) orientation and this polarity of CTCF binding is critical for the directionality of loop formation (S. S. P. Rao et al., 2014). Inversion of CTCF binding sites can change the directionality of TAD interactions leading to altered regulatory space (de Wit et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2015). Collectively these reports supported the idea that these structural domains are the basic functional units of regulatory interactions and disruptions of these domains leading to inadvertent oncogene activation was soon reported in various cancer subtypes. In a primary report, Hnisz and colleagues identified recurrent microdeletions that eliminate the boundary sites of insulated neighborhoods containing prominent oncogenes involved in T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia pathogenesis (Hnisz et al., 2016). The authors were able to recapitulate some of these deletions in human embryonic kidney fibroblasts by CRISPR-mediated genome editing that led to new long range regulatory interactions and upregulation of proto-oncogenes *TAL1* and *LMO2* (Fig. 2c). A broader influence of TAD reorganization in oncogenic activation was shown by a pan-cancer analysis using a computational framework termed cis expression structural expression mapping (CESAM) to detect cancer related gene overexpression resulting from reorganization of TAD structures (Weischenfeldt et al., 2017). Amongst the top candidates identified, the authors characterized a TAD boundary deletion event that led to the spreading of active chromatin to the adjacent fused TAD and generation of a super-enhancer element, that can now increase the expression of *IRS4* gene in sarcoma and squamous cancer. In another example, a TAD was reorganized as a result of a tandem duplication event and was directly implicated in regulating *IGF2* gene expression in colorectal cancer. Specifically, tandem duplication of *IGF2* gene and a super-enhancer element in the adjoining TAD along with the intervening boundary region led to the formation of a neoTAD and upregulation of *IGF2* expression (Weischenfeldt et al., 2017). Using CESAM and an independent framework that integrated optical mapping to high throughput chromosome conformation capture and whole genomic sequencing datasets, two recent reports identified many neoTADs and potential enhancer hijacking events in medulloblastoma and other cancer subtypes (Dixon et al., 2018; Northcott et al., 2017). These alterations targeted known driver genes like *PRDM6*, *ERBB2*, *ETV1*, *ETV4*, *MYC* and *TERT*. Further support for a prominent role of TAD boundary disruption in tumorigenesis is exemplified by recurrent mutations of CTCF and cohesin binding sites throughout multiple cancer subtypes (D. Hnisz et al., 2016; Katainen et al., 2015). Additionally, CTCF and members of the cohesin complex are frequently mutated in cancer (Kon et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2014; Taylor, Platt, Hurst, Thygesen, & Knowles, 2014). Moreover, CTCF and cohesin haploinsufficient mice are predisposed to cancer (Kemp et al., 2014; Mazumdar et al., 2015; Mullenders et al., 2015; Viny et al., 2015). However, it is still unclear how these mutations alter global or local regulatory interactions that may contribute to oncogenic transformation.

In addition to somatic mutations targeting TAD boundaries, epigenetic deregulation as a causal mechanism for TAD disruption has been demonstrated in gliomas harboring gain-of-function mutations in *IDH* genes (Flavahan et al., 2016). Mutant *IDH* cells accumulate the

oncometabolite 2-hydroxyglutarate which, in turn, represses the TET family proteins (TET1–3) (Xu et al., 2011). TETs catalyze the conversion of 5-methylcytosine (5mC) to 5-hydroxymethylcytosines (5hmC), 5-formylcytosine (5fC) and 5-carboxylcytosine (5caC) in the genome, modifications considered to be key intermediates in the process of active DNA demethylation (Cimmino, Abdel-Wahab, Levine, & Aifantis, 2011). This leads to increased CpG methylation in *IDH*-mutant gliomas (Turcan et al., 2012). Since previous reports have correlated changes in binding of CTCF with differential DNA methylation (Bell & Felsenfeld, 2000; Hark et al., 2000; H. Wang et al., 2012), Flavahan and colleagues explored potential TAD disruption events and concomitant oncogene activation associated with increased methylation in *IDH* gliomas (Flavahan et al., 2016). In support of this hypothesis, partial disruption of a TAD structure was shown as a result of increased methylation in the CTCF site and reduced CTCF binding that led to the activation of oncogenic driver, *PDGFRA*, by enhancers located outside the normal TAD of *PDGFRA* (Fig. 2c).

Super-enhancers are frequently enriched near the recently described stripe anchor domains that are formed when cohesin loading takes place near a CTCF anchor motif (Vian et al., 2018). Based on the current widely accepted loop extrusion model of loop formation, as DNA is extruded through cohesin rings, one extrusion subunit near the CTCF anchor site might get arrested while the other unit continues to slide along the chromatin (Fudenberg et al., 2016; Ganji et al., 2018; Sanborn et al., 2015). This leads to a continuous transient interaction of the arrested loop anchor with entire TAD domains at high frequency. These stripe anchors often tether super-enhancers to cognate promoters and are associated with strong TAD boundaries and elevated CTCF binding near these anchor points (Vian et al., 2018). In support of a potential role for stripe anchors in upregulating super-enhancer-mediated target gene expression in cancers, strong TAD boundaries associated with increased CTCF binding were found to be frequently co-duplicated with nearby super-enhancers in cancer patients (Gong et al., 2018).

4. The *MYC* “enhancer-ome” - a paradigm for tumor development

The *MYC* oncogene is at the crossroads of many important biological pathways and processes associated with neoplastic cell growth and proliferation. Expression of *MYC* is elevated or deregulated in up to 70% of human cancers and has been acknowledged contributing to the genesis of many human cancers (Dang, 2012). Given this, *MYC* expression is tightly controlled at the transcriptional, post-transcriptional, translational and the post translational level (Dang, 2012). The *MYC* proto-oncogene itself is under tight transcriptional control by nearby regulatory enhancers and super-enhancers, which not surprisingly are frequently deregulated in cancers. In fact, the first molecular evidence indicating that changes in regulatory DNA sequences can cause cancer was discovered in Burkitt lymphoma cells that had recurrent translocations of the *MYC* oncogene close to the enhancer region of the immunoglobulin heavy chain (*IGH*) locus (ar-Rushdi et al., 1983; Dalla-Favera et al., 1982; Erikson, ar-Rushdi, Drwinga, Nowell, & Croce, 1983; Taub et al., 1982). Following this initial finding, the *MYC* regulatory landscape has been under intense investigation in several cancers.

MYC is located within a 2 Mb “gene desert” on chromosome 8q24 surrounded by several cell type specific enhancer/super-enhancers that regulate *MYC* expression in different cancer subtypes (Lancho & Herranz, 2018) (Fig. 3). For example, in T-ALL, the *MYC* locus is controlled by distant 3D interactions with a super-enhancer element approximately 1.4Mb apart from the *MYC* promoter (Herranz et al., 2014; Yashiro-Ohtani et al., 2014). This super-enhancer element named N-Me/NDME was focally amplified in several T-ALL samples and was bound by TF, NOTCH1, a key oncogenic driver in T-ALL. Further 3C experiments confirmed interactions of the *MYC* promoter with N-

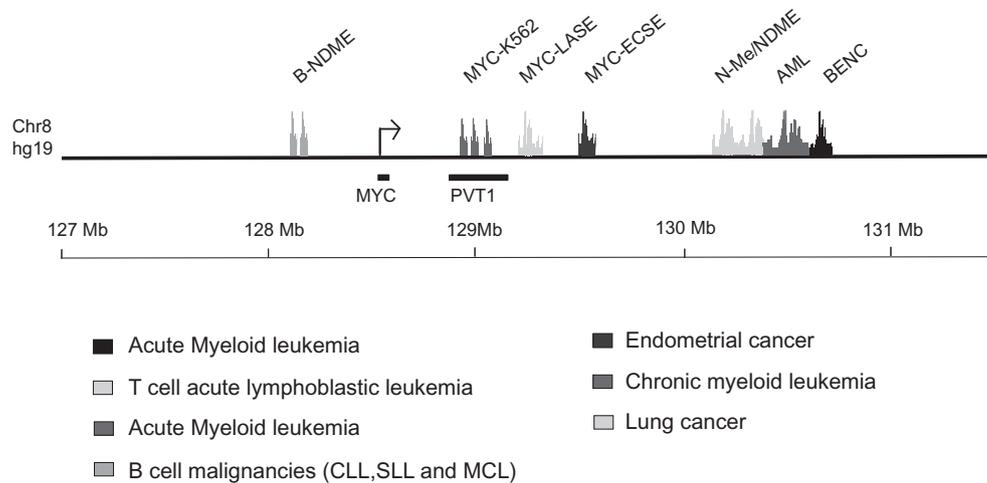


Fig. 3. Graphical representation of super-enhancers regulating MYC expression in different cancer subtypes.

Me. Additionally, in support of an oncogenic role for N-Me, T-cell specific deletion of N-Me prevented the transformation of T cells in a NOTCH1-driven *in vivo* tumor model (Herranz et al., 2014; Yashiro-Ohtani et al., 2014). A role for NOTCH1-activated super-enhancers regulating MYC expression was also identified in B cell malignancies including mantle cell lymphoma (MCL) and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) (Fabbri et al., 2017; Ryan et al., 2017). Unlike the T-ALL specific N-Me/NDME, the NOTCH1-bound enhancers in CLL and MCL were located 5' to MYC and were referred as B-cell NOTCH dependent MYC enhancer (B-NDME). Distal to the N-Me/NDME, another super-enhancer cluster named BDME/BENC was shown to regulate MYC expression during normal hematopoiesis and AML pathogenesis (Bahr et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2013). To investigate regulatory regions implicated in MYC expression in CML, a functional screen was performed using CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) using a tiling array (Fulco et al., 2016). CRISPRi couples the programmable properties of catalytically dead Cas9 and a fused KRAB repressor domain to alter the chromatin state around target locus. A tiling CRISPRi screen targeting a 1.2Mb window surrounding the MYC oncogene in CML cell line K562 led to the identification of a cluster of putative enhancer elements whose transcriptional silencing led to reduced MYC expression and proliferation.

Furthermore, somatic copy number analysis across 29 tumor subtypes led to the identification of focal amplifications of distinct super-enhancer elements downstream of MYC specific to lung adenocarcinoma (MYC-LASE) and endometrial carcinoma (MYC-ECSE) (Zhang et al., 2016). In further support of a cell type specific role for these super-enhancer elements, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated repression or deletion of LASE regions reduced expression of MYC in lung adenocarcinoma cells but not in control human embryonic kidney cells. Additionally, chromatin accessibility landscape determined across 23 cancer types identified several potential regulatory clusters both 5' and 3' of the MYC oncogene (Corces et al., 2018). Also, several genome-wide association studies, identified SNPs associated with increased risk to many cancers including colon, breast and prostate in tissue specific enhancer clusters regulating MYC (Ahmadiyeh et al., 2010; Jia et al., 2009; Pomerantz et al., 2009; Sotelo et al., 2010; Tuupanen et al., 2009; Wasserman, Aneas, & Nobrega, 2010). These SNPs can alter binding of TFs, such as TCF and FOXA1, with consequences on the enhancer-promoter looping and expression of MYC in tissue and allele specific way. *In vivo* mouse models harboring deletions of MYC super-enhancer elements are resistant to the development of intestinal and mammary tumors, supporting the notion of targeting MYC super-enhancer activity as a promising therapeutic strategy in MYC dependent cancers (Dave et al., 2017; Sur et al., 2012). For a more comprehensive regulation of MYC in cancers by enhancers and super-enhancers, see (Lancho & Herranz, 2018).

5. Pharmacological targeting of super-enhancer addiction in cancers

Genetic alterations targeting super-enhancers lead to dysregulated transcriptional programs in cancers. Cancer cells can become highly addicted to these transcriptional programs providing super-enhancers as novel targets for therapeutic interventions. In addition, a strong rationale for targeting super-enhancers in cancer also comes from the notion that driver oncogenic mutations hack into resident pre-configured super-enhancer regenerative programs of the target tissue to initiate and sustain oncogenic transcriptional programs (Evan et al., 2017). Support to this view stems from the observation that oncogenes Ras and MYC co-operate to induce tumors across several tissues and that these tumors usually display tissue specific phenotypes of spontaneous cancers in these tissues. These observations further strengthen the rationale that interfering with super-enhancer networks should disrupt tumorigenic programs across different tissue and cancer subtypes. Amongst the current class of small molecule inhibitors targeting super-enhancers, BET inhibitors (BETi), a competitive inhibitor of bromodomain and extraterminal (BET) family proteins (BRD2, BRD3, BRD4 and BRDT) and inhibitors of cyclin dependent kinases, particularly CDK7 and CDK9, have been potent in selectively killing cancer cells by inhibiting super-enhancer driven oncogenic transcription. The rationale behind using these small molecule inhibitors and their mechanisms of action are discussed below.

Transcription is a multistep process that involves recruitment of the RNA polymerase to appropriate promoters leading to transcription initiation followed by promoter proximal pausing and final transition into productive elongation. Sites of active super-enhancer associated transcription are enriched for H3K27ac mark regions. This active chromatin mark is recognized by (BET) family member BRD4. BRD4 interacts with the Mediator co-activator complex leading to the stepwise recruitment of the CDK7-containing TFIIH initiation complex and the CDK9-containing p-TEFb elongation complex. CDK7 and CDK9 control the dynamics of transcriptional initiation, pause release and elongation by catalyzing regulatory phosphorylation of the carboxy terminal domain (CTD) of RNA pol II (Allen & Taatjes, 2015; Jonkers & Lis, 2015). CDK7 dependent phosphorylation of RNA pol II CTD at Ser-5 and Ser-7 initiates transcription and plays an active role in promoter proximal pausing by enabling the loading of negative elongation factor (NELF) and DRB-sensitivity-inducing factor (DSIF). Release from proximal pausing and transition to productive elongation is mediated by CDK9-mediated Ser-2 phosphorylation of RNA pol II CTD that recruit elongation factor, pTEFb (Eick & Geyer, 2013; Zhou, Li, & Price, 2012). Thus, BRD4, Mediator complex and transcriptional CDKs, considered core regulators of transcription, have emerged as attractive targets for impeding oncogenic transcription in the last decade.

5.1. Inhibitors of BET family proteins

BETi competitively inhibits binding of BET bromodomains to acetyllysines displacing BET-containing protein complexes from chromatin (Filippakopoulos et al., 2010; Nicodeme et al., 2010). Two initial reports demonstrated BETi (I-BET151 and JQ1) induce strong suppression of tumor progression in pre-clinical models of acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and multiple myeloma (Delmore et al., 2011; Zuber et al., 2011). This strong therapeutic effect was mediated by the suppression of MYC levels and its downstream transcriptional program. Following these initial reports, BETi were reported to selectively downregulate MYC expression in various tumor models including neuroblastoma, medulloblastoma, MLL-rearranged acute leukemia, Burkitt lymphoma and acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) (Bandopadhyay et al., 2014; Dawson et al., 2011; King et al., 2013; Knoechel et al., 2014; Mertz et al., 2011; Puissant et al., 2013). Since BRD4 is reported to be the dominant transcriptional regulator amongst the BET family proteins, most studies linked the therapeutic effects of BETi to BRD4 inhibition (Zuber et al., 2011). Insights into the disease relevant functions of BRD4 were obtained from genome-wide profiling of BRD4 occupancy by chromatin immunoprecipitation. Examination of BRD4 occupancy at genes whose transcription is particularly sensitive to BETi led to the finding that BETi-sensitive genes are often associated with nearby super-enhancers that exhibit high levels of BRD4 occupancy and are associated with acute loss of BRD4 binding following BETi treatment (Chapuy et al., 2013; Loven et al., 2013). Recent evidence using AML cell lines indicate that only a minority of super-enhancers are sensitive to BETi treatment and these super-enhancers in addition to eviction of BRD4 are associated with dramatic loss of Mediator binding (Bhagwat et al., 2016). In addition, TFs, YAP and TAZ, were shown to be essential for the recruitment of BRD4 to super-enhancers, as well as a preferential loss of BRD4 and sensitivity to JQ1 treatment amongst YAP/TAZ occupied enhancers and super-enhancers compared to enhancers and super-enhancers without YAP/TAZ binding sites (Zanconato et al., 2018). These reports suggest further understanding of the mechanism underlying this differential sensitivity of super-enhancers to BETi can help to streamline potential use of BETi in the clinic.

5.2. Inhibitors of transcriptional CDKs

Inhibitors of cyclin-dependent kinases, CDK7 and CDK9, have recently emerged as strong candidates for targeting oncogenic super-enhancers. THZ1, a covalent inhibitor of CDK7, completely abrogated CDK7-dependent phosphorylation of RNA pol II CTD at Ser-5 and Ser-7 that promotes transcriptional initiation (Kwiatkowski et al., 2014). This was also accompanied by the loss of CDK9-mediated Ser-2 phosphorylation, a marker of transcriptional elongation. CDK7 inhibition by THZ1 is associated with global transcriptional downregulation at high doses, but cancer cell lines were sensitive to lower doses of THZ1. Using T-ALL as a model system, it was initially shown that sensitivity to THZ1 is conferred by the targeting of super-enhancer driving RUNX1. Further reports demonstrated that THZ1 can selectively target super-enhancer driven transcriptional programs, including MYC-dependent transcriptional amplification and expression of other cancer-specific oncogenic TFs and signaling molecules. THZ1 treatment led to sustained tumor growth inhibition in *in vitro* cell lines and *in vivo* pre-clinical xenograft models of small cell lung cancer, MYCN amplified neuroblastoma and triple negative breast cancer (Chipumuro et al., 2014; Christensen et al., 2014; Y. Wang et al., 2015). Additionally, small molecule co-inhibitors of CKI α and CDK7/9 showed strong efficacy in AML preclinical models (Minzel et al., 2018). These inhibitors couple p53 activation associated with CKI α inhibition with the suppression of super-enhancer driven oncogenes by CDK7/9 inhibition. Although the mechanism accounting for MYC specificity to CDK7 and BRD4 inhibition requires further investigation, inhibiting super-

enhancer-associated transcriptional regulators provides a novel platform for single-agent targeting of multiple oncogenes.

5.3. Resistance to BET and CDK inhibitors

On the downside, like all other cancer monotherapies, resistance to single agent treatment of BETi and THZ1 has been reported in pre-clinical models. Resistance to BET inhibitors is primarily mediated by global alterations in gene expression that compensates for the effects of BET inhibition (Fong et al., 2015; Rathert et al., 2015). In MLL-fusion AML, resistance to BETi is dependent on the activation of WNT signaling pathway that restores MYC expression and overrides the BETi mediated downregulation of MYC expression (Fong et al., 2015; Rathert et al., 2015). In the case of Triple Negative breast cancers, resistance to BETi was achieved through increased interaction with mediator complex protein MED1 and resultant bromodomain independent recruitment to chromatin (Shu et al., 2016). This MED1-BRD4 interaction was mediated by hyperphosphorylation of BRD4 attributed to the decreased activity of phosphatase PP2A. Resistance to transcriptional CDK inhibitor THZ1 is primarily reported to be mediated by drug pump activation by upregulation of multidrug transporters ABCB1 and ABCG2 in neuroblastoma (Gao et al., 2018). Overall these reports highlight the importance of using inhibitors targeting super-enhancer biology in combination with other drugs to have synergistic effects and to reduce development of resistance mechanisms. In support of this, successful combination of BETi with gamma secretase inhibitors of NOTCH1 activation and PI3K inhibitors have been reported in mouse models of T-ALL and breast cancer respectively (Knoechel et al., 2014; Stratikopoulos et al., 2015).

5.4. Super-enhancer profiling for future precision therapies

In addition to targeting the core transcriptional regulators, several new studies have mapped active chromatin landscapes in multiple cancers with the goal of identifying essential super-enhancer genes and the underlying core transcriptional networks for therapeutic targeting (Cohen et al., 2017; Ke et al., 2017; Mack et al., 2017; McKeown et al., 2017; Ooi et al., 2016). As a proof of principle, targeting these core transcriptional networks, either by small-molecule inhibitors or knockdown by RNA interference, diminished tumor growth in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models (Mack et al., 2017; McKeown et al., 2017). Super-enhancer profiling of AML patients led to the identification of six novel subgroups, one of which was defined by strong super-enhancer activity at the retinoic acid receptor alpha gene locus (RAR α). This subgroup was particularly sensitive to RAR α agonist that induced differentiation and loss of proliferation (McKeown et al., 2017). In support of a broad role for enhancer reprogramming in tumorigenesis and tumor evolution, a recent study reported metastatic progression in pancreatic cancer to be associated with widespread and recurrent changes in enhancer landscape. These changes were mediated by transcription factor FOXA1 and results in the activation of a transcriptional program specific of a more primitive, developmentally plastic early endodermal stem cell state (Roe et al., 2017). Thus, super-enhancer profiling to identify core regulatory circuits can implicate future targeted therapy across the different stages of cancer (Boeva et al., 2017; van Groningen et al., 2017).

6. Concluding remarks

Research in the last decade has established the basic concepts of super-enhancer biology and their role in tumorigenesis. So far, it is clear that oncogenic super-enhancers are present in multiple cancer subtypes and are essential for the maintenance of cancer cell identity. Super-enhancers drive the expression of key oncogenes and confer tumor dependencies which, ultimately, has provided a framework for target discovery in cancers that lack clear known genetic drivers. It is also clear that structural and epigenetic changes which can alter 3D organization can result in super-enhancer hijacking and inadvertent

activation of oncogenes. This further suggests that super-enhancers have to be studied in the context of 3D chromatin organization to get a complete picture of their role in tumorigenesis. From the therapeutic standpoint, since the essential components of the super-enhancers are common in different cancer subtypes, targeting individual components of super-enhancers like BRD4, CDK7 or CDK9 has shown great promise in multiple pre-clinical tumor models. With this in mind, future research should aim to further elucidate how individual components of super-enhancers regulate super-enhancer function. These insights, along with a greater understanding of phase separation in super-enhancer assembly and activation, may shed light on how oncogenic signaling impacts super-enhancer assembly and function leading to the identification of novel candidates for targeting super-enhancer in cancers.

Conflict of interest statement

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

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