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Modelling hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling in murine models of indolent and aggressive B cell lymphoma

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List of Abbreviations

| ABC-type DLBCL | Activated B cells type diffuse large B-cell lymphoma | | |
|-------------------------|--|--|--|
| AKT | Akt kinase / protein kinase B | | |
| ALL | Acute lymphocytic leukemia | | |
| AML | Acute myeloid leukemia | | |
| AMD3100 | Drug AMD3100 / Plerixafor | | |
| BCR | B-cell receptor | | |
| BL | Burkitt's lymphoma | | |
| B-NHL | B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma | | |
| BSA | Bovine serum albumine | | |
| ВТК | Bruton's tyrosine kinase | | |
| C57BL/6J | C57 black 6 J inbred mouse strain | | |
| Ca ²⁺ | Calcium ion Ca ²⁺ | | |
| cAMP | Cyclic adenosine monophosphate | | |
| CD19 | Cluster of differentation 19 / B-lymphocyte antigen CD19 | | |
| cDNA | Complementary desoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) | | |
| CLL | Chronic lymphatic leukemia | | |
| CML | Chronic myeloid leukemia | | |
| CXCR4 | C-X-C motif chomokine receptor 4 | | |
| CXCR4 | Gene coding for C-X-C motif chomokine receptor 4 | | |
| CXCR4 ^{C1013G} | C-X-C motif chomokine receptor 4 with truncating mutation | | |
| | C1013G | | |
| CXCR4 ^{C1013G} | Gene coding for C-X-C motif chomokine receptor 4 with | | |
| | truncating mutation C1013G | | |
| CXCL12 | C-X-C motif chemokine 12 | | |
| DAPI | 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole | | |
| DEG | Differentially expressed gene | | |
| DLBCL | Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma | | |
| DNA | Desoxyribonucleic acid | | |
| EDTA | Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid | | |
| EGTA | Ethylene glycol-bis(β-aminoethyl ether)- <i>N</i> , <i>N</i> , <i>N</i> ', <i>N</i> 'tetraacetic | | |
| | acid) | | |
| ERK1 | Extracellular-regulated kinase 1 | | |
| ERK2 | Extracellular-regulated kinase 2 | | |
| Еµ-Мус | Eµ-Myc mouse model | | |
| Eµ-TCL1 | Eµ-TCL1 mouse model | | |

| FACS | Fluorescence-activated cell sorter | | |
|-------------------|--|--|--|
| FBS | Fetal bovine serum | | |
| FDR | False discovery rate | | |
| FELASA | Federation of European Laboratory Animal Science | | |
| | Associations | | |
| FOXM1 | Forkhead box protein M1 | | |
| GCB-type DLBCL | Germinal center B cells type diffuse large B-cell lymphoma | | |
| GPCR | G protein-coupled receptor family | | |
| GRK | G protein-coupled receptor kinase | | |
| GSEA | Gene set enrichment analysis | | |
| H&E | Hematoxylin and eosin stain | | |
| Hepes | 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid | | |
| HL | Hodgkin lymphoma / Morbus hodgkin | | |
| HPV | Human papilloma virus | | |
| Ki-67 | Antigen Ki-67 | | |
| МАРК | Mitogen-activated protein kinase | | |
| MBL | Monoclonal B-cell lymphocytosis | | |
| MDSCs | Myeloid derived suppressor cells | | |
| mTOR | mTOR kinase / mammalian target of rapamycin | | |
| MYC | MYC gene | | |
| MYD88 | Myeloid differentiation primary response 88 | | |
| NaCl | Sodium chloride | | |
| NaF | Sodium fluoride | | |
| NaVO ₄ | Sodium orthovanadate | | |
| NF-кВ | Nuclear factor 'kappa-light-chain-ehancer' of activated B | | |
| | cells | | |
| NHL | Non-Hodgkin lymphoma | | |
| NOTCH | NOTCH protein | | |
| pAKT | Phosphorylated Akt | | |
| pERK | Phosphorylated extracellular-regulated kinase | | |
| PI | Propidium iodide | | |
| РІЗК | Phosphoinositide 3-kinase | | |
| РКА | Protein kinase A | | |
| PLC | Phospholipase C | | |
| PLK-1 | Polo-like kinase 1 | | |
| PMSF | Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride | | |

| PTLD | Posttransplant lymphoproliferative disorders | | |
|---------------|--|--|--|
| Raf | RAF proto-oncogene serine/threonine-protein kinase | | |
| Ras | Ras (rat sarcoma virus) GTPase | | |
| RIN | RNA integrity number | | |
| RNA | Ribonucleic acid | | |
| RPMI-medium | Roswell park memorial institute medium | | |
| RT | Richter's transformation | | |
| SD | Standard deviation | | |
| SDS PAGE | Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresi | | |
| TCL1 | TCL1 gene | | |
| Tween | Polysorbate 20 | | |
| USA | United States of America | | |
| WHIM Syndrome | Warts, hypergammaglobulinemia, immunodeficiancy and | | |
| | myelokathexis syndrome | | |
| WHO | World Health Organization | | |
| WM | Waldenström's macroglobulinemia | | |
| WT | Wild type | | |

1 Introduction

1.1 Lymphoid neoplasms / lymphomas

1.1.1 Definition of lymphoid neoplasms / lymphomas

Lymphoid neoplasms are defined as malignant diseases which arise from cells derived from the lymphoid line within the hematopoietic system. These diseases develop from a multitude of different cells of origin, on each step of the physiological development of lymphoid cells. Thus, they represent a biologically and clinically very heterogenous group of entities. The World Health Organization's (WHO) classification is the internationally most recognized form of classification for tumors. The latest updated version of classification for lymphoid neoplasms was published in 2016. Herein the WHO classifies lymphoid neoplasms based on cell of origin into mature B cell neoplasms, mature T cell and NK cell neoplasms, Hodgkin lymphoma, posttransplant lymphoproliferative disorders (PTLD) and histiocytic and dendritic cell neoplasms. For further subclassification morphology, immunophenotype, pathology, genetics, and clinical presentation are considered for diagnosis (Swerdlow et al. 2016).

In a clinical context, the terms lymphoid neoplasm and lymphoma are used close to synonymously and lymphomas are separated into Hodgkin lymphoma (HL) and non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) for further categorization. However, acute lymphocytic leukemia (ALL) and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) which biologically likewise represent lymphoid malignancies, yet manifest with leukemic infiltration of tumor cells to the peripheral blood, are also frequently referred to separately as leukemias, together with acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and chronic myeloid leukemia (CML). Nonetheless, especially CLL biologically represents a leukemic form of an indolent NHL. Thus, in many recent publications, including the WHO classification, CLL is specified as a low-malignant form of NHL, rather than being grouped with leukemias of myeloid origin (Swerdlow et al. 2016). Due to the large extent of the topic and multitude of different entities, the rest of this thesis will focus on NHL and specifically those NHL of B cell origin (B-NHL), only.

1.1.2 Clinical features and epidemiological significance of B-NHL

Of all lymphoid neoplasms B-NHL account for approximately 80-85% of all NHL cases, while only 15-20% are of T cell or NK cell origin (Armitage et al. 2017). In general, NHL represent approximately 3% of all cancer patients. In the USA, NHL are the overall 7th most common cancer and exhibit the 6th highest mortality rate of all cancers (Thandra et al. 2021).

Prognosis of patients and intent of treatment show great differences between the diverse entities of B-NHL. Thus, regarding their clinical presentation and biology, B-NHL can clinically be separated into aggressive and indolent NHL. In general, aggressive B-NHL typically present with rapid cell growth and high rates of cell turnover as compared to low-malignant / indolent lymphomas. However, due to their relatively high cell turnover and rate of progression, aggressive B-NHL generally exhibit a higher susceptibility to treatment with chemotherapeutics compared to indolent B-NHL. For this reason, in most cases upon diagnosis for most aggressive lymphomas the treatment intention is curative, even in more advanced stages of disease, whereas in the case of advanced stage indolent lymphomas, treatment intention is frequently palliative. However, in some entities, due to critical advances over the last decades and the slow growth of indolent lymphomas, treatment has become somewhat comparable to the management of chronic disease in some patients.

In the following, diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL) and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), each as an example of aggressive B-NHL and indolent B-NHL, respectively, will be elaborated in more detail for better understanding of the subsequent results and discussion section.

1.1.3 Diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL)

Resembling approximately 30-40% of all B-NHL, diffuse large B cell lymphoma is the most common form of aggressive B-NHL, and overall form of lymphoid neoplasm (Li, Young, and Medeiros 2018). Large epidemiological data from the USA show an incidence across all ethnicities of around 7 per 100,000 per year (Li et al. 2015). DLBCL mainly manifests

symptomatically with lymph node enlargement and such symptoms caused by the compression of surrounding structures by this growth. Further patterned symptoms include weight-loss, night sweats and fever, loss of appetite and overall reduction of general well-being.

Biologically DLBCL arises from mature B cells which have undergone germinal center reaction and may develop *de novo* or as a malignant transformation from indolent lymphomas such as follicular lymphoma or CLL. On a molecular and genetic basis, the large majority of DLBCL may be separated into patients harboring tumors with transcriptional signatures more closely related to germinal center B cells (GCB-type) and such more closely resembling activated, post germinal center reaction B cells (ABC-type). Approximately 10-15% of DLBCLs cannot be fully sorted into any of the aforementioned (Pasqualucci and Dalla-Favera 2018).

In principle, upon primary diagnosis intention of therapy for most patients is curative and depending on risk factors success rates of first-line therapies are between 50-90%, with GCB-type tumors exhibiting significantly better prognosis than patients with ABC-type DLBCL (Pasqualucci and Dalla-Favera 2018; Lenz et al. 2008). However, even within GCB-type and ABC-type patient cohorts, subgroups with favorable and unfavorable outcomes exist. Especially those patients with therapy refractory or relapsed DLBCL show unfavorable outcomes and new therapeutic options and better molecular stratification will be needed to more effectively determine prognosis and treatment protocols and overcome these adversities in future (Susanibar-Adaniya and Barta 2021).

1.1.4 Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL)

CLL is the most common form of leukemia in the western hemisphere (Siegel et al. 2022) and most frequently diagnosed in elderly patients above the age of 60 (Delgado and Villamor 2014). Recurring symptoms may include lymphocytosis, lymphadenopathy, hepatosplenomegaly, weight loss, night sweats, exhaustion, and a reduction of overall fitness. Biologically, as mentioned above, CLL represents a mature B cell neoplasm / B-NHL which clinically manifests

with a leukemic dissemination to the peripheral blood. In recent years it has moreover become clear that CLL almost always develops from monoclonal B-cell lymphocytosis (MBL) (Landgren et al. 2009). The transition from MBL to CLL is fluid. By definition, CLL is distinguished from MBL by a lymphocyte count of > 5000/µl and/or symptoms of disease in combination with the presence of small morphologically mature lymphocytes (Swerdlow et al. 2016). Multiple studies show the prevalence of MBL and CLL increases with age of patients and approximately one to two per cent of patients per year with MBL progress to CLL requiring treatment (Rawstron et al. 2008; Strati and Shanafelt 2015). This also helps to understand why tumor cells of CLL are genetically highly heterogeneous, as many different genetic mutations may accumulate over the rather long period of disease development. However, some mutations/genetic aberrations occur with an increased frequency and include deletions 13q14, 11q22 and 17p13, trisomy 12 as well as a multitude of mutations affecting major signaling pathways such as NOTCH, MAPK, NF-κB and p53 (Gaidano and Rossi 2017).

Clinically, apart from blood smears and lab results, flow cytometry plays an essential role in the diagnosis of CLL. In flow cytometry, CLL cells are defined as a clonal population coexpressing surface markers of mature B cells (CD19, CD20 and CD23) together with the T cell marker CD5 (Hallek 2019).

1.2 The C-X-C motif chemokine receptor (CXCR4) in B-NHL

1.2.1 Overview over chemokine receptors and their role in cancer

Chemokines are a subgroup of cytokines - small signaling molecules secreted by cells - which are distinguished from other cytokines by their function to induce a chemotactic reaction, a concentration dependent directional movement. Chemokines and their receptors play an essential role in the pathology of many diseases, such as asthma, multiple sclerosis, rheumatoid arthritis, HIV/AIDS and many more (Proudfoot 2002). They bind to a specific group of receptors on a vast set of different effector cells. These chemokine receptors are all part of the G protein-coupled receptor family (GPCR) and can be distinguished by their structure into different groups: CC chemokine receptors, CXC chemokine receptors, C chemokine receptors and CX3C chemokine receptors. Most of these bind multiple chemokines, with only some restricted to a single chemokine. Overall there are approximately 50 chemokines and 20 chemokine receptors that have been described (Proudfoot 2002). As in other diseases, in cancer, dysregulation of chemokine signaling has been related to cancer progression and prognosis. Chemokines here play an integral and multifaceted role in the tumor biology of many different cancers, such as tumor growth and proliferation, metastasis and complex interactions within the tumor microenvironment (Do, Lee, and Cho 2020). Understanding chemokine signaling and therapeutically targeting dysregulated signaling have thus become an interesting field of study in many pathologies, especially cancer.

1.2.2 CXCR4 – Its physiological function and downstream signaling targets

C-X-C-motif chemokine receptor 4 (CXCR4) is a G-protein-coupled receptor with pivotal functions in hematopoietic stem cell homeostasis, myelopoiesis, lymphopoiesis, and homing of immune cells towards its ligand C-X-C motif chemokine 12 (CXCL12) (also known as stromal cell-derived factor 1 (SDF-1)) (Nagasawa et al. 1996; Freitas et al. 2017; Ding and Morrison 2013). CXCR4 is further essential for cardiovascular development and morphogenesis of different areas of the central nervous system (Doring et al. 2014; Odemis et al. 2005; Ma et al. 1998). The importance of CXCR4 for the aforementioned multitude of different systems is underscored by the fact, that CXCR4^{-/-} mice die perinatally (Ma et al. 1998). When CXCL12 binds to CXCR4, it induces a multitude of G-protein-dependent and -independent signaling pathways including PI3K/AKT/mTOR, Ras/Raf/MAPK/ERK, PLC/Ca2+ and cAMP/PKA signaling (Figure 1) (Scala 2015). After binding of CXCL12, as a form of self-regulation, CXCR4 is phosphorylated at the C-terminus by G protein-coupled receptor kinase (GRK) and rapidly internalized after binding of the protein arrestin to the then phosphorylated C-terminus (Figure 3) (Busillo and Benovic 2007). CXCR4 is expressed at different stages of B cell development and critical for homeostasis of different B cell compartments as well as humoral immunity (Allen

et al. 2004) and moreover indispensable for the organization of dark and light zones in germinal centers (Allen et al. 2004). Furthermore, data indicates an intense receptor cross talk of CXCR4 with the B cell receptor (BCR) (Becker et al. 2017) and some data even suggests CXCR4 may promote B cell viability under hypoxic conditions (Jang et al. 2021). Hence, CXCR4 expression is not surprisingly known to be highest on B cells, as compared to any other tissue in the human body, as data from the Human Protein Atlas confirms (Figure 2) (Uhlen et al. 2015).



Figure 1. Downstream targets of CXCR4

Upon binding of CXCL12, multiple pathways are activated in a G-protein and G-protein independent manner. CXCR4 modulates migration and chemotaxis via PLC/Ca2+ signaling, as well as proliferation and cell survival via the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway. Furthermore, proliferation and chemotaxis are mediated through RAS/RAF/ERK1/2 signaling as cAMP and PKA. Adapted from Scala et al., 2015 (Scala 2015). Created using BioRender.com.



Figure 2. Physiologic expression of CXCR4 in different tissues Comparison of physiologic expression levels of CXCR4 mRNA among different cell types obtained from the Human Protein Atlas, shown as Nx expression scores of single cell transcriptomic data (Uhlen et al. 2015).

1.2.3 CXCR4 in the context of oncology

CXCR4 has been shown to be overexpressed on malignant cells, as compared to nonmalignant control tissue and furthermore to be associated with adverse prognosis in many different types of cancer (Zhao et al. 2015; Su et al. 2005; Speetjens et al. 2009; Muller et al. 2001; Scala et al. 2005), which suggests a role of CXCR4 as a tumor driver. Furthermore, extensive data links CXCR4 with crucial functions within tumor supportive microenvironments, metastasis, and dissemination of tumors and has been reviewed before (Burger and Kipps 2006; Balkwill 2004; Scala 2015; Tulotta et al. 2019). Summarizing, tumor cells utilize the CXCR4/CXCL12 axis to directly drive tumor growth as well as indirectly drive tumorigenesis by promoting angiogenesis. Furthermore, dysregulation of CXCR4 signaling within tumor cells facilitates homing to immune evasive microenvironments. E.g., suppression of anti-tumor immunity is, along with other complex mechanisms, majorly regulated through immunosuppressive myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) and tumor infiltrating MDSCs are known to express high levels of CXCR4 and to migrate towards a CXCL12 gradient (Benedicto, Romayor, and Arteta 2018; Jiang et al. 2019).

1.2.4 CXCR4 in hematopoietic malignancies and especially B-NHL

Given the many crucial roles in the hematopoietic system and its known association with adverse outcomes in many different cancer entities, especially hematopoietic malignancies, the role of CXCR4 has been extensively studied in lymphomas and leukemia. Therein, molecularly targeted imaging studies, including those from our own group, have revealed enhanced CXCR4 expression in various B cell non-Hodgkin lymphomas (B-NHL) (Wester et al. 2015; Mayerhoefer et al. 2018; Herhaus et al. 2020). Also, in the aforementioned entities CLL and DLBCL, clinical data hints towards a possible role of CXCR4 as a tumor driver, as CXCR4 expression levels have been associated with adverse prognosis (Moreno et al. 2015; Ganghammer et al. 2016) (also refer to 3.4.1 and 3.5.1). Here it is noteworthy, that in CLL specifically, CXCR4 was demonstrated to be overexpressed and involved in multiple interactions of CLL cells with the respective microenvironment (Burger, Burger, and Kipps 1999; Burger et al. 2000; Mohle et al. 1999). E.g., CLL cells are directly protected from apoptosis by the CXCR4/CXCL12-axis as nurse-like cells (tumor associated macrophages) secrete CXCL12, which directly inhibits apoptosis via MAPK/ER1/2-signaling (Burger et al. 2000). In DLBCL, CXCR4 expression is associated with bone marrow infiltration (Recasens-Zorzo et al. 2019), which itself is linked to adverse prognosis. Also, CXCR4 upregulation is an indicator of susceptibility to B cell receptor (BCR) and PI3K inhibitor treatment in DLBCL (Chen et al. 2020) and in vitro the CXCR4 antagonist plerixafor synergistically increased the antiproliferative/pro-apoptotic effect of rituximab on DLBCL cells (Reinholdt et al. 2016). Similarly, in vivo data demonstrated enhanced efficacy of rituximab treatment in B-NHL xenograft models (Beider et al. 2013).

1.2.5 Truncating mutations of CXCR4 in lymphoma and WHIM syndrome

There are known frequently recurring mutations, which truncate the C-terminus and lead to increased activity of CXCR4 signaling, upon binding of the receptor's ligand CXCL12 by impairing receptor desensitization and internalization without reduced overall receptor

expression levels (compare with Figure 3) (Haribabu et al. 1997; Hernandez et al. 2003; Balabanian et al. 2005). Such mutations have most frequently been studied in patients diagnosed with Waldenström's macroglobulinemia (WM) or warts, hypogammaglobulinemia, immunodeficiency and myelokathexis syndrome (WHIM syndrome).

Waldenström's macroglobulinemia is an indolent lymphoma derived from plasma cells and almost all tumors have somatic mutations of MYD88. Approximately 25-30% of all patients with WM further carry truncating mutations of CXCR4. Those patients harboring somatic CXCR4 mutations are associated with unfavorable outcomes (Varettoni et al. 2017).

WHIM syndrome is a rare genetic disorder etiologically caused in almost all cases by nonsense or frame shift mutations causing a truncated CXCR4 protein and may be inherited autosomal dominantly or occur as a *de novo* mutation (Hernandez et al. 2003). Clinically WHIM syndrome manifests as an immunodeficiency caused by an impaired release of mature hematopoietic cells to the peripheral blood, causing a retention of these cells in the bone marrow (myelokathexis) and thus leading to peripheral neutropenia and lymphopenia and associated hypogammaglobulinemia with congenital recurrent infections. In many cases of WHIM syndrome especially immune reactions to viruses of the human papilloma virus (HPV) family are impaired. Hence, such patients may present with excessive HPV-associated warts (Heusinkveld et al. 2019).

1.3 CXCR4^{C1013G} - Functionally modelling activated CXCR4 signaling *in vivo*

Since the discovery of WHIM syndrome as well as recurring mutations of CXCR4 in hematopoietic malignancies, such as WM, there has been further interest in studying the consequences of activated CXCR4 signaling *in vivo*. A team around Karl Balabanian for this reason created the genetically engineered mouse model *CXCR4^{C1013G}*. Transgenic mice express CXCR4 with a truncated C-terminus caused by a nonsense mutation at position 1013, equivalent to the effects of the human mutations in WM and WHIM syndrome mentioned above. This results in an aforementioned CXCR4 protein lacking critical phosphorylation sites,

required for G protein-coupled receptor kinase (GRK) and arrestin mediated internalization and degradation of CXCR4 upon binding of CXCL12 (Figure 3) (Balabanian et al. 2012; Busillo and Benovic 2007). Hence, the *CXCR4^{C1013G}* model represents a pivotal tool to investigate the physiological and pathological functions of CXCR4 signaling.



Figure 3. The murine model CXCR4^{C1013G} of activated CXCR4 signaling

Upon binding of CXCL12, G protein-coupled receptor kinases phosphorylate phosphorylation sites on the Cterminus of CXCR4. Consecutively, arrestin binds and CXCR4 is internalized and degraded. *CXCR4^{C1013G}* exhibits a truncated C-terminus lacking the necessary phosphorylation sites for GRK and therefore cannot be internalized and effectively causes prolonged signaling upon binding of CXCL12. Adapted from Busillo et al, 2007 (Busillo and Benovic 2007). Created using BioRender.com.

1.4 Modelling B cell lymphoma in murine models

1.4.1 Functionally modelling CLL / indolent lymphoma – Eµ-TCL1

To model indolent lymphoma, different murine models exist. One of the most well studied is the *Eµ-TCL1* transgenic murine model in which B cell-directed TCL1 expression drives spontaneous development of a CLL-like disease. This was achieved by placing the oncogene TCL1/TCL1A under control of a V_H promotor immunoglobulin heavy chain (IgH)-Eµ enhancer and first described by Bichi and colleagues. Clinically, transgenic mice present with extensive hepatosplenomegaly with a median overall survival of approximately one year (Bichi et al. 2002). Since its establishment it has become the most used murine model of high-risk CLL / indolent lymphoma (Kohlhaas et al. 2021; Knittel et al. 2017). In the context of CXCR4 and CLL, in humans Tcl1 has been shown to be involved directly in CLL pathogenesis (Pekarsky et al. 2008). Furthermore, using the $E\mu$ -TCL1 model, Chen et al. e.g., showed that downregulation of surface CXCR4 expression and inhibition of CXCR4 downstream signaling in CLL cells can be observed upon treatment with the Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) inhibitor ibrutinib (Chen et al. 2016), which is currently the first-line standard of CLL treatment (Andritsos et al. 2019). Moreover, Kashyap et al. demonstrated promising anti-tumor activity applying a CXCR4 antibody to patient derived CLL cells *in vitro* and in murine xenografts (Kashyap et al. 2017). Hence, there may be a potential of targeting CXCR4 in CLL patients and data from CLL patients demonstrates its potential of mobilizing CLL cells (Andritsos et al. 2019).

1.4.2 Functionally modelling aggressive B cell lymphoma – *Eµ-Myc*

Likewise to indolent lymphoma models, models to study aggressive B cell lymphoma *in vivo* exist. The *Eµ-Myc* model was first published in the 1980s and has since been an indispensable tool for the investigation of lymphomagenesis and -biology, especially of aggressive B cell lymphomas. Similarly, to the *Eµ-TCL1* model, in this transgenic model the transcription factor c-Myc was brought under control of the immunoglobulin heavy chain (IgH) enhancer, hence representing a tool for B cell specific enhanced MYC activity. Mice harboring the Eµ-Myc transgene develop lethal lymphoma within half a year of age with almost complete penetrance (Adams et al. 1985; Harris et al. 1988). Even though *Myc* translocation is most associated with Burkitt's lymphoma (BL), as almost all BL patients present with *Myc* translocations (Molyneux et al. 2012), MYC is also known to be highly expressed, mutated or translocated in a significant number of DLBCL patients. Furthermore, those DLBCL patients with high MYC expression were associated with unfavorable outcomes (Reddy et al. 2017). In previous studies with DLBCL patients MYC and CXCR4 expression was positively associated and patients with high CXCR4 expression (Chen et al. 2015).

1.5 Objectives of the study

As described above, many previous studies have shown CXCR4 to be frequently mutated or highly expressed in different hematopoietic malignancies. Most commonly, truncating mutations of *CXCR4* can be found in Waldenström's macroglobulinemia, with approximately 25% of all patients harboring mutations of *CXCR4*. However, recurring mutations of *CXCR4* can also be found in a fewer, but significant number of DLBCL patients (Reddy et al. 2017; Chapuy et al. 2018) (also refer to 3.5.1). In CLL, recent data shows CXCR4 is expressed especially high on proliferating CLL cells and higher levels of CXCR4 expression can be found in patients with progressive disease (Friedman et al. 2023). In line with this, data showed mutations in regulatory regions of *CXCR4* in patients with aggressive transformation of CLL (Richter's syndrome (RT)) (Klintman et al. 2021). Moreover, in both diseases higher CXCR4 and its downstream targets for these diseases (also refer to 3.4.1 and 3.5.1) (Aguirre-Gamboa et al. 2013). It is however not resolved if and how these affect CXCR4 pathway activity and disease progression. Of especial importance, to this point no study has elaborated the effects of activated CXCR4 signaling *in vivo*.

Hence, in this study we aimed to hyperactivate CXCR4 signaling in two very commonly used murine models of aggressive B cell lymphoma ($E\mu$ -Myc) and indolent lymphoma/chronic lymphocytic leukemia ($E\mu$ -TCL1). To achieve CXCR4 hyperactivation we aimed to crossbreed these tumor models with a further transgenic model harboring $CXCR4^{C1013G}$. As elaborated above, mice harboring this transgene express CXCR4 with a truncated C-terminus missing critical phosphorylation sites for CXCR4 internalization, thus consequently leading to enhanced downstream signaling of CXCR4.

Through the establishment of these two new models - $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} and $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} - we aimed to shed light on the role of CXCR4 signaling in pathogenesis of B cell lymphoma. For this reason, we aimed to collect clinical data, histopathology, immunohistochemistry, and flow cytometry data of these mice and closely characterize these new models in a first step. In a second step we planned to employ large-scale RNA-sequencing of premalignant and malignant B cells to further elaborate the transcriptomic effects of activated CXCR4 signaling on B cells. And lastly, in a third step we aimed to correlate our generated transcriptomic data with clinical data sets and investigate the effects of generated transcriptional signatures on clinical outcomes of patients in a translational approach to further validate our findings (Figure 4).



Figure 4. Objectives of the study

Illustration of the generation of $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ and $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ by crossbreading $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice with $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -Myc mice, respectively, the techniques used in the study and the aims. Generated using BioRender.com.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Consumables, chemicals, and reagents

| 2-Mercaptoethanol, 50 mM | ThermoFisher Scientific |
|---|-------------------------|
| 6 well-plates | Greiner Bio-One GmbH |
| 12 well-plates | Greiner Bio-One GmbH |
| Acetic acid | Carl Roth GmbH |
| ACK Lysis buffer | ThermoFisher Scientific |
| Acrylamide/Bis-acrylamide solution [30%] | Carl Roth GmbH |
| Agarose NEEO ultra-quality Roti®Garose | Carl Roth GmbH |
| Ammonium persulfate (APS) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Aprotinin Roth Bovine Serumalbumin (BSA) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| BD PlastipakTM 1 ml Sub-Q insulin syringes | BD Biosciences |
| Blood lancets supra | Megro GmbH & Co KG |
| Bromphenol blue | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Cell culture dishes | TPP |
| Cell culture flasks T125, T75, T25 | Greiner Bio-One GmbH |
| Cell strainers 100 µm | BD Bioscience |
| Combitips advanced® 10 ml | Eppendorf AG |
| Complete Mini (Protease Inhibitor Cocktail) | Roche |
| CoolCell™ FTS30 Freezing container | Sigma Aldrich |
| Cryo TubesTM | Corning |
| Deionized water | B. Braun Melsungen AG |
| Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) | Serva |
| DiscarditTM II disposable syringes | BD Biosciences |
| dNTP Mix, 10 mM | Fermentas |
| Dithiothreitol (DTT) | Sigma-Aldrich |

| Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS) | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
|---|-------------------------|--|
| Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| Eppendorf tubes, 1.5 ml and 2 ml | Sarstedt | |
| Ethanol | Carl Roth GmbH | |
| Ethidiumbromid (EtBr) solution [1%] | Carl Roth GmbH | |
| Ethylendiamintetraacetate (EDTA) | Carl Roth GmbH | |
| FACS tubes, 5 ml | BD Biosciences | |
| Fetal Calf Serum (FCS) | PAA Laboratories GmbH | |
| Filter vacuum driven bottle top filter | Millipore | |
| Formalin solution [10%] | Sigma-Aldrich | |
| Glycine | Carl Roth GmbH | |
| Hank's Balanced Salt Solution, 10x (HBSS) | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| acid (HEPES) | | |
| Isoflurane CP® [1 mg/ml] | CP-Pharma | |
| Isopropanol | Carl Roth GmbH | |
| Leupeptin AppliChem Lipofectamin® 2000 Therm | oFisher Scientific | |
| L-Glutamin, 200 mM | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| MACS LS Columns | Miltenyi Biotech | |
| Magnesium chloride (MgCl2) | Sigma-Aldrich | |
| Methanol | J.T. Baker | |
| Microvette tubes | Sarstedt | |
| Oligo(dT)12-18 Primer | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| Osteosoft® | Sigma-Aldrich | |
| PCR-Strips Single Cap 8er-Soft-Strips 0.2 ml | Biozym Scientific GMBH | |
| Penicillin/Streptomycin (Pen/Strep) | ThermoFisher Scientific | |
| Phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride (PMSF) | Sigma-Aldrich | |

| Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) | ThermoFisher Scientific |
|--|-------------------------|
| Pipette tips | Sarstedt |
| Pipette filter tips | Starlab |
| S-Monovette®, EDTA | Sarstedt |
| Skim milk powder | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Sodium chloride (NaCl) | Carl Roth GmbH |
| Sodium fluoride (NaF) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Sodium orthovanadate (Na3VO4) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Sodium tetraborate decahydrate (Borax) | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Sterican® disposable needles | B. Braun Melsungen AG |
| N,N,N',N'-Tetramethylethan-1,2-diamin (TEMED |)) Sigma-Aldrich |
| Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIS) | Carl Roth GmbH |
| Trypan blue stain solution [0.4%] | ThermoFisher Scientific |
| Trypsin-EDTA-Solution, 10x | ThermoFisher Scientific |
| Tween 20 | Sigma-Aldrich |
| Ultra Pure Distilled Water (Aqua dest.) | ThermoFisher Scientific |
| Whatman® Paper | Biometra |

2.1.2 Antibodies

| Epitope: | Clone: | Fluorochrome: | Manufacturer: | Ref. Nr: |
|----------|-----------------|-----------------------|----------------|------------|
| CD3e | (145-2C11) | PerCP-Cyanine5.5 | Invitrogen | 35-0031-82 |
| CD4 | GK1.5 | PE-Cy7 | Invitrogen | 25-0041-82 |
| CD5 | 53-7.3 | eFluor 450 | Invitrogen | 48-0051-82 |
| CD8a | 53-6.7 | PE | BD Biosciences | 553032 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | PerCP-Cyanine5.5 | Invitrogen | 35-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | eFluor 450 | Invitrogen | 48-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | PE-Cy7 | Invitrogen | 25-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | FITC/Alexa Fluor 488 | Invitrogen | 11-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | PE | Invitrogen | 12-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | APC | Invitrogen | 17-0193-82 |
| CD19 | eBio1D3 (1D3) | APCcy7/APC-eFluor 780 | Invitrogen | 47-0193-82 |
| CD21/35 | Clone 7G6 (RUO) | PE | BD Biosciences | 552957 |
| CD23 | B3B4 | PE-Cy7 | Invitrogen | 25-0232-82 |

| CD25 | PC61.5 | PE-Cyanine5 | Invitrogen | 15-0251-82 |
|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------|
| CD38 | 90 | APC | Invitrogen | 17-0381-81 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | APC | Invitrogen | 17-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | APCcy7/APC-eFluor 780 | Invitrogen | 47-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | PE | Invitrogen | 12-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | PE-Cy5 | Invitrogen | 15-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | PE-Cy5.5 | Invitrogen | 35-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | PE-Cy7 | Invitrogen | 25-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | ef450 | Invitrogen | 48-0451-82 |
| CD45 | 30-F11 | FITC/Alexa Fluor 488 | Invitrogen | 11-0451-82 |
| CD45R (B220) | RA3-6B2 | APCcy7/APC-eFluor 780 | Invitrogen | 47-0452-80 |
| CD45R (B220) | RA3-6B2 | PE-Cy7 | Invitrogen | 25-0452-82 |
| CD80 | 16-10A1 | PE | Invitrogen | 12-0801-81 |
| CD93 | AA4.1 | PerCP-Cyanine5.5 | Invitrogen | 45-5892-82 |
| CD95 | Jo2 | PE-Cy7 | BD Biosciences | 557653 |
| CD117 (c-Kit) | 2B8 | APCcy7/APC-eFluor 780 | Invitrogen | 47-1171-82 |
| CD138 | Clone 281-2 (RUO) | PE | BD Biosciences | 553714 |
| CD184 (CXCR4) | 2B11 | FITC/Alexa Fluor 488 | Invitrogen | 53-9991-80 |
| CD184 CXCR4 | 2B11 | APC | Invitrogen | 17-9991-82 |
| GL7 | GL7 | PerCP-Cyanine5.5 | Biolegend | 144609 |
| lgD | 11-26c | eFluor 450 | Invitrogen | 48-5993-82 |
| IgG2b kappa | eB149/10H5 | APC | Invitrogen | 17-4031-82 |
| IgM | eB121-15F9 | PE | Invitrogen | 12-5890-82 |
| IgM | II/41 | APC | Invitrogen | 17-5790-82 |
| MHCII | M5/114.15.2 | APCcy7/APC-eFluor 780 | Invitrogen | 47-5321-80 |

Table 1: All antibodies used for flow cytometry in this study.

| Epitope: | Clone: | Manufacturer: | Reference Number: |
|----------|-----------|---------------|-------------------|
| CD19 | (LE-CD19) | Zytomed | MSK043-05 |
| Ki67 | - | abcam | ab15580 |
| Pax5 | - | abcam | ab109443 |
| TCL-1 | - | BIOZOL | ABX201114 |
| B220 | (RA3-6B2) | BD Pharmingen | 550286 |

Table 2: All antibodies used for immunohistochemistry in this study.

| Target: | Manufacturer: | Reference Number: |
|--|----------------|-------------------|
| Akt | Cell Signaling | 9272 |
| Phospho-Akt (Ser473) | Cell Signaling | 9271 |
| p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) | Cell Signaling | 9102 |
| Phospho-p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) (Thr202/Tyr204) | Cell Signaling | 9101 |
| beta-Actin | Sigma-Aldrich | A1978 |

Table 3: All antibodies used for immunoblotting in this study.

2.1.3 Technical Equipment

| Analytical balance Kern 770 | Kern & Sohn GmbH |
|--|------------------------------|
| Automated immunostrainer | Ventana Medical Systems Inc. |
| Axioskop 2 plus microscope | Carl Zeiss AG |
| Cage systems IVC Tecniplast Cell incubator | Heraeus |
| CyAn ADP Lx P8 | Beckman Coulter |
| Electrophoresis chamber | Bio-Rad Laboratories |
| Elphoscan ES2000 Plus device | Sarstedt |
| FACSAria™ III cell sorter | BD Biosciences |
| Fridges and lab freezers | Liebherr Hausgeräte GmbH |
| Dissecting instruments | Fine Science Tools GmbH |
| Epson Perfection 4990 Photo Scanner | Epson |
| GelDoc System Universal Hood II | Bio-Rad Laboratories |
| Glas ware Labware | SCHOTT AG |
| Infrared lamp | Breuer GmbH |
| ProgRes C10 plus microscope camera | Jenoptic AG |
| Liquid nitrogen tank | Biosafe® |
| MACS MultiStand | Miltenyi Biotec |
| Microfuge | Heraeus |
| Biofuge fresco Heraeus Microfuge | Heraeus |
| Megafuge 16 RS Heraeus Microfuge | Heraeus |
| Multifuge 3s | Heraeus |
| Microfuge MiniSpin | Eppendorf AG |
| Microcentrifuge Mikro22R | Hettich Zentrifugen |
| MidiMACSTM Separator | Miltenyi Biotec |
| Multi-Channel Pipettes Research Plus® | Eppendorf AG |
| NanoDrop 2000c | ThermoFisher Scientific |

| Neubauer hemocytometer | Paul Marienfeld GmbH |
|---|------------------------|
| OPTIMAX X-ray Film Processor | PROTEC GmbH & Co KG |
| pH-meter SevenEasyTM | Mettler Toledo |
| Pipetboy | Integra Biosciences AG |
| Pipettes Research Plus® | Eppendorf AG |
| Power Pac 200 | Bio-Rad Laboratories |
| Power Pac P25T | Biometra |
| Precision balance Kern EG 2200-2NM | Kern & Sohn GmbH |
| Repeater 4780 and M4 | Eppendorf AG |
| qRT-PCR Cycler (ABI Prism 7900 HT) | Applied Biosystems |
| Safety cabinet HERAsafe® HSP18 | Heraeus |
| Scil Vet ABC Blood Counter | ScilAnimal Care |
| SDS-Gelelectrophoresis chamber | Biometra GmbH |
| Smart Spec PlusTM Spectrophotometer | Bio-Rad Laboratories |
| SONOPLUS Homogenisator (HD 2070) | Bandelin electronic |
| Sunrise Microplate Reader Tecan | Life Sciences |
| Thermal Cycler VeritiTM 96-well | ThermoFisher |
| Scientific Thermal Cycler BIOER Gene Touch | Biozym Scientific GmbH |
| Thermomixer comfort | Eppendorf AG Vortex |
| Water bath | Memmert |
| Water bath SUB for Instruments Wet-transfer | Bio-Rad Laboratories |

2.1.4 Software

| Adobe Photoshop CS6 | Adobe Inc. |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| Excel | Microsoft Office |
| EndNote 20 | Clarivate Analytics |
| FlowJo Version 10 | Tree Star Inc. |

GraphPad Prism Version 7 Inkscape Version 0.92 Word GraphPad Inc Inkscape Community Microsoft Office

2.2 Methods

The methods have been previously published in the main publication of this thesis (Lewis, Maurer, et al. 2021). However, they have been adapted to at points to give more specifications and detail for this thesis.

2.2.1 Animal experiments

Genotyping was performed as previously described (Balabanian et al. 2012; Bichi et al. 2002; Adams et al. 1985). All analyses included heterozygous female and male animals on a C57BL/6J background. Animal caretakers, but not researchers performing experiments were blinded for genotypes. Mice were allocated to groups based on genotype; thus, no randomization was performed. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with Federation of European Laboratory Animal Science Associations (FELASA) guidelines and with permission of the respective authorities (Regierung von Oberbayern, Munich, Germany & Landesamt für Gesundheit und Soziales, Berlin, Germany).

2.2.1.1 The CXCR4^{C1013} mouse model

The *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mouse model was obtained as a gift by the group of Karl Balabanian and Marion Espeli. These mice express a genetically modified version of CXCR4 with a truncated C-terminus induced by a nonsense mutation at position 1013 (Balabanian et al. 2012).

2.2.1.2 The Eµ-TCL1 mouse model

The $E\mu$ -TCL1 mouse model was obtained from Jackson Laboratory. These mice harbor a transgene, in which the oncogene TCL1/TCL1A was brought under control of immunoglobulin

heavy chain (IgH)-Eµ enhancer and is thus expressed B cell specifically. Clinically, transgenic mice develop a slowly proliferating lymphoproliferative disease mimicking human indolent B cell lymphoma / CLL (Bichi et al. 2002).

2.2.1.3 The Eµ-Myc mouse model

The *Eµ-Myc* mouse model was obtained from Jackson Laboratory. These mice have been genetically modified to induce B cell specific overexpression of the transcription factor c-Myc, by bringing it under control of the immunoglobulin heavy chain (IgH) enhancer. Hence, transgenic mice develop an aggressive B cell lymphoma disease, beginning from a young age of only a few weeks (Adams et al. 1985; Harris et al. 1988).

2.2.2 Flow cytometry

2.2.2.1 Preparation of samples and protocol for flow cytometry

Organs were collected and kept on ice in HF2 buffer until further processing. After collection of all organs, bones were flushed with cold HF2 buffer. Spleens were mashed through a 70µm cell strainer. Extracted bone marrow was resuspended repeatedly and flushed through a 30µm Syringe Falcon to achieve single cell suspensions. These suspensions were centrifuged at 350g for 5 minutes at room temperature. For red blood cell depletion, the supernatant was discarded, and pellets resuspended in ACK lysis buffer and consequently incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. To fully remove residual ACK lysis buffer, cells were washed once with HF2 and then resuspended in HF2 for counting. Each 1x10⁶ cells per sample were separated for staining with flow cytometry antibodies. To achieve most efficient binding of antibodies, the consequent staining was performed in flow cytometry buffer (PBS containing 0.5% BSA) for 45 minutes in the dark on ice in a volume of 50-100µl. After staining, 2ml of flow cytometry buffer were added to each sample and samples were centrifuged at 350g for 5 minutes. Cells were then resuspended in 200-400µl of staining buffer to perform flow cytometry. To exclude dead cells from further analyses, dependent on the interaction profile of

the fluorochromes in each stain, live dead-staining was performed by adding PI, or DAPI to the flow cytometry buffer used during flow cytometry. In some stains, alternatively Invitrogen Fixable Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit was used prior to the staining with antibodies according to the manufacturer's protocol. The actual flow cytometry was performed on a Cyan ADP LX P8 or a CytoFLEX S flow cytometer.

2.2.2.2 Flow cytometry gating strategies for immunophenotyping

After data collection, the analysis was performed with FlowJo[™] Version 10.6.0 software. Hereby all samples were primarily gated visually in a first step to exclude events of very low side scatter and forward scatter. In a second step, to exclude doublets, events were plotted by forward scatter height against forward scatter area and outliers were excluded. In all samples, in a third step, plotting of the respective fluorochrome for live-dead staining was plotted against the forward scatter to exclude dead cells from further analyses. After these steps for further analyses gating of the respective fluorochromes linked to the specific antibodies was used to distinguish distinct subsets of cells. A summary of the gating strategies used for immunophenotyping in different experiments can be found in Figure 5.



Figure 5: Flow cytometry gating strategies.

(A) Gating strategy for CD19+CD5+ cells. (B) Gating strategy for CD19+B220dim cells and CD19+B220dimCD5+ B1 B cells. (C) T cell gating strategy to measure frequency of all T cells (CD3e+) and to distinguish between CD4+ and CD8+ cells. (D) Gating strategy for transitional T1 (IgM+CD23-) and T2 (IgM+CD23+) cells gated on B220+CD93+. Generated using FlowJo. Previously displayed in Lewis et al.

2.2.3 Histopathology and immunohistochemistry (IHC)

2.2.3.1 Fixation and preparation of organ tissue

From sacrificed mice lymphatic tissues, liver, spleen and - if present - visually enlarged tumor material was collected and transferred to biopsy cassettes. To better facilitate the introduction of formaldehyde to the bone marrow we punctured the corticalis of the bones with three small holes along the side of each bone before continuing with the fixation step. Tissue samples

were then fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 48 hours, paraffin embedded, sectioned, and stained using H&E. Samples of bone marrow however were decalcified after fixation by a further incubation for 14 days in Osteosoft®.

2.2.3.2 Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry on murine tissues was performed on an automated immunostainer according to the company's protocols for open procedures with slight modifications. Appropriate known positive and negative controls were used to confirm the adequacy of the staining. The histologic samples were then analysed by an experienced pathologist, with especially extensive experience in murine oncologic pathology (Prof. Dr. Leticia Quintanilla-Martinez, Tübingen, Germany). Photomicrographic images were acquired with an Axioskop 2 *plus* Zeiss microscope equipped with a Jenoptik ProgRes C10 *plus* camera and software. Objectives Plan-Neofluar used were: 1.25/0,035, 2.5x/0.075, 10x/0.30, 20x/0.50, and 40x/0.75. Final image preparation was performed with Adobe Photoshop CS6.

2.2.3.3 Scoring of immunohistochemistry

To compare different biological samples against each other we decided to establish a scoring system to be able to quantify the immunohistochemistry and assess the tumor infiltration for each organ (scoring system described below). All samples were then scored by an experienced hematopathologist (Prof. Dr. Leticia Quintanilla-Martinez), accordingly and statistical analysis performed as described in the respective materials section below.

Spleen:

Score 1: Preserved white pulp and beginning of infiltration in the red pulp.

Score 2: Decreased white pulp and increase in red pulp infiltration.

Score 3: Loss of white pulp and complete red pulp infiltration.

Liver:

Score 1: Isolated positive cells.

Score 2: Intrasinusoidal infiltration or few portal small groups of lymphoid cells.

Score 3: Intrasinusoidal and portal infiltration with large groups of lymphoid cells.

Bone marrow:

Score 1: Isolated positive cells.

Score 2: Interstitial infiltration or few small groups of lymphoid cells.

Score 3: Interstitial infiltration and large groups of lymphoid cells.

2.2.4 RNA sequencing

2.2.4.1 Preparation of samples for RNA-Sequencing

Single cell suspensions of spleen and bone marrow were produced from sacrificed animals as described above. As the aim of the project was to address B cell intrinsic effects of activated CXCR4 signaling we performed magnetic bead separation. For this matter after production of single cell suspensions of spleen and bone marrow of *WT*, *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, *Eµ-TCL1*, and *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}*, B cells were isolated with CD19 directed magnetic beads by Miltenyi Biotec following the manufactures protocol. However, as we noticed the efficacy of purification could be enhanced by elongating the staining time with the magnetic beads to 40 minutes and adding an additional rinse of the column before eluting the cells, we adjusted the protocol accordingly.

To ensure sample purity we took a small specimen of the purified and stained cells with a CD19-directed antibody and discarded all samples of not at least 90% B cell purity. Samples were then snap frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further preparation.

To isolate RNA, we applied the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit of Qiagen according to the manufacturers protocol, including the elimination of gDNA by the use of the gDNA eliminator column.

Due to the frequently observed disruption of RNA integrity by high levels of RNases, especially in splenic tissue, a measurement of the RNA integrity number (RIN) was performed and only

RNA samples with a RIN > 7 were used for RNA-sequencing. RIN was determined using Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit and the Agilent 2100 Expert software, as recommended by the fabricator. Library preparation and single-end sequencing was subsequently performed by Novogene (UK) on a HiSeq2500 with a sequencing depth of more than 20 M reads/sample. Fastq files were subsequently mapped to the murine reference genome GRCm38 with STAR. Reads and transcripts per million (TPM) were estimated for each transcript using the transcript sequences from the GENCODE Release 25 (GRCm38) and the Salmon software (v1.3.0). Counts and TPM were summarized at the gene level by summing up the transcript values for each corresponding gene.

The sequencing of $E\mu$ -Myc and $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} samples was performed on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA) in a collaboration with Roland Rad's lab as described by Parekh, Ziegenhein et al. and using the adjusted protocol as described previously by Scherger, Al-Maarri et al. (Scherger et al. 2019; Parekh et al. 2016). Mapping and further analysis was performed by H. Carlo Maurer.

The RNA-Seq data was made accessible to the public through the National Center for Biotechnology Information's Gene Expression Omnibus. The accession code is GSE178959.

2.2.4.2 Differential gene expression analysis

Genome-wide differential gene expression analysis for RNA-Seq count data was carried out using a negative binomial generalized linear model (GLM) as implemented in the DESeq2 R package (Love, Huber, and Anders 2014; R-Core-Team 2018) to test for differentially expressed genes between experimental conditions. For dispersion estimation we considered genotype and organ site as covariates. For individual comparisons a false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.1 was considered significant. Select differentially expressed genes were illustrated in a heatmap after rescaling to have a minimum of -1 and a maximum of +1 using the *pheatmap* R package (Kolde 2019).

2.2.4.3 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was carried out on individual differential gene expression signatures between two conditions using the *fgsea* R package (Korotkevich G. et al. 2021) and using Wald statistics from the aforementioned GLM as gene-level statistics. Gene sets were retrieved from the MSigDb v7.3 (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) Enrichment results for select pathways were illustrated using custom R code. Gene set enrichment analysis was conducted by H. Carlo Maurer in a collaborative effort.

2.2.4.4 Derivation and application of CXCR4 associated gene signatures

First we carried out differential gene expression (DEG) analysis on *WT*, *CXCR4*^{C1013G}, *Eµ*-*TCL1* and *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{C1013G} B cells as described. Next, we applied the following thresholds to the DEG results: baseMean > 50, absolute \log_2 fold change > 0.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.05. The remaining genes were ordered by their absolute Wald test statistic for up-(i.e. induced by CXCR4 activation) and downregulated (i.e. repressed by CXCR4 activation) genes, respectively, to represent the CXCR4 activation signature (CXCR4a) (Supplemental Table 1). Its enrichment on gene expression signatures derived from comparing other experimental conditions was computed using analytic rank-based enrichment analysis (aREA) (Alvarez et al. 2016) as implemented in the viper R package (Alvarez MJ., Giorgi F., and Califano A. 2014) considering both tails of the CXCR4a activation signature. Similarly, we applied differentially expressed genes between Richter transformed lymphocytes and peripheral blood chronic lymphocytic leukemia (Klintman et al. 2020) to gene expression signatures derived from our experimental conditions. DEG analysis was conducted in a collaboration by H. Carlo Maurer.

2.2.4.5 Application of upregulated genes from CXCR4 associated gene signatures to a data set of CLL patients

Simple sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA) using GSVA R/Bioconductor package (Hänzelmann, Castelo, and Guinney 2013) was performed on a previously published RNA sequencing dataset derived from a cohort of 210 CLL patients (Dietrich et al. 2018). For each patient sample, an enrichment score was calculated based on the upregulated genes from our CXCR4a ($CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. WT) and $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1 signature and patients were dichotomized into two equally sized groups of high and low enrichment along the median. Groups were compared regarding their overall survival and time to treatment using log-rank test and the difference was visualized by Kaplan-Meier plots. The application of upregulated genes to CLL patients was performed in a collaborative effort with Thorsten Zenz and Junyan Lu.

2.2.4.6 Overlapping DEGs with known datasets of oncogenes

DEGs, as described above, of 6 week old $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ were generated and pre-selected for protein coding genes with exclusion of Riken-cDNA genes using the MGI database (Bult et al. 2019). We then overlapped the DEGs with the Cancer Gene Census dataset (Sondka et al. 2018) of known cancer oncogenes and two data sets of published B cell oncogenes (Reddy et al. 2017; Chapuy et al. 2018).

2.2.4.7 Clonality Analysis from transcriptomic data

Transcriptomic data generated from RNA-Sequencing of CD19+ B cells from 6-week-old mice was used to profile V(D)J rearrangement using MiXCR and VDJtools as previously published (Shugay et al. 2015; Bolotin et al. 2015). Briefly, adapters were trimmed using Trim Galore (RRID:SCR_011847). Subsequently the paired-end set of reads were loaded into the MiXCR analysis pipeline (shotgun analysis) using a built-in mouse library (Bolotin et al. 2015). Finally,
clonotype results from MiXCR were analyzed and visualized using VDJtools. Clonality was analyzed in a lab internal collaboration by Matthias Wirth.

2.2.5 Immunoblotting upon stimulation with CXCL12

To analyze the response of purified B cells to stimulation of CXCR4 by CXCL12, after purification by magnetic beads, in a first step, B cells were starved of serum by incubating them for 1 hour in RPMI containing 2% of FBS. After this process, B cells were counted and each 2x10⁶ cells were distributed to FACS tubes. After a centrifugation process at 350g for 5 minutes, a subset of the cells was treated with 1µM of AMD3100 in RPMI with 2% FBS at room temperature for 40 minutes, while the others were further incubated in RPMI with 2% FBS only. After a washing step, cells were then resuspended in 37°C pre-tempered RPMI with 2% FBS and with/without 50nM of CXCL12 and incubated at 37°C for 5 minutes for stimulation, before another step of washing. Cells were then pelleted and snap frozen by the use of liquid nitrogen. Protein extracts were prepared by incubating cell pellets in lysis buffer (50 mM Hepes, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 2.5 mM EGTA and 0.1% Tween) supplemented with NaF, PMSF and NaVO₄ followed by sonification. Protein lysates were fractioned on SDS PAGE gels, transferred to Immobilon-P (Millipore, Burlington, MA) membranes and incubated with specific antibodies and developed with Chemostar PC ECL & Fluorescence Imager (Intas Science Imaging, Göttingen, Germany). A list of antibodies used can be found in methods and materials section. Quantification of protein expression levels was performed using ImageJ software (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij). Immunoblotting was performed within a lab internal collaboration with Nikita Singh.

2.2.6 Migration Assay

Splenocytes were extracted from freshly collected spleen, by a 100µm cell separator and resuspended in RPMI-medium. Cells were then counted, and equal cell numbers were resuspended in RPMI-medium with or without 1µM AMD3100 and incubated at room

temperature for 40 minutes. Cells were then washed and loaded onto a Corning® Transwell® 96-well plate with 5µm pore size, with the other side of the membrane containing RPMImedium with/without 50nM of CXCL12. The fully loaded Transwell® plates were then incubated in a cell culture incubator for 4h at 37°C to facilitate the migration process. Migration of cells to the lower wells was measured using CountBright[™] Absolute Counting Beads, according to the manufacturers protocol, without alterations.

2.2.7 Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism Version 9.0. (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). Error bars represent standard deviation (SD). Bar graphs represent the mean. In animal experiments, a single data point represents an individual mouse. No sample size calculations were performed. Data from at least 3 mice per group were reported. In survival analyses, mice were excluded when the cause of death was not transgene-related (e.g. fighting, birth complications). A 2-tailed Student's t test was used to compare quantitative data between 2 independent samples. When comparing 3 or more groups, a one-way ANOVA with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons was used to compare group means. Survival data were compared using a logrank (Mantel-Cox) test. Results with a P value of less than 0.05 were considered significant.

3 Results

3.1 CXCR4^{C1013G} mice to study CXCR4 hyperactivation in B cells

In a first step, we aimed to validate our approach of using CXCR4^{C1013G} mice to study hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling in B cells. Fort this matter, CD19+ B cells were isolated from $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice and wild type control mice (WT) (Figure 6A) immediately after sacrificing by CD19-directed magnetic bead separation and then stimulated in vitro as specified in the methods section. Thereafter, to ensure the presence of the proposed enhanced CXCR4 signaling activity in B cells of CXCR4^{C1013G}, immunoblotting for phosphorylation of the downstream effector kinases ERK and AKT (Scala 2015) was performed. For this matter the ratio of phosphorylated ERK (pERK) to ERK and phosphorylated AKT (pAKT) to AKT of B cells from WT and CXCR4^{C1013G} mice was compared after stimulation with 50nM of CXCL12 among each other, as well as in comparison to respective unstimulated controls. Remarkably higher pERK/ERK ratios and pAKT/AKT ratios were detected in the B cells of CXCR4^{C1013G} compared to WT controls, indicating an elevated response to CXCL12 and hyperactivation of CXCR4 signaling. To validate that this effect was related to CXCR4 stimulation, we added an additional biological group in which we pretreated the purified B cells with the CXCR4 antagonist AMD3100 before stimulation with CXCL12. Supporting these findings were attributed to stimulation of CXCR4, no significant differences in phosphorylation state of ERK and AKT compared to unstimulated controls were observed after stimulation with CXCL12 when CXCR4 was antagonized by AMD3100 before incubation with CXCL12 (Figure 6B and C). Importantly, as these cells were stimulated in vitro, after purification and separation from microenvironmental cells, the effects measured were B cell intrinsic effects.



Figure 6: *CXCR4^{C1013G+/-}* **B cells exhibit increased phosphorylation of ERK/AKT upon CXCL12 stimulation** (**A**) Illustration of the CXCR4^{C1013G} truncating mutation and outline of experimental setup for immunoblotting and RNA sequencing of splenic and bone marrow CD19+ B cells. (**B**) Representative image of immunoblotting for AKT, pAKT (Ser473), ERK, pERK (Thr202/Tyr204) and Actin of CD19+ B cells treated with/without 50 nM CXCL12 and/or 10 μ M CXCR4 inhibitor AMD3100 (AMD) (*WT*, n = 3; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 3). (**C**) Relative pAKT to AKT and pERK to ERK protein expression by immunoblotting of *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* CD19+ B cells treated with/without 50nM CXCL12 and/or 10 μ M CXCR4 inhibitor AMD3100 (*WT*, n = 3; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 3). (**C**) Relative pAKT to AKT and pERK to ERK protein expression by immunoblotting of *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 3). Statistical analyses were performed with one-way ANOVA with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.2 CXCR4 activation induces a distinct transcriptomic signature in B cells

As we observed B Cells of *CXCR4^{C1013G}* exhibited activated CXCR4 signaling, we aimed to study the changes this would induce to the B cell transcriptome. Thus, we performed whole transcriptome profiling of CD19+ B cells from *CXCR4^{C1013G}* and *WT* mice, which again we purified by magnetic bead separation (Figure 6A). Strikingly, hyperactivation of CXCR4 vastly changed the transcriptome of B cells and we discovered a set of 199 differentially expressed genes (DEGs, protein coding, $p_{adj} < 0.05$; logFC > 0.5 or < -0.5) in *CXCR4^{C1013G}* compared to *WT* controls (Figure 7A). Importantly, upregulated genes in B cells with hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling were such linked to chemokine signaling, migration and adhesion (*Ccr1, Cxcl1, Cxcl2, Igfn1, Cntn2, Jaml*), NOTCH signaling (*Sorbs2*), inflammation and cytokine signaling (*II9r, II7r, Csf2rb, Trem1*), B cell maturation (*Rag1, Rag2*), plasma cell differentiation and proliferation (*Prdm1*), metabolism (*Pdk1*) and cell cycle progression (*Nek6*). Of note, the CXCL12-binding receptor *Ackr3* (encoding CXCR7), known to form heterodimers with CXCR4 (Sanchez-Martin, Sanchez-Mateos, and Cabanas 2013), was upregulated, too.

Having found this large set of dysregulated genes, associated with aforementioned critical cellular functions, known to be pivotal also in tumor biology, we aimed to make our transcriptomic data easily accessible for further analyses. Thus, in a next step, the significantly differentially expressed 199 DEGs in *CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *WT*, were used to define a transcriptional profile of hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling (CXCR4a) in B cells (list of genes of signature can be found in Supplemental Table 1).

Subsequently, we applied gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) using well-established, published transcriptional signatures. Supporting our hypothesis and underscoring the applicability of our CXCR4a signature, B cells of CXCR4^{C1013G} mice enriched chemokine receptor signaling, inflammatory response and cytokine signaling pathways (HALLMARK INFLAMMATORY REPSONSE, REACTOME GPCR LIGAND BINDING, REACTOME CYTOKINE SIGNALING IN IMMUNE SYSTEM). Interestingly, we additionally discovered cancer relevant pathways to be upregulated in CXCR4 hyperactivated B cells (HALLMARK KRAS SIGNALING UP), as well as pathways typically associated with cancer, such as upregulation of glycolysis (HALLMARK GLYCOLYIS) as well as depletion of DNA repair pathways (HALLMARK DNA REPAIR) (Figure 7B).

Summarizing, the data provided resemble the first *in vivo* data of the effects of activated CXCR4 to the transcriptome of B cells and provide a comprehensive database for further hypotheses and mechanistical studies. Moreover, from the set of DEGs we were able to generate a transcriptional signature of hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling in B cells, which represents a valuable tool to assess activity of the CXCR4 pathway. Furthermore, the data proves that enhancing CXCR4 signaling activity leads to an enrichment of several cancer-associated pathways and hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling might predispose B cells for malignant transformation.

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Figure 7: CXCR4^{C1013G} B cells display a distinct transcriptomic profile

(A) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes (DEG) of $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. *WT* CD19+ B cells (*WT*, n = 5; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 5). (B) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. *WT* CD19+ B cells showing normalized enrichment scores (NES) and false discovery rates (FDR) for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) of $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ compared to *WT* CD19+ B cells. For statistics, please refer to methods. Figure generated in collaboration with H. Carlo Maurer.

3.3 Enhanced CXCR4 signaling predisposes for TCL1 driven leukemia

Having shown that enhanced CXCR4 signaling regulates many cancer-associated pathways on a transcriptomic level, we sought to investigate which effects this would have on the distribution of different B cell compartments. Thus, we carried out an extensive B cell immunophenotyping on young, 3-month-old *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice focusing on transitional B cells and especially on the population of CD19+/B220dim/CD5+ B1 B cells. We focused on these cells, as a potential mechanism of Eµ-TCL1-driven tumor development includes the accumulation of autoreactive B cells in the transitional T1 population, giving rise to CD19+/B220dim and, to limit autoreactivity, CD5+ B cells, which eventually progress to lethal B cell leukemia (Hippen, Tze, and Behrens 2000; Nganga et al. 2013; Alankus et al. 2021). Herein we discovered that these T1 B cells were significantly increased and concordantly T2 B cells decreased in frequency and total number in the spleens of these healthy young mice

without signs of disease (Figure 8A). Moreover, within the bone marrow compartment and spleen of these *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice we could discover an increased frequency of CD19+/B220dim and additionally CD5+ cells (Figure 8B - D).

Remarkably this meant that the CD19+B220dim/CD5+ B1 B cell population known from $E\mu$ -*TCL1* mice (Nganga et al. 2013) was already significantly increased in bone marrow and spleen of *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice at an early age compared to their *WT* littermate controls, which highly suggests an innate increased susceptibility of B cells with CXCR4 hyperactivation for aberrant B cell lymphoproliferation.



Figure 8: Enhanced CXCR4 signaling creates a predisposition for TCL1 driven leukemia.

(A) Quantification and representative contour plots of splenic T1 (IgM+CD23-) and T2 (IgM+CD23+) cells gated on B220+CD93+ B cells by flow cytometry of 3-month-old animals (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (B) Representative contour plots of splenic CD19+B220dim cells and quantification of total bone marrow and splenic CD19+B220dimCD5+ B1 cells of 3-month-old animals (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (C) Quantification of total CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen of 3-month-old *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (C) Prequencies of CD5+ cells of CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen of 3-month-old *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (D) Frequencies of CD5+ cells of CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen of 3-month-old *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (C) Prequencies of CD5+ cells of CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen of 3-month-old *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (C) Prequencies of CD5+ cells of CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen of 3-month-old *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). Statistical analyses were performed with Student's t test, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.4 Hyperactivating CXCR4 signaling in TCL1-driven lymphoma / leukemia

3.4.1 Rationale for choosing the *Eµ-TCL1* model organism

No patient or *in vivo* data exist on direct effects of activated CXCR4 signaling on lymphoma genesis and biology. However, when analyzing published data, mRNA-expression of CXCR4 is linked to a reduced overall survival in CLL patients (Figure 9), further hinting to a possible major role of CXCR4 in leukemia / lymphoma biology.





Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of 201 CLL patients stratified by CXCR4 mRNA expression from the CLL-ES data set of the ICGC database – June 2016, risk-group maximized and analyzed with SurvExpress (Aguirre-Gamboa et al. 2013). P value of log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test is shown.

Hence, we sought to overcome this lack of data, by intercrossing the $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ model to a hematopoietic tumor model of CLL / indolent B cell lymphoma. To this end, we chose the well-established *Eµ-TCL1* model of indolent lymphoma / CLL-like disease, which expresses the TCL1 oncogene B cell specifically (Bichi et al. 2002) (also refer to 1.4.1 and 2.2.1.2).

Of note, the model was chosen specifically, as we saw an increased number of CD19+B220dim/CD5+B1 B cells in the spleens and bone marrow of young mice $CXCR4^{C1013G}$. These are known to be the precursors of Eµ-TCL1-driven disease. Hence, we aimed to investigate whether this observed lymphoproliferation translated to a more profound TCL1driven CLL-like disease *in vivo*. Thus, *Eµ*-*TCL1* mice were intercrossed with *CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} mice to generate *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} mice, which were both heterogeneous for CXCR4^{*C1013G*} and Eµ-TCL1 transgenes (Figure 10). Of note, all further experiments were solely performed on mice with double heterogeneous genetic background, not on those homozygously harboring one or both of the mutations.



Figure 10: Generation of the *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mouse model

Outline of the breeding scheme of $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ and $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice to generate double-transgenic $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice.

3.4.2 CXCR4 signaling accelerates lymphoproliferation

Many previous studies have shown that even at a young age, clinically healthy $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice exhibited a steady lymphoproliferation ultimately leading to lethal disease (Nganga et al. 2013). Thus, to analyze the impact of CXCR4 hyperactivation on the lymphomagenesis and early stages of disease, we sacrificed a young age-matched cohort of 6-month-old $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice for histopathology and flow cytometry based immunophenotyping.

As anticipated, all mice bearing the Eµ-TCL1 transgene developed a gradually progressing B cell lymphoproliferation with a CD19+CD5+/CD19+B220dim immunophenotype and continuous loss of B220 expression along the course of the disease in line with previous data (Figure 11A) (Bichi et al. 2002). However, in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice, this $_{38}$

lymphoproliferation started earlier as compared to $E\mu$ -TCL1 littermates. For this matter we sacrificed mice aged 5-6 months and observed not only a significantly increased infiltration of CD19+CD5+/CD19+B220dim cells in bone marrow and spleen (Figure 11A and B) but also an increased spleen weight (Figure 11C). This indicated to us, that CXCR4 may play a role even at early stages of disease development.

Concordantly, these findings were further confirmed by histopathological analysis, as $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice exhibited enlarged spleens with moderate preservation of the white pulp and clear expansion of the red pulp, which was incipiently infiltrated by B cells, while in $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice the white pulp was atrophic with expansion of the red pulp and morphologically more pronounced infiltration (evaluated by Prof. Leticia Quintanilla-Martinez, University of Tübingen; Figure 11D, quantification 11E). These differences could also be observed in the bone marrow, with a significantly increased infiltrative lymphoproliferation in bone marrows of $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ compared to $E\mu$ -TCL1 (Figure 11D, quantification: Figure 11E).

Having seen the more extensive lymphoproliferation of CD19+CD5+B220dim cells and destruction of regular histology in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice, we aimed to further phenotype these cells and also characterize the T cell compartment.

Underscoring our findings of a further progressed stage of disease in *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} mice, we observed significantly reduced B220 expression at this early stage in *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} compared to *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+CD5+ cells in both bone marrow and spleen (Figure 11F). Importantly when analyzing the T cell compartment, we could not see significant differences in the frequency of CD3e+, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in spleens of *Eµ*-*TCL1* and *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} (Figure 11G), hinting towards a B cell intrinsic effect of CXCR4 hyperactivation to lymphoproliferation .

Summarizing these data, Eµ-TCL1-driven lymphoproliferation is accelerated by CXCR4 hyperactivation in young clinically healthy mice. $E\mu$ -TCL1, CXCR4^{C1013G} mice showed a histopathologically more advanced stage of disease, including disruption of normal tissue

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architecture and reduced expression of B220 on CD19+CD5+ cells. Furthermore, as the lymphoproliferation, known to ultimately progress to Eµ-TCL1-driven leukemia, could be seen in young mice our data hints toward an involvement of CXCR4 in the early stages of disease.



Eμ-TCL1 Eμ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}

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Figure 11: Hyperactivation of CXCR4 accelerates onset of disease in Eµ-TCL1 driven leukemia

(**A**) Representative contour plots of splenic CD19+CD5+ cells by flow cytometry in 5 - 6 month old animals and quantification of splenic and bone marrow CD19+CD5+ cells (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 4; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (**B**) Frequencies of spleen and bone marrow CD19+B220dim cells by flow cytometry in 5 - 6 month old animals (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 4; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (**C**) Spleen weight of 5 - 6 month old mice (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 4; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6). (**D**) Representative images of H&E and immunohistochemistry of 5 - 6 month old *Eµ*-*TCL1* and *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (scale bars spleen: overview = 1mm, detailed images: 200µm, scale bars bone marrow: overview = 200µm, detailed images = 20µm). (**E**) Quantification of histology scores (1-3) of spleen (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 3; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 7) and bone marrow (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 3; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6) of 5 - 6 month old mice. Scoring system details are shown in Methods section. (**F**) Quantification of spleen and bone marrow B220 expression of CD19+CD5+ cells by flow cytometry in 6 month old animals (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 4; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (**G**) Frequencies of spleen CD3e+, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells by flow cytometry in 5 - 6 month old animals (*Eµ*-*TCL1*, n = 7; *Eµ*-*TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 8). Statistical analyses were performed with Student's t test, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.4.3 CXCR4 hyperactivation reduces survival in TCL1-driven leukemia

With major differences in lymphoproliferation observed in young healthy $E\mu$ -*TCL1;CXCR4*^{C1013G} mice compared to their littermates, the question arose whether this would also translate to an earlier onset of disease and reduced survival of mice. Thus, we observed a cohort of mice until presentation with symptoms of disease fulfilling the termination criteria and requiring euthanasia.

Analyzing the cohort, we found that CXCR4 activation accelerated development of Eµ-TCL1driven disease. Hence, demonstrating a collaboration of CXCR4 and TCL1 in lymphomagenesis. Enhanced CXCR4 activity reduced the median overall survival of *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* by approximately 100 days compared to their *Eµ-TCL1* littermates (Figure 12A).

Of important note, we furthermore observed a subgroup of $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice, which developed an enhanced nodal dissemination of CLL. These mice presented with pronounced lymphadenopathy, which in contrast was not observed in any of the $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice from this cohort (Figure 12B and C). When investigating the immunophenotype of these tumors, all

tumors in both biological groups expressed the same CD5+CD20+B220dim phenotype, which was already observed in the premalignant cohort, including those tumors with extensive lymphadenopathy. Furthermore, no changes in the grade of splenic infiltration with CD5+CD20+ tumor cells could be observed in those mice fulfilling the termination criteria (Figure 12D).

Also, similarly to the premalignant cohort, the immunophenotype and infiltration of tumors with T cells remained unchanged in mice with symptomatic indolent lympohoma / CLL-like disease requiring euthanasia, as indicated by a non-significant change of tumor infiltrating CD3e+ T cells (Figure 12D).

To quantify tumor burden further, as we observed massive hepatosplenomegaly, which is known to the *Eµ-TCL1* model, we measured the weight of the spleen and liver, when mice required euthanasia. When comparing *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* to *Eµ-TCL1* tumor mice, we could not discover a significant difference of tumor burden as measured by spleen and liver weight (Figure 12E).

Summarizing these data indicate CXCR4 hyperactivation induces a more rapid onset of Eµ-TCL1-driven disease without altering the CLL-like immunophenotype of the disease. Furthermore, a subgroup of *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice presented with a pronounced lymphadenopathy not seen in *Eµ-TCL1* mice, indicating CXCR4 hyperactivation may play a role in homing of tumor cells to nodal sites rather than the spleen.



Figure 12: CXCR4 hyperactivation reduces overall survival in TCL1-driven leukemia

(A) Kaplan-Meier survival curves of the indicated cohorts of mice ($E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 18; $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 22). Median survival and P value of log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test is shown. (B) Pie charts depicting fractions of animals with overt lymphadenopathy in $E\mu$ -TCL1 (n = 22) and $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice (n = 18). P value of Fisher's exact test is shown. (C) Representative images of spleen and lymphatic tissue of mice with symptomatic CLL requiring euthanasia of a $E\mu$ -TCL1 control and a $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ animal presenting with extensive lymphadenopathy. (D) Frequencies of spleen CD19+CD5+ and CD3e+ cells by flow cytometry in mice with symptomatic CLL requiring euthanasia ($E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 8; $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 8). (E) Spleen and liver weight of mice with symptomatic CLL requiring euthanasia ($E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 7; $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 9).

3.4.4 CXCR4 hyperactivation promotes a more infiltrative and extranodal pathology

As described above, contrary to the young cohort no differences in the grade of infiltration of tumor cells to bone marrow and spleen could be detected by means of flow cytometry. However, a subgroup of the *Eµ-TCL1,CXCR4^{C1013G}* cohort presented with an aggravated lymphadenopathy. Thus, we aimed to get a more detailed picture of the disease pattern of our clinically symptomatic mice by evaluating histopathology of diseased mice, too.

When comparing the histopathology of mice presenting with symptomatic CLL-like disease, both genotypes showed extensive infiltration of the red pulp, with complete atrophy of the white pulp in spleens. However, visually evaluated by an experienced hematopathologist (Prof. Leticia Quintanilla-Martinez, University of Tübingen), the bone marrow of $E\mu$ -*TCL1;CXCR4*^{C1013G} mice displayed a more diffuse infiltration pattern, in contrast to a more focal infiltration pattern in $E\mu$ -*TCL1* controls (Figure 13A, scores and quantification Figure 13B).

Interestingly when analyzing the tumor samples some mice exhibited additional features of aggressive transformation. E.g., tumors of 3 out of 7 *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice, morphologically resembled features of aggressive transformation of CLL to DLBCL-type Richter's transformation. In line with this, lymphoma cells of *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice were larger than typical *Eµ-TCL1* tumor cells, infiltrated surrounding muscle and adipose tissue and showed higher expression of the proliferation marker Ki67 (Figure 13C and D). Furthermore, 3 *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice presented with histiocytic sarcoma, a rare transformation of CLL cells to malignant histiocytes (Shao et al. 2011) (Figure 13E).

Summarizing these data show CXCR4 hyperactivation induces a more infiltrative phenotype and moreover promotes aggressive transformation of the CLL-like disease known from *the* $E\mu$ -*TCL1* mouse.



Figure 13: CXCR4 hyperactivation aggravates histopathological phenotype of TCL-driven leukemia

(A) Representative images of H&E and immunohistochemistry of $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ with manifest lymphoma (scale bars spleen: overview = 1mm, detailed images: 200µm, scale bars bone marrow: overview = 200µm, detailed images = 20µm). (B) Quantification of histology scores (1-3) of spleen ($E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 3; $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 7) and bone marrow ($E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 4; $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$, n = 6) of mice with symptomatic CLL requiring euthanasia. Scoring system details as indicated in the methods section. (C) Representative images of H&E and immunohistochemistry of a $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ animal presenting with Ki67 positive Richter-like aggressive lymphoma (scale bars: H&E overview = 200µm, H&E detailed image = 50µm, IHC detailed images = 100µm). (D) Representative images of aggressive lymphoma morphology in $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ animals compared to $E\mu$ -TCL1 animals with symptomatic CLL requiring euthanasia. (E) Representative images of histiocytic sarcoma in $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ animals. Statistical analyses were performed with Student's t test (b and c) or Mann-Whitney U test (d), *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.4.5 CXCR4 hyperactivation facilitates migration in B cells, especially in malignantly transformed B cells

To investigate whether the effects of CXCR4 hyperactivation on B cell leukemia and lymphoma development and dissemination are B cell-intrinsic, splenocytes of premalignant animals were isolated and assessed regarding their migratory capacity in response to CXCL12 *ex vivo*.

To this end we performed a migration assay in which cells were put into a chamber of medium lacking CXCL12, secluded to another chamber with CXCL12 rich medium by a membrane with slightly smaller pore size than the cells of interest. Hence those cells with a chemotaxis towards CXLCL12 would squeeze through the pores and were counted to determine the migratory potential. For this reason, we loaded all splenocytes and combined the migration with flow cytometry to be able to distinguish differences in the migration of subpopulations.

Strikingly CD19+CD5+ cells of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{C1013G} showed the highest migratory potential of all analyzed cells, with a significantly enhanced migratory potential compared to *WT*, $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ and *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+CD5+ cells. This is especially interesting as no increased migratory potential compared to $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ could be discovered in bulk splenocytes and CD5+ T cells, which again suggests a collaboration of TCL1 and CXCR4 B cell intrinsically (Figure 14).



Figure 14. B cells of *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice show a significantly greater migratory potential toward a CXCL12 gradient

Experimental setup and quantification for *ex vivo* transwell migration of all splenocytes, CD5+ T cells and CD19+CD5+ cells towards 50nM CXCL12 isolated from genotypes as indicated (*WT*, n = 6; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5; *Eµ-TCL1*, n = 6; *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6). Statistical analyses were performed with one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for multiple comparisons, * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.5 Hyperactivating CXCR4 signaling in MYC-driven lymphoma

3.5.1 CXCR4 expression is associated with poor outcomes in DLBCL

Having seen the effects hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling induced in Eµ-TCL1-driven CLL-like disease we wanted to evaluate whether these results were also transferable to aggressive lymphoma models and biology. Beforehand we analyzed published datasets of DLBCL, the most common aggressive B cell lymphoma (Reddy et al. 2017; Chapuy et al. 2018; Morin et al. 2013). These analyses confirmed that elevated CXCR4 expression correlates with adverse prognosis in a large data set of 420 DLBCL patients (Figure 15A). Furthermore, we investigated whether we could detect recurrent mutations in CXCR4, similar to those known from Waldenström's disease. To this end we analyzed public data banks of genetic mutations in tumors and were able to prove that recurrent *CXCR4* mutations are rare, but present, in DLBCL patients (Figure 15B).



Figure 15. CXCR4 expression is associated with poor outcomes and recurrently mutated in DLBCL patients. (**A**) Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of 420 DLBCL Patients stratified by CXCR4 mRNA expression of GSE10846 (Lenz et al. 2008), risk-group maximized and analyzed with SurvExpress (Aguirre-Gamboa et al. 2013). P value of log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test is shown. (**B**) Mutation frequency of CXCR4 in DLBCL patient datasets (TCGA, Firehose Legacy, n = 48; BCGSC, Blood 2013, n = 53; CDFCI, Nat Med 2018, n = 135; Duke, Cell 2017, n = 1001) (Morin et al. 2013; Chapuy et al. 2018; Reddy et al. 2017).

3.5.2 Rationale for choosing the *Eµ-Myc* model organism

We chose the *Eµ-Myc* model to study the role of CXCR4 hyperactivation in the context of aggressive B cell lymphoma. In this model the oncogene MYC is over expressed in B cells (Adams et al. 1985) (see also 1.4.1 and 2.2.2.2). Tumors develop very early in this model and somewhat reflect features of MYC-dependent B cell biology, as seen in DLBCL and Burkitt's lymphoma. Hence, to investigate hyperactive CXCR4 activity in MYC-driven lymphomagenesis as a model of aggressive B cell lymphoma in general, we intercrossed *CXCR4^{C1013G}* with *Eµ-Myc* mice (Figure 16).



Figure 16. Generation of the *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mouse model

Outline of breeding scheme of $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ and $E\mu$ -Myc mice to generate double-transgenic $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice.

3.5.3 Premalignant *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* exhibit more pronounced disease at a very early time point of 4 weeks

In contrast to $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice with a median survival of approximately one year, mice harboring the $E\mu$ -Myc transgene develop symptomatic disease beginning at a very young age of 6 - 8 weeks. Thus, as we again wanted to investigate the onset of disease, we decided to sacrifice 1-month-old mice which did not yet present with symptoms.

When analyzing blood samples from these young mice, we found similarly elevated white blood cell counts in $E\mu$ -Myc and $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ indicating an already present tumor development in both cohorts (Figure 17A). However, we could not detect significant differences between $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice and the $E\mu$ -Myc controls at one month of age.

In spite of no significant differences in white blood cell count, even at this very early time point, we could already discover increased spleen weights in $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice compared to age-matched $E\mu$ -Myc, WT and $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ controls (Figure 17B).

These findings were further supported by histopathology, as we observed that the spleens of $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice had a more pronounced infiltration of premalignant B cells with a more extensively disrupted architecture (Figure 17C, quantification Figure 17D) very early on.



Figure 17. Characterization of 4-week-old *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice.

(A) White blood cell count (WBC) of 4-week-old mice (*WT*, n = 7; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 14; *Eµ-Myc*, n = 6; *Eµ-Myc*; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (B) Spleen weight of 1 month old animals of genotypes as indicated (*WT*, n = 9; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 8; *Eµ-Myc*, n = 12; *Eµ-Myc*; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6). (C) Representative images of H&E and immunohistochemistry of 1 month old *Eµ-Myc* and *Eµ-Myc*; *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice (scale bars: overview = 1mm, detailed images: 20µm). (D) Quantification of histology scores (1-3) of spleen and liver from 4-week-old mice (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 4; *Eµ-Myc*; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6). Scorings system as indicated in the methods section.

3.5.4 CXCR4 hyperactivation does not reduce overall survival of $E\mu$ -Myc mice but induces a more infiltrative phenotype

We further investigated a cohort, which was kept until presentation of symptomatic disease. In these mice with manifest lymphoma, the $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ genotype was associated with a more aggressive infiltrative pathology, as seen in the $E\mu$ -TCL1 comparison. This could be demonstrated by significantly larger spleens and a higher bone marrow cell count in $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ (Figure 18A and B).

In the peripheral blood of both groups, we could see highly elevated white blood cell counts, attributed to leukemic lymphoma cells. However, similarly to the young 1-month-old mice we could not detect significant differences in the level of white blood cell counts between the two biological groups (Figure 18C).

Histopathology confirmed these findings and also fully in line with findings of the premalignant cohorts, $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice requiring euthanasia presented with a more aggravated splenic infiltration pattern which more extensively disrupted the physiological organ structure. Also, we could see a higher tendency towards extranodal disease, e.g. hepatic infiltration by lymphoma cells, further indicating a more invasive, extranodal phenotype of CXCR4 hyperactivated lymphoma, which we had also seen in the $E\mu$ -TCL1 comparison (Figure 18D and E).

Likewise, as seen in the *Eµ-TCL1* cohorts, hyperactivation of CXCR4 did not lead to a change of the immunophenotype of Eµ-Myc-driven lymphoma. In both groups we were able to detect tumors which were B220+IgM+ and such which were B220+IgM-, with no significant differences in the frequency between the two groups.

However, although $E\mu$ -Myc; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ displayed above mentioned features resembling a more aggressive lymphoma phenotype, median survival was not altered significantly when compared with $E\mu$ -Myc control mice (Figure 18D).

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500 400 - 300 -200 -100 -Εμ-Μyc Εμ-Myc;CXCR4^{c1013G}

Е

G

С



F



Figure 18. Characterization of *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice presenting with manifest lymphoma.

(A) Spleen weight of mice with manifest lymphoma (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 9; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 13). (B) Bone marrow cell count of mice with manifest lymphoma (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 5; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 7). (C) WBC of mice with manifest lymphoma (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 5; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 7). (C) WBC of mice with manifest lymphoma (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 5; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 14). (D) Representative images of H&E and immunohistochemistry of *Eµ-Myc* and *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice with manifest lymphoma (scale bars spleen: overview = 1mm, detailed images: 20µm, scale bars liver: overview = 1mm, detailed images = 20µm). (E) Quantification of histology scores (1-3) of spleen and liver from mice presenting with manifest lymphoma (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 6; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 6). Scorings system details as indicated in the methods section. (F) Representative images of immunophenotyping of animals with manifest lymphoma by flow cytometry showing B220 and IgM expression of lymphoma cells (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 7 *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 7). Fractions of animals with either IgM+ or IgM- phenotype are indicated in the pie charts. (G) Kaplan-Meier survival curves of the indicated cohorts of mice (*Eµ-Myc*, n = 15; *Eµ-Myc*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 17), median survival and P value of log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test are shown. Statistical analyses for (**A**), (**B**), (**C**) and (**E**) were performed with Student's t test, * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

Summarizing, these data show that CXCR4 expression leads to an increased susceptibility for extranodal disease, while not altering immunophenotype or survival in Eµ-Myc-driven aggressive B cell lymphoma.

3.6 Hyperactivated CXCR4 is a hallmark of aggressive lymphoma biology

3.6.1 CXCR4 Surface and transcript expression are regulated by MYC

As we saw phenotypical differences in both, the $E\mu$ -TCL1 and the $E\mu$ -Myc cohorts, but no survival differences in the $E\mu$ -Myc cohorts, in contrast to the clear difference in the $E\mu$ -TCL1 comparison, we aimed to investigate possible reasons for these differences.

Thus, in a first step flow cytometry-based measurement of CXCR4 surface expression on tumor cells of Myc- and TCL1-driven lymphoma and compared it to healthy B cells, which we gained from healthy *WT* control animals. Here we discovered a drastically increased CXCR4 expression in *Eµ-Myc* lymphoma cells in comparison to both *WT* but also *Eµ-TCL1* lymphoma cells. *Eµ-TCL1* lymphoma cells on the other hand showed a trend toward increased CXCR4 expression compared to *WT* controls, which was however not significant. (Figure 19A). As also 54

elaborated in the introduction, CXCR4 and MYC expression have been linked in a previous publication in DLBCL patients (Chen et al. 2015) (also refer to 1.4.2). Hence, an explanation for the seen effects could be that CXCR4 signaling is an inherent part of MYC-driven lymphoma. Therefor we sought to evaluate more data sets to further support this hypothesis and analyzed large publicly available B-NHL patient data sets. In two data sets, for a significant number of patients MYC-translocation status was available, which indeed correlated with CXCR4 mRNA expression (Figure 19B). In the same data sets and one additional one, we could moreover see a significant correlation of MYC mRNA and CXCR4 mRNA expression (Figure 19C). Taken together these data strongly indicate MYC enhances CXCR4 expression and CXCR4 signaling may be part of the MYC oncogenic program and therefor additional hyperactivation by CXCR4^{C1013G} may be masked by an already inherently increased CXCR4 activity in *Eµ-Myc* B cells.



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Figure 19. CXCR4 surface and transcript expression is regulated by MYC

(A) CXCR4 expression of tumors (Eµ-Myc, n = 8; Eµ-TCL1, n = 7) compared with healthy B cells from adult WT mice (n = 5), relative to isotype by flow cytometry. (B) Correlation of CXCR4 mRNA expression dependent of IG-MYC fusion status from the Hummel data set (GSE4475) (Hummel et al. 2006) (IG-MYC-fusion, n = 59; no IG-MYC-fusion n = 141, samples not annotated and samples with MYC translocations other than IG excluded) and the Reddy data set (Reddy et al. 2017) (IG-MYC-fusion, n = 12; no IG-MYC-fusion, n= 80). (C) Correlation of MYC mRNA and CXCR4 mRNA expression as log Z-scores relative to all samples in the MD Anderson Cancer Center data set (Ma et al. 2022) (n = 286), analyzed with cBioPortal (Cerami et al. 2012; de Bruijn et al. 2023; Gao et al. 2013), the Hummel data set (GSE4475) (Hummel et al. 2006) (n = 221) and the Reddy data set (Reddy et al. 2017) (n = 482).

Statistical analyses were performed with one-way ANOVA with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons (a), Student's t-test (b) and Pearson correlation (c), *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

3.6.2 CXCR4a signature enriches in Eµ-TCL;CXCR4^{C1013}

To underline our hypothesis that CXCR4 signaling may potentially be part of the Myc oncogenic program, we performed an additional RNA sequencing of purified lymphoma cells (CD19-directed magnetic bead separation) from $E\mu$ -Myc and $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} and $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} lymphoma cells. Here we could see that $E\mu$ -Myc and $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} lymphoma cells expressed a highly similar transcriptome dominated by a MYC signature, underscored by only 8 significantly differentially expressed pathways in a gene set enrichment analysis (Figure 20A, B and C). This was in clear difference to $E\mu$ -TCL1 vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} which will be outlined in detail in 3.7.

Thus, we performed a further enrichment analysis applying our CXCR4a signature of CXCR4 activation in B cells to $E\mu$ -Myc and $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} and $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} lymphoma cells. Here we saw that CXCR4a only enriched in the Eµ-TCL1 comparison but not in $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} vs. $E\mu$ -Myc lymphoma cells (Figure 20D). Hence, these data further support that MYC might positively regulate CXCR4 expression, which could explain why in fully developed Eµ-Myc-driven lymphoma no additional effects of CXCR4 hyperactivation by CXCR4^{C1013G} could be seen on a transcriptomic level.



Figure 20. CXCR4a signature enriches in *Eµ-TCL;CXCR4^{C1013G}* but not *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}*

(**A**) DEG in *Eµ-Myc* (n = 6) vs. *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* (n = 6). (**B**) GSEA for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) in *Eµ-Myc* vs. *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}*. (**C**) GSEA for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) in *Eµ-Myc* vs. *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}*. (**C**) GSEA for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) in *Eµ-Myc* vs. *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}*. (**C**) GSEA for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) in *Eµ-Myc* vs. *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* CD19+ B cells showing normalized enrichment scores (NES) P value (pval) and adjusted P value (padj). (**D**) GSEA showing CXCR4a enrichment in *Eµ-Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ-Myc*. (**E**) GSEA showing CXCR4a enrichment in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ-TCL1*. Figure generated in collaboration with H. Carlo Maurer.

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Summarizing our data, we conclude CXCR4 activation is an integrative hallmark of aggressive MYC-driven lymphoma. Therefore, we believe CXCR4^{C1013G} did not further induce a significant additional activation of CXCR4 downstream signaling activity and thus lymphoma latency and outcome, due to an already present activation via a MYC-CXCR4 axis.

3.7 The *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* oncogenic transcriptional program

Thus, to further investigate how enhanced CXCR4 activation promotes B cell lymphoproliferation *in vivo* we concentrated on the transcriptomic profile of the *Eµ*- $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ model, in which we observed a significant enrichment of the CXCR4a signature.

Hence, we isolated CD19+ B cells from spleen and bone marrow of 6-week-old $E\mu$ -TCL1 and $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice as well as respective controls and performed whole transcriptome profiling (Figure 21A).

In a first step we performed gene set enrichment analysis of curated pathways in *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, *Eµ-TCL1* and *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* compared to *WT* controls and observed an overlap of deregulated pathways among these biological groups (Figure 21B). Importantly to confirm the premalignant state of *Eµ-TCL1* B cells, we were able to show pathways associated with B cell cancer biology and inflammation were enriched and DNA repair pathways were depleted in *Eµ-TCL1* compared to *WT* B cells (Figure 21C).

Aside of overlapping pathways, we also observed some pathways which were enriched specifically in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* B cells (Figure 21B). Among those were pathways involved in cell cycle progression (PLK1 pathway, G2M checkpoint, cell cycle checkpoints). Concordantly, pathways including p53 signaling and apoptosis (P53 pathway, P53 dependent G1 DNA damage response, apoptosis) and immune response (interferon gamma response) were depleted in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* B cells (Figure 21B).

Additionally, we directly compared $E\mu$ -TCL1 with $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ B cells, to gain an understanding which transcriptomic changes were induced by additional CXCR4 siganling

within the Eµ-TCL1 oncogenic program and could possibly explain an accelerated lymphomagenesis and the phenotypic differences observed. Strikingly, we found the $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} B cell transcriptome was distinctly different compared to $E\mu$ -TCL1 B cells. In a gene set enrichment analysis, we could see an enrichment of cell cycle progression and proliferation pathways and depletion of p53-, apoptosis-, and immune response-related pathways (overwiew of selcted pathways in Figure 21D), fully in line with the clinical presentation of the mice. Analyzing expression of individual genes, we found 2140 differentially expressed genes between premalignant B cells from Eµ-TCL1 vs. Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice. These included cell cycle genes like cyclins (Ccne1), cyclin-dependent kinase phosphatases (Cdc25b), mitotic regulators (Aurkb, Prc1, Hdac6, Nek2, Mki67), DNA repair and DNA damage response genes (Brca2, Fanca, Rad54I), transcripts of well-established tumor suppressor genes (Klf6, CD82) and positive regulators of apoptosis (Pmaip1) (a clustered overview of selected genes is depicted in Figure 21E). Interestingly, when we had a look at the most differentially expressed genes, multiple key components of the Plk1-Foxm1 pathway (including Plk1 and Foxm1 itself), the Foxm1 target Cdc25b and the Foxm1 deubiquitinating enzyme Usp5 involved in stabilization of the Foxm1 protein (Li et al. 2017), and *Myb*, which forms a complex with Foxm1 and is required for its function, were discovered. To further validate our findings that CXCR4 hyperactivation potentiates oncogenic programs we aimed for a cross-species application of our murine data on a human data set. To this end we used the Cancer Gene Census data set (Sondka et al. 2018) and two large human B cell lymphoma datasets (Chapuy et al. 2018; Reddy et al. 2017). Hence, we calculated an overlap of the list of differentially expressed genes in $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1 B cells with the Cancer Gene Census data bank of known regulators of oncogenic pathways and found 112 genes which were significantly differentially expressed in Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} vs. Eµ-TCL1 B cells were known regulators of oncogenic pathways (Figure 21F). This was further confirmed when we applied the same list of genes to the data sets of known DLBCL drivers from two large patient cohorts (Figure 21G). In total we identified 10 DEGs which overlapped with both DLBCL datasets (outlined in Figure 21G) (Reddy et al. 2017; Chapuy et al. 2018).



Figure 21. Co-activation of CXCR4 and TCL1 governs a distinct oncogenic transcriptional program in B cells

(A) Outline of experimental setup for RNA sequencing of splenic and bone marrow premalignant B cells (*WT*, n = 5; *CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5; *Eµ-TCL1*, n = 5; *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5). (B) Venn diagram showing overlap of significantly enriched pathways (padj < 0.05) for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005) of indicated genotypes vs. WT B cells as determined by gene set enrichment analysis

(GSEA). (**C**) GSEA of *Eµ*-*TCL1* vs. *WT* CD19+ B cells showing normalized enrichment scores (NES) and false discovery rates (FDR) for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005). (**D**) GSEA of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+ B cells showing normalized enrichment scores (NES) and false discovery rates (FDR) for curated gene sets listed in MsigDB (Liberzon et al. 2011; Subramanian et al. 2005). (**E**) Selection of differentially expressed genes (DEG) with adjusted P value (padj) < 0.05 of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+ B cells. (**F**) Overlap of DEG with padj < 0.05 of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+ B cells. (**F**) Overlap of DEG with padj < 0.05 of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+ B cells with the Cancer Gene Census (CGC) (Sondka et al. 2018). (**G**) Overlap of DEG with padj < 0.05 of *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ*-*TCL1* CD19+ B cells with DLBCL drivers in patient datasets (Reddy et al. 2017; Chapuy et al. 2018). Figures C, D and E generated in collaboration with H. Carlo Maurer.

3.8 *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* B cells enrich a Richter's transformation signature

Having detected significant overlaps of the differentially expressed genes with patient data sets and as we observed some of our symptomatic $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice experienced morphological features of Richter's transformation, we aimed to evaluate if the transcriptional program of patients with Richter's transformation were in line with the transcriptomic changes induced by hyperactive CXCR4 signaling. For this matter, we generated a gene signature from a previously published CLL data set of patients with Richter's transformation (Klintman et al. 2020). Strikingly, this "Richter-signature" enriched significantly only in B cells of $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice, but not in $E\mu$ -TCL1 or $CXCR4^{C1013G}$. This illustrates key transcriptomic features of Richter's transformation are promoted cooperatively by CXCR4 hyperactivation and TCL1, in line with our histopathological data (Figure 22A and B).

To validate our transcriptomic data, we sought to exclude the presence of a monoclonal B cell proliferation in our purified B cell samples. To this end we performed transcriptome based clonality analysis as previously published (Shugay et al. 2015; Farmanbar, Kneller, and Firouzi 2019; Bolotin et al. 2015). Confirming our data, by this method we could rule out monoclonal B cell proliferation for both *Eµ*-*TCL1* and *Eµ*-*TCL1;CXCR4*^{*C1013G*} samples (Figure 23).

Summarizing our transcriptomic data provides further evidence that CXCR4 hyperactivation is associated with an aggravated tumor biology and induces a transcriptomic profile resembling features of Richter's' Transformation in cooperation with TCL1.







Figure 22. *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* B cells enrich a Richter's transformation signature generated from a human patient cohort

(A) GSEA showing enrichment of a Richter's transformation signature in *Eμ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *WT*, *Eμ-TCL1* vs. *WT* and *CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *WT* CD19+ B cells showing normalized enrichment scores (NES) and false discovery rates (FDR).
(B) GSEA showing enrichment of a Richter's transformation signature (Klintman et al. 2021) in *Eμ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* B cells. Figure generated in collaboration with H. Carlo Maurer.



Figure 23. Transcriptomic clonality analysis of purified B cells of young premalignant mice. Representative circos plots of V(D)J-rearrangement of CD19+ B cells of 6-week-old mice (*Eµ-TCL1*, n = 5; *Eµ-TCL1*;*CXCR4^{C1013G}*, n = 5; *WT*, n = 5). Figure generated in collaboration with M. Wirth.

3.9 CXCR4 induced oncogenic programs are associated with dismal clinical outcomes To further validate our CXCR4a signature and evaluate its applicability to humans, we aimed to apply it to clinical data. As we saw greatest effects in the Eµ-TCL1 comparison, which is an established model of indolent lymphoma and especially high-risk CLL-like disease, we collaborated with Thorsten Zenz and Junyan Lu and applied our signatures to data sets of CLL with available transcriptomics. Here we stratified patients using upregulated genes of the CXCR4a signature as well as a signature generated from $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1. We found that CXCR4a_high patients had significantly reduced treatment free intervals, which we termed time to treatment (TTT). Moreover, patients characterized by the $E\mu$ - *TCL1;CXCR4*^{C1013G} vs. *Eµ-TCL1* signature did not only have significantly reduced treatment free intervals but also reduced overall survival (Figure 24). This shows our data is transferable to clinical data and further supports our hypothesis that TCL1 and CXCR4 cooperatively accelerate lymphomagenesis and promote a more aggressive tumor biology.



Figure 24. Overall and treatment free survival curves of CLL patients stratified by CXCR4 induced oncogenic programs

Kaplan-Meier plots of overall survival (OS) and time to treatment (TTT) in a cohort of CLL patients, for patients with high vs. low enrichment of upregulated genes from CXCR4 signatures ($CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. WT and $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1) (TTT $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. WT, n = 105 high, n = 103 low; OS $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. WTand $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 105 in each group; TTT $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1, n = 104 in each group). P-values of log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test are shown. Figure generated in collaboration with Junyan Lu.
4 Discussion

B cell non-Hodgkin lymphomas are a biologically heterogeneous group of cancers, that rank within the top 10 of most common and most lethal types of cancer in the Western world (Thandra et al. 2021). By clinical presentation they can be separated into two groups reflecting their underlying biology – aggressive and indolent B-NHLs, with the most common forms for these subgroups being DLBCL and CLL, respectively.

Previous data has associated CXCR4 with dismal outcomes in many cancers (Zhao et al. 2015; Su et al. 2005; Speetjens et al. 2009; Muller et al. 2001; Scala et al. 2005), including aggressive and indolent B-NHL (Chen et al. 2015; Moreno et al. 2015). However, all the previously available data was retrospective, correlative, or *in vitro* and no *in vivo* data investigating the effects of aberrant CXCR4 signaling on the biology of B-NHLs existed.

Hence, in this study we modeled hyperactive CXCR4 signaling by co-expressing a truncated version of CXCX4 with impaired desensitization - $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ - in the well-established tumor models of aggressive (*Eµ-Myc*) and indolent B-NHL (*Eµ-TCL1*). Here, we initially investigated the effects hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling alone induced in B cells of healthy young mice and found a vast set of differentially regulated genes predisposing B cells for leukemogenesis. Furthermore, we demonstrated hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling functions as an oncogene cooperating with TCL1 to accelerate CLL progression and development of aggressive B cell lymphoma. Moreover, we show hyperactive CXCR4 signaling induces a more aggressive and invasive tumor phenotype. Additionally, we provide evidence suggesting CXCR4 may be a key factor of MYC-driven B cell lymphoma biology. And lastly, we demonstrated a distinct oncogenic transcriptomic program in *Eµ-TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}* vs. *Eµ-TCL1* tumor cells which when used on human data sets is associated with dismal outcomes in a human CLL cohort.

Hence, taken together the main accomplishments of this work, which will be elaborated in detail below are:

- CXCR4 functions as a crucial activator of oncogenic pathways in B cells and prones B cells for lymphomagenesis/leukemogenesis
- 2. CXCR4 and TCL1 cooperatively accelerate lymphomagenesis/leukemogenesis
- 3. CXCR4 may be an underlying hallmark of MYC-driven lymphoma
- 4. Hyperactive CXCR4 signaling aggravates tumor aggressiveness in B-NHL
- The CXCR4 hyperactivated tumor transcriptome is associated with dismal outcomes in CLL patients

4.1 CXCR4 is a crucial activator of multiple key oncogenic pathways in B cells and prones B cells for lymphomagenesis/leukemogenesis

CXCR4 is recurrently overexpressed in multiple cancers and associated with adverse outcomes (Zhao et al. 2015; Su et al. 2005; Speetjens et al. 2009; Muller et al. 2001; Scala et al. 2005). Additional to differential expression, recurrent mutations of CXCR4 are known, most importantly in Waldenström's macroglobulinemia, in which approximately a third of all patients harbor gain-of-function mutations of CXCR4 (Hunter et al. 2014). However, we demonstrated recurrent mutations are also to be found in DLBCL, even though they occur at a lower frequency. As mentioned, previous work focused on correlating elevated expression to clinical presentation and outcomes (Zhao et al. 2015; Su et al. 2005; Speetjens et al. 2009; Muller et al. 2001; Scala et al. 2005). However, gene / protein expression especially in the context of chemokine signaling not adequately reflects the complex biological processes within the cells (Busillo and Benovic 2007). We aimed to address this beforehand lack of *in vivo* data by utilizing the *CXCR4^{C1013G}* model and intercrossing it with established models of B cell lymphoma / leukemia.

Hence in a first step, we chose to validate our approach by stimulating healthy B cells of *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice with CXCL12 and show enhanced phosphorylation of CXCR4 downstream targets AKT and ERK (Scala 2015). As the experiment was performed *in vitro* on purified B cells, ruling out effects of the microenvironment, it proves a CXCL12 induced hyperactivation

of CXCR4 signaling specifically in B cells, which is underscored by a control group of CXCR4 inhibited B cells that show no changes in downstream activity, demonstrating this effect is dependent on binding of CXCL12 to CXCR4.

In a second step, we evaluated the effects this enhanced CXCR4 signaling in B cells had on the composition of different B cell compartments in clinically healthy mice. Here we found an expansion of B1 B cells, which is important to note, as from this B cell subset malignant transformation to CLL and mantle cell lymphoma has been reported (Dono, Cerruti, and Zupo 2004).

Lastly, we performed RNA-sequencing to study the transcriptomic changes hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling evokes on healthy B cells and show B lymphocytes of *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice render a vastly different transcriptomic profile than those of *WT* litter mates. As this transcriptomic program enriches curated pathway gene sets for chemokine signaling and inflammation it further demonstrates the applicability of *CXCR4^{C1013G}* as a model of hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling. Furthermore, as this enrichment is found in healthy B cells it suggests CXCR4 signaling might drive the B cell transcriptional program toward oncogenic processes.

Interestingly, as previously described, *CXCR4^{C1013G}* mice without addition of a further oncogenic transgene do not develop B cell malignancies (Balabanian et al. 2012). This indicates that while CXCR4 hyperactivation, as we also describe, fuels tumorigenesis in cooperation with TCL1 and hence acts as a co-driver in double transgenic mice, it does not exert enough oncogenic potential to initiate B cell malignancies alone. This may implicate that during the complex mechanisms ultimately leading to symptomatic B cell tumors, dysregulation of CXCR4 may be an additional factor contributing to malignant transformation with other oncogenes or aggravate tumor biology, when acquired later, as also described below (see 4.2. and 4.4).

Summarizing, hyperactivation of CXCR4 can be efficiently modelled by the CXCR4^{C1013G} model organism and induces a multitude of transcriptional alterations including several curated

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oncogenic gene sets in B cells, which also redistributes different B cell compartments and prones B cells for malignant transformation.

4.2 TCL1 and CXCR4 cooperatively accelerate lymphomagenesis/-progression

Mice harboring the Eµ-TCL1 transgene are known to steadily develop leukemic disease with presence of malignantly transformed CD19⁺CD5⁺ cells in peripheral blood and lymphatic organs way ahead of symptomatic disease (Bichi et al. 2002). Strikingly, after intercrossing $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ with $E\mu$ -TCL1 mice, we saw a dramatically accelerated lymphomagenesis and - progression with preservation of the TCL1-driven CD19⁺CD5⁺B220^{dim} tumor immunophenotype in double transgenic mice, which implicates a cooperative mechanism of CXCR4 and TCL1 in lymphomagenesis.

Importantly, when investigating the migratory potential of these cells, we could demonstrate that B cells of $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice additionally exhibited significantly increased migratory capacities. Noteworthy, the most significantly increased migratory capacity was seen in malignantly transformed CD19⁺CD5⁺ cells. This further indicates the cooperative effect of activated CXCR4 signaling and the Eµ-TCL1 transgene.

While it has previously been reported that the CXCR4-CXCL12 axis is crucial for CLL cells and their complex tumor microenvironment, especially in response to BTK inhibitors (e.g. ibrutinib) (Chen et al. 2016; Burger et al. 2000) it previously remained unclear how hyperactive CXCR4 signaling impacts the development of CLL *in vivo*. Thus, this work provides first *in vivo* evidence activated CXCR4 signaling accelerates B cell leukemogenesis in a murine model, which is most frequently used to model CLL / indolent lymphoma.

Even though with the approach used, in which mutant CXCR4^{C1013G} is expressed genomically including cells of the microenvironment, the outlined data indicates by several ways that the effects seen are most likely attributed to B cell intrinsic effects. E.g., as we showed, *CXCR4* gene expression is highest in B cells, and previous data revealed CXCR4 as a pivotal regulator of B cell development and function (Allen et al. 2004; Biajoux et al. 2016; Freitas et al. 2017;

Alouche et al. 2021). Furthermore, even *in vitro*, without support of the microenvironment, B cells with hyperactivated CXCR4 signaling and especially those transformed (CD19⁺CD5⁺) cells exhibited increased migration. Moreover, besides the effects seen on B cells, the absence of effects on the T cell compartment, which did not show any significant alterations and suggests an intact T cell response, underscores the perception that TCL1 and CXCR4 act as synergistic oncogenes specifically in B cells.

Taken together, our data demonstrates for the first time *in vivo* that CXCR4 acts as codriver of leukemogenesis in cooperation with TCL1 in B cells.

4.3 CXCR4 activation may be an integrative hallmark of MYC-driven lymphoma

As hyperactive CXCR4 signaling and TCL1 synergistically drive leukemogenesis, we aimed to validate our data in a model of aggressive B cell lymphoma and chose the well-established $E\mu$ -Myc model. However, unlike the observations made with $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice, $E\mu$ -Myc;CXCR4^{C1013G} mice did no exhibit similarly drastic changes. While premalignant mice exhibited significantly elevated WBCs and spleen weights, reflecting a more pronounced ongoing progression of tumorous disease, this did not translate to significant changes in survival.

Hence, we investigated possible explanations for the discrepancy regarding outcomes between the two models. We demonstrated elevated CXCR4 protein expression on Eµ-Mycdriven lymphoma cells by flow cytometry and showed increased CXCR4 transcript levels correlate with expression and oncogenic MYC mutations. It is noteworthy, that even though no B cell lymphoma specific data exist so far, some data shows MYC may bind and directly activate the CXCR4 promoter (Moriuchi et al. 1999). This is underscored by the transcriptomic data we evaluated from publicly available data sets, in which we demonstrate a correlation of MYC and CXCR4 expression, in B cell lymphoma patients (Ma et al. 2022; Hummel et al. 2006; Reddy et al. 2017; Cerami et al. 2012; de Bruijn et al. 2023; Gao et al. 2013). Additionally, an increase of CXCR4 expression was seen in patient samples with translocation of *MYC* further supporting a regulation of CXCR4 by MYC in a B cell oncogenic context.

Hence it seems probable that transformed B cells, with a MYC-oncogenic program mask CXCR4 induced effects, as these are at least partly also induced by the MYC oncogenic program itself. Thus, there might not be a relevant CXCR4 hyperactivation induced acceleration of exponential tumor growth in *Eµ-Myc* animals. However, further investigations in a different experimental approach might show additional effects and are needed to demonstrate our hypothesis directly.

4.4 Hyperactivation of CXCR4 leads to a more aggressive phenotype / biology

When evaluating the histopathology of the $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} cohort, we identified a subgroup of mice with a phenotypically more aggressive presentation of disease. These were characterized by aggravated extranodal disease and microscopic features of Richter's transformation. Strikingly, in accordance an enrichment of a patient derived "Richter-signature" enriched in the transcriptomic program of premalignant $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} B cells. This further indicates a B cell-specific influence of CXCR4 signaling towards a more aggressive lymphoma phenotype. Intriguingly, in CLL patients with Richter's transformation, mutations in regulatory elements of CXCR4 have recently been discovered (Klintman et al. 2020). As some data links active Akt signaling, a downstream target of CXCR4, to Richter's transformation (Kohlhaas et al. 2021), it seems plausible that Akt phosphorylation by hyperactivated CXCR4 may be a contributing factor for the aggressive lymphoma phenotype in our CXCR4 hyperactivation models, even though further investigations are needed to fully confirm this link. To date, CXCR4 gain-of-function mutations are best studied in Waldenström's Macroglobulinemia and cell lines derived from such patients, as CXCR4 gain-of-function mutations are present in approximately a third of all WM patients (Hunter et al. 2014). Hence, previous data on these CXCR4 hyperactivating mutations was generally generated from these already transformed tumor cells (Roccaro et al. 2014; Cao et al. 2015). Yet in this study we for the first time investigated these effects *in vivo* and demonstrated CXCR4 hyperactivation not only cooperates with the oncogene TCL1 but even aggravates tumor phenotype with some mice displaying forms of aggressive B cell lymphoma.

However, in line with known data from WM, RNA sequencing revealed elevated expression of *Prdm1* in premalignant B cells of *CXCR4^{C1013G}*. *Prdm1* is a known master regulator of plasma cell proliferation and differentiation, which was recently found pivotal for the survival and growth of WM cells by regulating EZH2 (Anderson et al. 2020; Morschhauser et al. 2020). This could be a potential link of activated CXCR4 signaling to a more aggressive proliferation in NHL and also serve as a possible target for a therapeutic approach, as there is a clinically approved EZH2 inhibitor (tazemetostat), which was recently FDA-approved for the treatment of inoperable epithelioid sarcoma following a phase II trial (Gounder et al. 2020). Similarly, tazemetostat has shown promising preliminary data in preclinical as well as phase I and phase II trials in indolent and aggressive B cell lymphoma (previously reviewed (Morin, Arthur, and Assouline 2021)).. However further data and experiments are needed to fully understand the interactions of hyperactivated CXCR4 Signaling, *Prdm1* and EZH2.

Moreover, our data shows the enrichment of multiple published data sets known to be associated with cancer in $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. WT mice but also in $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ vs. $E\mu$ -TCL1. In line we were able to show an enrichment of the CXCR4a signature in $E\mu$ - $TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G}$ premalignant B cells. Indicating this CXCR4a transcriptomic program is significant and drives tumor progression. Together this underscores a role of CXCR4 in transformation to malignant tumor cells and growth of these.

4.5 The CXCR4 hyperactivated tumor transcriptome is associated with dismal outcomes in CLL patients

As we observed a drastically reduced overall outcome in our $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice we sought to evaluate transferability to human cohorts. As described above we therein applied the transcriptomic data to a cohort of CLL patients. Both, the CXCR4a and the gene set derived

from $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} were associated with significantly reduced time to treatment and the $E\mu$ -TCL1;CXCR4^{C1013G} gene set even conferred with significantly reduced overall survival. When looking into the gene sets, CXCR4 and TCL1 combined was linked with transcriptional activation of the Foxm1-Plk1 axis and other proliferative pathways (Fu et al. 2008). Here, Pl3K and Akt could potentially be the critical link connecting CXCR4 and TCL1 signaling. In line with our immunoblotting data, showing Akt phosphorylation upon CXCR4 stimulation. This may result in inhibition of Foxo3 and consequently elevated Foxm1 activity as recently published (Wang et al. 2014; Yao, Fan, and Lam 2018).

Additionally, PI3K/Akt is known to phosphorylate PIk1 which engages in a feed-forward loop with Foxm1 (Kasahara et al. 2013). Both PIk1 and Foxm1 are promising therapeutic targets in B cell lymphoma (Uddin et al. 2012; Hassan, Alinari, and Byrd 2018). A phase I study of the PIk1-inhibitor BI 2536 demonstrated activity and safety in a population of highly pretreated patients with relapsed/refractory NHL (Vose et al. 2013). In line with this we found that Myb, a known oncogene is significantly overexpressed in B cells of $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice compared to their $E\mu$ -TCL1 littermates. Importantly Myb is pivotal for Foxm1 signaling as it is recruitment of Foxm1 to late gene promotors in the cell cycle (Sadasivam, Duan, and DeCaprio 2012; Fischer et al. 2016). Additionally, Myb-Foxm1 interaction is essential for germinal center proliferation, a site prone for malignant transformation of B cells (Lefebvre et al. 2010).

Taken together, we demonstrate that transcriptomic profiles of CXCR4 hyperactivation are associated with dismal prognosis in human cohorts of CLL. We illustrate that PI3K/AKT-Signaling and downstream mediators may be the crosslink of TCL1 and CXCR4. However, further investigations are needed to confirm these findings specifically.

4.6 Limitations of this study and our model

For most the biggest limitation of this study represents the ubiquitous expression of the CXCR4^{C1013G} truncated receptor, including the cells of the tumor microenvironment. Therefore, an acceleration of lymphoma development partially mediated by activated CXCR4 signaling in

T cells or other cell types of the tumor microenvironment known to express CXCR4 cannot safely be ruled out. However, we demonstrated in multiple aspects that the effects are attributable to B cell expression: a) We were able to enrich a CXCR4a signature derived from purified B cells, which we could show to also be enriched in purified B cells of our double transgenic $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice; b) Histologically altered B cell morphology by CXCR4 hyperactivation; and c) Especially the migration experiments, in which the microenvironment was not present and CD19+CD5+ cells migrated most strongly, underline these findings. However, further experiments, e.g. in a transplantation approach would be needed to fully rule out effects of the tumor microenvironment on the data presented.

Further, as with all studies on model organisms, data may not be fully transferable to humans. Yet, we show a cross-species validation, as $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ tumors enrich a transcriptomic signature generated from human samples of patients with Richter's transformation. Furthermore, we demonstrate that our transcriptomic CXCR4a signature is associated with dismal outcomes in a large cohort of CLL patients and moreover this is also the case for a signature derived from $E\mu$ -TCL1; $CXCR4^{C1013G}$ mice. Together these data indicate that the mechanisms are very likely transferable from our murine model organisms to humans.

5 Summary

Aberrant CXCR4 signaling has been linked to more aggressive presentation in B cell lymphomas, yet no previous in vivo data existed. Here, we crossbred a murine model of hyperactive CXCR4 signaling ($CXCR4^{C1013G}$) to established models of B cell lymphoma ($E\mu$ -Myc / $E\mu$ -TCL1) and identified CXCR4 as a crucial activator of multiple key oncogenic pathways. Furthermore, CXCR4 hyperactivation cooperatively accelerates tumorigenesis, promotes migration, and induces a more extranodal phenotype in Eµ-TCL1 driven lymphoma.

6 References

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7 Supplemental tables

| Gene | Direction | Chromosome | Ensembl | Uniprot |
|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------------|---------|
| CRABP2 | ир | 1 | ENSG00000143320 | P29373 |
| CTSE | up | 1 | ENSG00000196188 | P14091 |
| JCHAIN | ир | 4 | ENSG00000132465 | P01591 |
| CHST1 | ир | 11 | ENSG00000175264 | O43916 |
| RBM24 | ир | 6 | ENSG00000112183 | Q9BX46 |
| TMEM132E | ир | 17 | ENSG00000181291 | Q6IEE7 |
| IGLL1 | ир | 22 | ENSG00000128322 | P15814 |
| IGLL5 | up | 22 | ENSG00000254709 | B9A064 |
| FRAS1 | up | 4 | ENSG00000138759 | Q86XX4 |
| DNTT | up | 10 | ENSG00000107447 | P04053 |
| HID1 | up | 17 | ENSG00000167861 | Q8IV36 |
| SERTAD4 | up | 1 | ENSG0000082497 | Q9NUC0 |
| SLFN12L | up | 17 | ENSG00000205045 | Q6IEE8 |
| RAG2 | up | 11 | ENSG00000175097 | P55895 |
| TMPRSS3 | up | 21 | ENSG00000160183 | P57727 |
| FCRL6 | up | 1 | ENSG00000181036 | Q6DN72 |
| RAG1 | up | 11 | ENSG00000166349 | P15918 |
| SLC12A3 | up | 16 | ENSG0000070915 | P55017 |
| P2RX3 | up | 11 | ENSG00000109991 | P56373 |
| SERPINF1 | up | 17 | ENSG00000132386 | P36955 |
| ANKLE1 | up | 19 | ENSG00000160117 | Q8NAG6 |
| DERL3 | up | 22 | ENSG0000099958 | Q96Q80 |
| DRC7 | up | 16 | ENSG00000159625 | Q8IY82 |
| KIAA1217 | up | 10 | ENSG00000120549 | Q5T5P2 |
| KIAA1211L | up | 2 | ENSG00000196872 | Q6NV74 |
| ARPP21 | up | 3 | ENSG00000172995 | Q9UBL0 |
| VPREB1 | up | 22 | ENSG00000169575 | P12018 |
| ADGRG3 | up | 16 | ENSG00000182885 | Q86Y34 |
| ADAMTSL4 | up | 1 | ENSG00000143382 | Q6UY14 |
| RHBDL1 | up | 16 | ENSG00000103269 | O75783 |
| SMTNL2 | up | 17 | ENSG00000188176 | Q2TAL5 |
| RAP1GAP | up | 1 | ENSG0000076864 | P47736 |
| RBM47 | up | 4 | ENSG00000163694 | A0AV96 |
| ADCY6 | up | 12 | ENSG00000174233 | O43306 |
| CAMK1G | up | 1 | ENSG0000008118 | Q96NX5 |
| EPS8L2 | up | 11 | ENSG00000177106 | Q9H6S3 |
| CACNA1H | up | 16 | ENSG00000196557 | O95180 |
| DDC | up | 7 | ENSG00000132437 | P20711 |
| GPR12 | up | 13 | ENSG00000132975 | P47775 |
| UCHL1 | up | 4 | ENSG00000154277 | P09936 |

| RSPH1 | ир | 21 | ENSG00000160188 | Q8WYR4 |
|----------|------|----|-----------------|--------|
| RGS16 | up | 1 | ENSG00000143333 | O15492 |
| GAS7 | up | 17 | ENSG0000007237 | O60861 |
| COL5A3 | up | 19 | ENSG0000080573 | P25940 |
| ACKR2 | up | 3 | ENSG00000144648 | O00590 |
| CACNA2D1 | ир | 7 | ENSG00000153956 | P54289 |
| C6orf222 | ир | 6 | ENSG00000189325 | P0C671 |
| NAV2 | up | 11 | ENSG00000166833 | Q8IVL1 |
| RELN | ир | 7 | ENSG00000189056 | P78509 |
| LRRC10B | ир | 11 | ENSG00000204950 | A6NIK2 |
| EPHA2 | ир | 1 | ENSG00000142627 | P29317 |
| SAPCD2 | ир | 9 | ENSG00000186193 | Q86UD0 |
| RSPH9 | ир | 6 | ENSG00000172426 | Q9H1X1 |
| TRIM2 | ир | 4 | ENSG00000109654 | Q9C040 |
| SLC39A4 | ир | 8 | ENSG00000147804 | Q6P5W5 |
| PBX4 | ир | 19 | ENSG00000105717 | Q9BYU1 |
| ESPL1 | ир | 12 | ENSG00000135476 | Q14674 |
| HEYL | up | 1 | ENSG00000163909 | Q9NQ87 |
| SPAG5 | ир | 17 | ENSG0000076382 | Q96R06 |
| GFRA1 | up | 10 | ENSG00000151892 | P56159 |
| SSPN | ир | 12 | ENSG00000123096 | Q14714 |
| LMO7 | up | 13 | ENSG00000136153 | Q8WWI1 |
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| IGFBP7 | down | 4 | ENSG00000163453 | Q16270 |
| CXCL12 | down | 10 | ENSG00000107562 | P48061 |
| SPARC | down | 5 | ENSG00000113140 | P09486 |
| KDR | down | 4 | ENSG00000128052 | P35968 |
| SERPINH1 | down | 11 | ENSG00000149257 | P50454 |
| PLVAP | down | 19 | ENSG00000130300 | Q9BX97 |
| BGN | down | Х | ENSG00000182492 | P21810 |
| CLU | down | 8 | ENSG00000120885 | P10909 |
| GAS6 | down | 13 | ENSG00000183087 | Q14393 |
| SLC40A1 | down | 2 | ENSG00000138449 | Q9NP59 |
| STAB2 | down | 12 | ENSG00000136011 | Q8WWQ8 |
| CCR3 | down | 3 | ENSG00000183625 | P51677 |
| COL14A1 | down | 8 | ENSG00000187955 | Q05707 |
| KCNJ10 | down | 1 | ENSG00000177807 | P78508 |
| EPAS1 | down | 2 | ENSG00000116016 | Q99814 |
| CD63 | down | 12 | ENSG00000135404 | P08962 |
| COL1A2 | down | 7 | ENSG00000164692 | P08123 |
| CD5L | down | 1 | ENSG0000073754 | O43866 |
| HPGD | down | 4 | ENSG00000164120 | P15428 |
| AXL | down | 19 | ENSG00000167601 | P30530 |

| 1 | | | | | I |
|---|----------|-------|------|-----------------|--------|
| | COL4A2 | down | 13 | ENSG00000134871 | P08572 |
| | VCAM1 | down | 1 | ENSG00000162692 | P19320 |
| | SERPING1 | down | 11 | ENSG00000149131 | P05155 |
| | SLC11A1 | down | 2 | ENSG0000018280 | P49279 |
| | CD163 | down | 12 | ENSG00000177575 | Q86VB7 |
| | TIMD4 | down | 5 | ENSG00000145850 | Q96H15 |
| | COL4A1 | down | 13 | ENSG00000187498 | P02462 |
| | CADM1 | down | 11 | ENSG00000182985 | Q9BY67 |
| | NAV1 | down | 1 | ENSG00000134369 | Q8NEY1 |
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| | ADGRF5 | down | 6 | ENSG0000069122 | Q8IZF2 |
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| | HMOX1 | down | 22 | ENSG00000100292 | P09601 |
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| | MERTK | down | 2 | ENSG00000153208 | Q12866 |
| | ADGRE1 | down | 19 | ENSG00000174837 | Q14246 |
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| | C1QB | down | 1 | ENSG00000173369 | P02746 |
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| | CLEC4A | down | 12 | ENSG00000111729 | Q9UMR7 |
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| ļ | SLC7A8 | down | 14 | ENSG0000092068 | Q9UHI5 |
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| ļ | APP | down | 21 | ENSG00000142192 | P05067 |
| ľ | C1QA | down | 1 | ENSG00000173372 | P02745 |
| ľ | CD300C | down | 17 | ENSG00000167850 | Q08708 |
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| CLN8 | down | 8 | ENSG00000182372 | Q9UBY8 |
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| GPX3 | down | 5 | ENSG00000211445 | P22352 |
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| C6 | down | 5 | ENSG0000039537 | P13671 |
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| CD68 | down | 17 | ENSG00000129226 | P34810 |
| AIF1 | down | 6 | ENSG00000204472 | P55008 |
| PTGS1 | down | 9 | ENSG0000095303 | P23219 |
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| TGFBI | down | 5 | ENSG00000120708 | Q15582 |
| APOE | down | 19 | ENSG00000130203 | P02649 |
| BASP1 | down | 5 | ENSG00000176788 | P80723 |
| SQLE | down | 8 | ENSG00000104549 | Q14534 |
| P2RY13 | down | 3 | ENSG00000181631 | Q9BPV8 |
| | | | | |

Supplemental Table 1. The CXCR4a gene set of hyperactivated CXCR signaling in murine B cells

List of genes significantly up-/downregulated in B cells DEGs (protein coding, $p_{adj} < 0.05$; logFC > 0.5 or < -0.5), compared to *WT* controls including as well as well as designation whether they were up- or downregulated, location on which chromosome and Ensembl and Uniprot identification codes.

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Table 2: All antibodies used for immunohistochemistry in this study

Table 3 All antibodies used for immunoblotting in this study

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11 List of Publications

11.1 Articles in peer-reviewed journals

Lewis RI, Seuthe K, Lennartz S, Weber JP, Kreuzberg N, Klingel K, Bröckelmann PJ. *Case Report: Sudden very late-onset near fatal PD1 inhibitor-associated myocarditis with out-ofhospital cardiac arrest after >2.5 years of pembrolizumab treatment.* Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine (2024)

Heger JM, Mattlener J, Schneider J, Gödel P, Sieg N, Ullrich F, <u>Lewis R</u>, Bucaciuc-Mracica T, Schwarz RF, Rueß D, Ruge MI, Montesinos-Rongen M, Deckert M, Blau T, Kutsch N, Balke-Want H, Weiss J, Becker K, Reinhardt HC, Hallek M, Borchmann P, von Tresckow B, Borchmann S. *Entirely noninvasive outcome prediction in central nervous system lymphomas using circulating tumor DNA*. **Blood 8;143(6):522-534 (2024)**

Schick M, Zhang L, Maurer S, Maurer C, Isaakidis K, Schneider L, Schunck K, Rohleder E, Hofstetter J, Baluapuri A, Schergern AK, Slotta-Huspenina J, Weber J, Engleitner T, Maresch R, Slawska J, <u>Lewis R</u>, Istvanffy R, Habringer S, Steiger K, Baiker A, Oostendorp R, Miething C, Lenhof H-P, Bassermann F, Chapuy B, Wirth M, Wolf E, Rad R, Müller S, Keller U. *Actionable genetic alterations of the SUMO isopeptidase SENP6 drive lymphomagenesis and genetic instability in diffuse large B-cell lymphoma*. Nature Communications 13, 281 (2022)

Lewis R, Habringer S, Kircher M, Hefter M, Peuker CA, Werner RA, Ademaj-Kospiri V, Gäble A, Weber W, Wester H-J, Buck A, Herhaus P, Lapa C, Keller U, *Investigation of spleen CXCR4* expression by [⁶⁸Ga]Pentixafor PET in a cohort of 145 solid cancer patients. EJNMMI Research 11, 77 (2021)

Lewis R, Maurer HC, Singh N, Gonzalez-Menendez I, Wirth M, Schick M, Zhang L, Isaakidis K, Scherger AK, Schulze V, Lu J, Zenz T, Steiger K, Rad R, Quintanilla-Martinez L, Espeli M, Balabanian K, Keller U*, Habringer S*. *CXCR4 hyperactivation cooperates with TCL1 in CLL development and aggressiveness.* Leukemia 35 2895-2905 (2021)

O'Connor T, Zhou X, Kosla J, Adili A, Garcia Beccaria M, Kotsiliti E, Pfister D, Johlke AL, Sinha A, Sankowski R, Schick M, <u>Lewis R</u>, Dokalis N, Seubert B, Höchst B, Inverso D, Heide D, Zhang W, Weihrich P, Manske K, Wohlleber D, Anton M, Hoellein A, Seleznik G, Bremer J, Bleul S, Augustin HG, Scherer F, Koedel U, Weber A, Protzer U, Förster R, Wirth T, Aguzzi A,

Meissner F, Prinz M, Baumann B, Höpken UE, Knolle PA, von Baumgarten L, Keller U, Heikenwalder M. *Age-Related Gliosis Promotes Central Nervous System Lymphoma through CCL19-Mediated Tumor Cell Retention*. **Cancer Cell 2019 Sep 16;36(3)**

11.2 Conference Contributions

Wendler J, Heger JM, Kutilina A, Knott M, <u>Lewis R</u>, Isbell LK, Valk E, Borchmann P, Schorb E, Illerhaus G. *Pre-phase treatment with rituximab and high-dose methotrexate (R-MTX) in primary and secondary central nervous system lymphoma - a retrospective multicentre study to evaluate feasibility, tolerability and efficacy in routine care. Jahrestagung der DGHO 2023, Hamburg (Poster)*

Heger JM, Mattlener J, Gödel P, Balke-Want H, Sieg N, Kutsch N, <u>Lewis R</u>, Ullrich F, Schwarz RF, Becker K, Weiss J, Reinhardt HC, Hallek M, Borchmann P, von Tresckow B, Borchmann S. *Peripheral blood ctDNA-sequencing enables prediction of outcomes in patients with primary central nervous system lymphoma using a dynamic risk model*. **EHA 2023 Frankfurt (Poster)**

Lewis R, Habringer S, Peuker CA, Ademaj-Kospiri V, Hefter M, Weber W, Buck A, Herhaus P, Lapa C, Keller U, *Investigation of spleen CXCR4 expression by [*⁶⁸Ga]Pentixafor PET in a cohort of 145 solid cancer patients **Jahrestagung der DGHO 2021, Berlin (Poster)**

Lewis R, Habringer S, Singh N, Keller U. Aktiviertes CXCR4 Signaling akzeleriert TCL-1 getriebene Lymphomagenese / Activated CXCR4 signaling accelerates TCL-1 driven lymphomagenesis. Jahrestagung der DGHO 2019, Berlin (Presentation)

12 Curriculum Vitae

The curriculum vitae has been removed from the publication for reasons of personal data protection as to TUM guidelines.