

# **Bidirectional Akt and Notch1 signaling triggers CLL toward Richter's Transformation**

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**Vivien Kohlhaas**

aus Witten

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Direktor: Prof. Dr. Jens C. Brüning

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# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	Classification of Blood Cancer . . . . .	1
1.1.1	Leukemia . . . . .	2
1.2	Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL) . . . . .	3
1.2.1	Pathogenesis of CLL . . . . .	3
1.2.2	Richter's Transformation (RT) . . . . .	5
1.2.3	Prognostic Indicators and Risk Factors of CLL and RT . . . . .	5
1.2.4	Tumor Microenvironment (TME) as Supportive Structure in CLL and RT . . . . .	7
1.2.5	E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Transgenic Mouse Model for CLL Investigations . . . . .	9
1.3	B Cell Receptor (BCR) Signaling . . . . .	11
1.3.1	AKT Kinase as Key Regulator in Mature and Malignant B Cells . . . . .	11
1.4	NOTCH Signaling . . . . .	14
1.4.1	NOTCH Signaling in Mature and Malignant B Cells . . . . .	15
1.5	Objective . . . . .	16
<b>2</b>	<b>Materials and Methods</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1	Chemicals & Materials . . . . .	17
2.1.1	Consumables . . . . .	17
2.1.2	Kits . . . . .	21
2.2	Patient Ethics . . . . .	21
2.3	Animal Care and Breeding . . . . .	22
2.3.1	Animal Ethics and Housing . . . . .	22
2.3.2	Animal Breeding . . . . .	22
2.4	Organ Collection and Cell Preparation . . . . .	23



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2.4.1	Dissection of Organs . . . . .	23
2.4.2	Isolation of Primary Murine Cells and Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells . . . . .	24
2.4.3	Magnetic Cell Sorting (MACS) Technology . . . . .	25
2.5	DNA and RNA Analysis . . . . .	26
2.5.1	Isolation of DNA and Genotyping . . . . .	26
2.5.1.1	DNA Isolation . . . . .	26
2.5.1.2	Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) . . . . .	26
2.5.2	RNA Isolation and Analysis of Gene Expression . . . . .	28
2.5.2.1	RNA Isolation . . . . .	28
2.5.2.2	cDNA Synthesis . . . . .	29
2.5.2.3	Quantitative Real-Time PCR (qPCR) . . . . .	30
2.6	Protein Analysis . . . . .	31
2.6.1	Flow Cytometry . . . . .	31
2.6.1.1	Staining of Extracellular Proteins . . . . .	31
2.6.1.2	Staining of Intracellular Proteins . . . . .	32
2.6.2	Western Blot Analysis . . . . .	34
2.6.2.1	Protein Isolation . . . . .	34
2.6.2.2	SDS Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot . . . . .	35
2.6.3	Proteomics and Phosphoproteomics . . . . .	36
2.7	Immunohistochemical and Immunofluorescent Staining . . . . .	38
2.7.1	H&E Staining . . . . .	38
2.7.2	Immunofluorescent Staining . . . . .	38
2.8	Statistical Analysis . . . . .	39

<b>3</b>	<b>Results</b>	<b>40</b>
3.1	Human RT Biopsies Display Overactivated AKT . . . . .	40
3.2	B Cell-Specific <i>Akt-C</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Transgenic CLL Mice Drives RT . . . . .	42
3.2.1	Generation of the E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> CLL Mouse Model with B Cell-Specific <i>Akt-C</i> Expression . . . . .	42
3.2.2	B Cell-Specific <i>Akt-C</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Transgenic CLL Mice Causes a Decreased Survival Capacity . . . . .	44
3.2.3	B Cell-Specific <i>Akt-C</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Transgenic CLL Mice Drives RT . . . . .	46
3.2.4	(Phospho)proteomic Profiling Identifies Overexpression of <i>s100a4</i> and Reduction of <i>Pcdc10</i> , Regulated by Rbpj/Notch . . . . .	50
3.2.5	<i>Akt-C</i> Expression in RT Cells Results in Overactivation of the Notch1 Signaling . . . . .	57
3.2.6	Splenic, Regulatory T cells Induce Overactivation of Notch1 Signaling in RT Cells by Presenting Dll1 Ligand . . . . .	59
3.3	B Cell-Specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Transgenic CLL Mice Empowers the Transformation to RT . . . . .	64
3.3.1	B Cell-Specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> Expression Drives RT in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Mice	64
3.3.2	B Cell-Specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Mice Drives RT Independent of the Splenic TME . . . . .	70
3.3.3	B Cell-Specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> Expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> Mice Causes Overactivated Akt . . . . .	72
<b>4</b>	<b>Discussion</b>	<b>74</b>

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4.1	Active Akt Induces the Progression from CLL to RT by Overactivation of the Canonical Notch1 Signaling . . . . .	75
4.1.1	Active Akt Drives the Transformation from CLL to RT . . . . .	75
4.1.2	Akt Promotes the Activation of the Notch1 Proto-oncogene in RT . . . . .	77
4.1.3	Regulatory T Cells Promote RT by Presenting Notch1 Ligands on the Cell Surface . . . . .	78
4.2	The Active, Intracellular Domain of Notch1 Initiates RT Independent of the Splenic TME . . . . .	81
4.2.1	Active Notch1 Drives the Transformation from CLL to RT . . . . .	81
4.2.2	Notch1 Acts as a Pivotal Upstream Oncogene of Akt during RT . . . . .	82
4.2.3	Active Notch1 Drives RT Independent of the Splenic TME . . . . .	83
4.3	Conclusions . . . . .	83
<b>5</b>	<b>References</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Danksagung</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Versicherung</b>	<b>113</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>Curriculum vitae</b>	<b>114</b>

## List of Figures

1.1	Types and distribution of blood cancer. . . . .	2
1.2	CLL pathogenesis and involved somatic mutations. . . . .	4
1.3	RT-associated somatic aberrations. . . . .	7
1.4	Tumor microenvironmental cells involved in CLL. . . . .	8
1.5	Overview of mouse models for CLL investigations based on E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> transgenic mice. . . . .	10
1.6	Downstream actions of AKT kinase in B cells. . . . .	12
1.7	NOTCH signaling. . . . .	14
2.1	Gating strategy for flow cytometry experiments with extracellular staining.	32
2.2	Gating strategy for flow cytometry experiments with intracellular staining.	34
3.1	Active AKT in human RT tumor biopsies with <i>Notch1</i> or <i>TP53</i> mutations.	41
3.2	Validation of the Akt-C construct expressed in B cells. . . . .	43
3.3	B cell-specific <i>Akt-C</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice promotes progressive CLL. . . . .	45
3.4	B cell-specific <i>Akt-C</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice causes cancer cell en- largement. . . . .	46
3.5	B cell-specific <i>Akt-C</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice drives the progression to RT. . . . .	47
3.6	B cell-specific <i>Akt-C</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice demonstrates high pro- liferative capacity. . . . .	48
3.7	Akt-induced RT cells genetically demonstrate an intermediary form be- tween CLL and DLBCL. . . . .	49
3.8	Akt-induced RT cells reveal the enrichment of activating phosphorylation of proteins involved in cell cycle processes. . . . .	51

3.9 Proteomics and Phosphoproteomics identify changes for S100a4, Mecp2, and Pdc10, related to the Notch1 signaling. . . . .	53
3.10 Rbpj/Notch1-regulated transcriptional changes of <i>Pdc10</i> and <i>s100a4</i> in Akt-initiated RT cells. . . . .	55
3.11 Unaffected p53 activity in Akt-induced RT cells. . . . .	56
3.12 Overactivation of the Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT cells. . . . .	58
3.13 Aberrant Dll1 on splenic T cells stimulates Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT. . . . .	60
3.14 Cell expansion and aberrant Dll1 ligand on splenic, regulatory T cells stimulate Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT. . . . .	62
3.15 Validation of the Notch1-IC construct expressed in B cells. . . . .	65
3.16 B cell-specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice initiates CLL with a similar progression but a later outcome than in the Akt-induced RT mouse model. . . . .	66
3.17 B cell-specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice promotes enlarged cancer cells. . . . .	67
3.18 B cell-specific <i>Notch1-IC</i> expression in E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice initiates RT. . . .	68
3.19 Notch1-activated E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice display high proliferative capacity. . . .	69
3.20 Notch1-activated E $\mu$ - <i>TCL1</i> mice develop RT independent of the splenic TME. . . . .	71
3.21 Enhanced expression and activation of Akt in Notch1-induced RT cells.	73
4.1 Bidirectional overactivation of Akt and Notch1 in <i>TCL1</i> -overexpressed CLL promotes RT. . . . .	84

## List of Tables

1	Consumables and their suppliers. . . . .	20
2	Kits and their suppliers. . . . .	21
3	Buffer used for tissue fixation. . . . .	24
4	Buffer used for cell preparation. . . . .	24
5	Gene-specific primer sequences (5'-3') for genotyping. . . . .	27
6	PCR protocols. . . . .	27
7	Buffer and mastermix used for DNA isolation and PCR. . . . .	28
8	Mastermix used for cDNA synthesis. . . . .	29
9	Mastermix used for qPCR. . . . .	30
10	qPCR probes of gene of interest and reference gene. . . . .	30
11	Antibodies used for extracellular staining analyzed by flow cytometry. . . . .	31
12	Antibodies used for intracellular staining analyzed by flow cytometry. . . . .	33
13	Antibodies used for Western blot analysis. . . . .	35
14	Buffer used for Western blot analysis. . . . .	36
15	Buffer used for proteomics and phosphoproteomics. . . . .	37
16	Antibodies used for immunofluorescent staining. . . . .	39

## List of Abbreviations

ABC	activated B cell
ACN	Acetonitrile
ADAM	A disintegrin and metalloproteinase
AF594,647	AlexaFluor 594, 647
ALL	Acute lymphocytic leukemia
AML	Acute myeloid leukemia
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
APC	Allophycocyanin
APS	Ammonium persulfate
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
BAX	BCL2-associated X protein
BBC3	BCL2 Binding Component 3
BCA	Bicinchoninic acid
BCL2	B cell lymphoma 2
BCR	B cell receptor
bp	Base pair
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
BTK	Bruton's tyrosine kinase
BV421	Brilliant Violet 421
CAG	Chicken $\beta$ -actin promoter coupled to the CMV enhancer
CCL3,4,22	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 3,4,22
CD	Cluster of differentiation
CDK4	Cyclin-dependent kinase 4
CDKN1/2A	Cyclin Dependent Kinase Inhibitor 1/2A

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CLL	Chronic lymphocytic leukemia
CML	Chronic myeloid leukemia
Cy5, Cy7	Cyanine5, Cyanine7
Cre	Recombinase from phage P1
C <sub>T</sub>	Cycle threshold
DAPI	4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
DEPC	Diethyl pyrocarbonate
DLBCL	Diffuse large B cell lymphoma
DLEU2	Deleted in lymphocytic leukemia 1
DLL	Delta-like protein
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
cDNA	Complementary DNA
gDNA	Genomic DNA
E <sub>μ</sub>	<i>IGHV</i> promoter and <i>IGH</i> enhancer
ECL	Enhanced chemiluminescence
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
FACS	Fluorescence activated cell sorting
FDC	Follicular dendritic cell
FDR	False discovery rate
FCS	Fetal calf serum
FISH	Fluorescence in situ hybridization
FOXO1	Forkhead box protein O1
FSC	Forward scatter
GEP	Gene expression profiling
GFP	Green fluorescent protein
GO	Gene ontology
GSI	γ-secretase inhibitor
GSK3b	Glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta



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h	Hour
ddH <sub>2</sub> O	double-distilled water
H&E	Hematoxylin and Eosin
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Hydrogen peroxide
HES	Hairy enhancer of split
HEY	Hairy/enhancer-of-split related with YRPW motif-like
HRP	Horseradish peroxidase
HSP70	Heat shock protein 70
IFN- $\gamma$	Interferon gamma
IG	Immunoglobulin
IGHV	Immunoglobulin heavy chain variable region
IL	Interleukin
IKK	I $\kappa$ B kinase
IVC	Individually ventilated cage
JAG	Jagged
kb	Kilo base pairs
KIF11,23	Kinesin family member 11,23
LANUV	“Landesamt für Natur, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz”
LFQ	Label-free quantification
dNTP	Deoxynucleotide
MACS	Magnetic cell sorting
MCL	Mantle cell lymphoma
MCM3	Minichromosome maintenance 3
MDM2	Mouse double minute 2 homolog
MECP2	Methyl CpG binding protein 2
MYD88	Myeloid differentiation primary response 88
MZ	Marginal zone
NF- $\kappa$ B	Nuclear factor ‘kappa-light-chain-enhancer’ of activated B cells

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NFATC1	Nuclear factor of activated T cells, cytoplasmic 1
NHL	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma
NICD	Notch intracellular domain
NLC	Nurse-like cell
nm	Nanometer
PBS	Phosphate-buffered saline
PCA	Principal component analysis
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
qPCR	Quantitative real-time PCR
PDCD10	Programmed cell death 10
PDK1	phosphoinositide dependent kinase 1
PE	Phycoerythrin
PFA	Paraformaldehyde
PI3K	Phosphatidyl-inositol-3 kinase
PIP <sub>3</sub>	Phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate
PMSF	Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride
PP2A	Protein phosphatase 2A
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homolog
PVDF	Polyvinylidene fluoride or polyvinylidene difluoride
RBC	Red blood cell
RBPJ	Recombination signal binding protein for immunoglobulin kappa J region
RIPA	Radioimmunoprecipitation assay
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
scRNA-seq	single cell RNA sequencing
ROSA26	Reverse Oriented Splice Acceptor, Clone 26
rpm	Rounds per minute
RT	Richter's transformation
S100A4	S100 calcium-binding protein A4

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SDS-PAGE	Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
SEM	Standard error of the mean
Ser	Serine
SHP-1	SH2-containing protein tyrosine phosphatase 1
SLO	Secondary lymphoid organs
SSC	Salinesodium citrate, Side scatter
SYK	Spleen tyrosine kinase
T <sub>reg</sub>	Regulatory T cells
TBS	Tris-buffered saline
TEMED	Tetramethylethylenediamine
TCL1	T cell leukemia/lymphoma protein 1
TFA	Trifluoroacetic acid
Thr	Threonine
TiO <sub>2</sub>	Titanium dioxide
TME	Tumor microenvironment
Tris	Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
mTOR	Mechanistic Target of Rapamycin
WES	Whole exome sequencing
WHO	World Health Organization
WSS	Westphal stop sequence
Wt	Wildtype
XBP1	X-box binding protein 1
n,μ,m	Nano, micro, mili

## Zusammenfassung

Chronische lymphatische Leukämie (CLL) ist die am häufigsten auftretende Leukämieform bei Erwachsenen westlicher Länder und ist charakterisiert durch die Akkumulation von reifen, nicht-funktionalen B-Zellen im Blut und Knochenmark. CLL weist eine variable klinische Manifestation auf, welche je nach Mutationsstatus von einer indolenten bis hin zu einer aggressiven Form reicht. Bis zu 10% der CLL Patienten entwickeln im Krankheitsverlauf ein aggressives Lymphom, die sogenannte Richter Transformation (RT), die meist tödlich verläuft. Trotz der spezifischen RT-assoziierten somatischen Mutationen wie in den *TP53* und *NOTCH1* Genen sind die molekularen Veränderungen, die in der Transformation von CLL zu RT involviert sind, bisher kaum verstanden. In dieser Arbeit wurde die Funktion der AKT Kinase im CLL-Verlauf untersucht. Immunohistochemie von RT-Patienten mit bekanntem Mutationsstatus zeigte, dass AKT hauptsächlich in *NOTCH1*-mutierten Biopsien überaktiviert war. Transgen überaktiviertes Akt im E $\mu$ -*TCL1* CLL-Mausmodell führte zur RT, was durch eine bidirektionale Überaktivierung der Akt und Notch1 Signalwege verursacht wurde. Diese onkogene Kooperation in RT-transformierter CLL hängt von der Tumor-Mikroumgebung (TME) der Milz ab. Die Notch1-Aktivierung in den RT-Zellen wird durch Liganden-präsentierende regulatorische T-Zellen stimuliert, welche wiederum von den RT-Zellen animiert werden, vermehrt Notch-Liganden zu produzieren und zellulär zu expandieren. Diese "manipulative" Wirkung der RT-Zellen auf das TME kann als neuer Ansatz zur Entwicklung von effektiveren Therapien gegen diese aggressive Transformation genutzt werden.

## Abstract

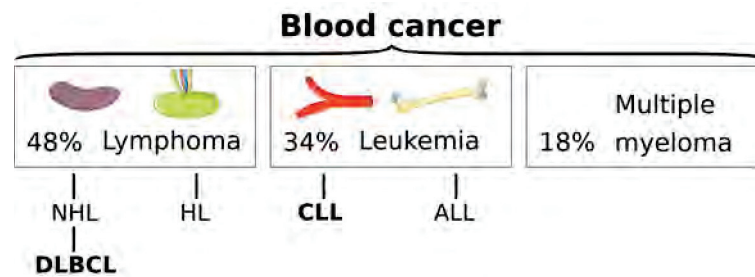
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) represents the most frequent subtype of leukemia in adults of Western countries and is characterized by the accumulation of mature, nonfunctional B cells in peripheral blood and bone marrow. CLL shows highly variable clinical manifestation ranging from indolent disease to aggressive form advanced by somatic aberrations like in *TP53* and *NOTCH1* genes. In line with this, up to 10% of CLL patients rapidly evolve an aggressive form of CLL, termed Richter's transformation (RT). Although RT-related somatic aberrations have been identified, the molecular mechanisms involved in progression from CLL to RT are still insufficiently understood. In this study, function of the Akt kinase has been investigated in transformation from CLL to RT. Immunohistochemistry of human RT biopsies with identified mutational status revealed aberrant AKT activation in *NOTCH1* mutated samples. Transgenic overactivated Akt in the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* CLL mouse model caused RT *via* bidirectional co-overactivation of Akt and Notch1 signaling. This oncogenic cooperation was critically dependent on the splenic tumor microenvironment (TME) where Notch ligand-expressing regulatory T cells stimulate the Notch1 activation in RT cells. *Vice versa*, RT cells instructed regulatory T cells to express Notch ligands and to expand. This 'manipulative' effect of RT cells on the TME might be used to develop novel therapies against this fatal aggressive transformation.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Classification of Blood Cancer

Cancer is defined by the National Cancer Institute as a group of diseases in which abnormal cells uncontrolled proliferate and spread to nearby tissues or through the blood and lymph system to other parts of the body (CNI, 2019). Cancer is responsible for 9.6 million deaths in 2018 and therefore globally the second leading cause of death (F. Bray et al., 2018).

Blood or hematologic cancer represents a heterogeneous group of cancer diseases affecting the immune system and can be divided into leukemia (34%), lymphoma (48%), and multiple myeloma (18% of blood cancer, **Fig.1.1**) (Simon, 2020). More than 900,000 people worldwide (5% of cancer) are annually diagnosed with blood cancer (F. Bray et al., 2018). Depending on age and ethnicity, various blood cancer types are prevalent. The type-dependent causes for blood cancer are rarely understood, probably a combination of genetic aberrations and environmental factors. Somatic alterations can trigger cancer based on activated oncogenes or absent tumor suppressors causing dysregulated differentiation, proliferation, and apoptosis. Mutations occur spontaneously or dependent on lifestyle and environmental factors. Smoking, previous radiation- or chemotherapy, oncoviruses, and family history have been identified as risk factors for the development of blood cancer (Charalambous and Vasileiou, 2012; Esau, 2017).



**Fig. 1.1: Types and distribution of blood cancer.** Blood cancer is divided into lymphoma, leukemia, and multiple myeloma. Lymphomatous cells predominantly affect secondary lymphoid organs including lymph nodes and spleen while leukemic cells affect the bone marrow and blood stream. Cancer cells of lymphoma and leukemia are distinctive leukocytes. A selection of lymphoma and leukemia subtypes that are relevant in this thesis are listed here. ALL: acute lymphocytic leukemia, CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, DLBCL: diffuse large B cell lymphoma, HL: Hodgkin lymphoma, NHL: Non-Hodgkin lymphoma.

### 1.1.1 Leukemia

In general, leukemia and lymphoma are characterized by the uncontrolled proliferation of leukocytes including lymphocytes. In contrast to the main appearance of lymphomatous cells in secondary lymphoid organs (SLOs) like spleen and lymph nodes, leukemic cells usually accumulate in the bone marrow and spill into the blood stream. Leukemia is the most common pediatric malignancy and the leading cause of cancer death in children (Seth and Singh, 2015). Nevertheless, more cases occur in adults. In epidemiological studies involving 184 countries, the highest incidence rates of leukemia were reported for Australia, the United States, and Europe with a slight prevalence for males (Miranda-Filho et al., 2018). In the GLOBOCAN 2020 statistics report, 6,807 new cases and 2,822 deaths due leukemia are estimated to occur in Germany per year (World Health Organization, 2020).

Leukemia is mainly classified into acute lymphocytic leukemia (ALL), chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), acute myeloid leukemia (AML), and chronic myeloid leukemia (CML) depending on cell type and rate of growth. The incidence of leukemia subtypes varies considerably by age. ALL is the main pediatric leukemia by contributing to 76%

of leukemia patients and 43% of all deaths (Howlader et al., 2012). For adults, the distribution of leukemia is more diverse. However, CLL is the most frequently diagnosed subtype in developed countries. The number of diagnosed cases has more than doubled globally between 1990 and 2017 (Dong et al., 2020). In the United States, CLL is estimated to be the second most common leukemia-related cause of death for 2021 (Siegel et al., 2021). For this reason, further research on CLL is vitally needed to improve therapies and to minimize the proportion of CLL-related deaths.

## **1.2 Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL)**

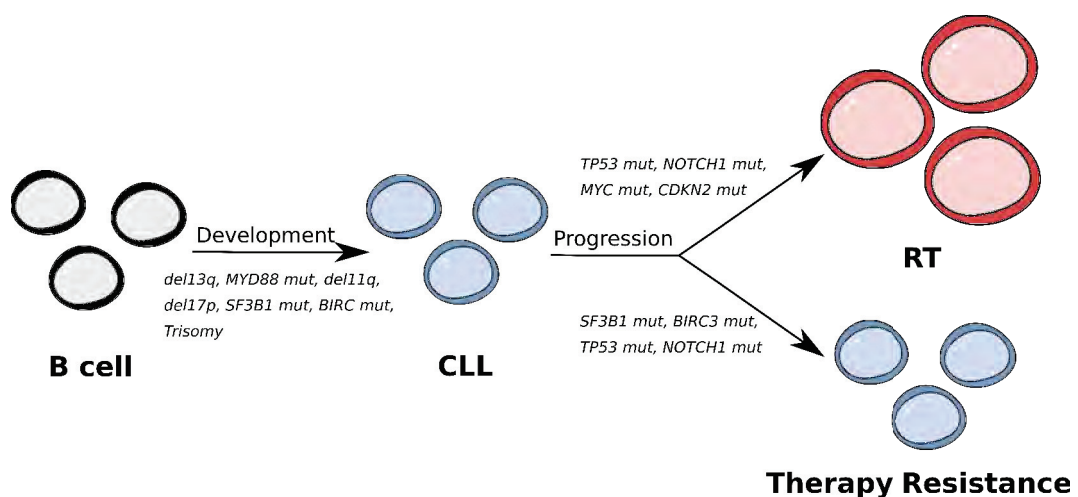
The definition of chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) has changed over the past decades. The World Health Organization (WHO) classification of hematopoietic neoplasias currently describes CLL as a Non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) of mature-appearing, monoclonal B cells with a leukemic progress including the accumulation of cancer cells in peripheral blood and bone marrow (Caligaris-Cappio et al., 1993; Swerdlow et al., 2016). In accordance with a German study, CLL is the most frequent leukemia subtype in developed countries and accounts for approximately 30% of adult leukemia variants as well as 25% of NHLs (Wendtner et al., 2012; Simon, 2020). More than 85% of all countries worldwide exhibit an increase in the age-standardized incidence rate of CLL (Dong et al., 2020). Thereby, CLL is prevalent in aged humans (mean age of diagnosis: 73 years) but rarely found in adults under age 40 and children (Tresckow et al., 2019).

### **1.2.1 Pathogenesis of CLL**

CLL cells are long-lived neoplastic B cells with small cell sizes and the appearance of mature lymphocytes (Rozman and Monserrat, 1995). It is postulated that genetic mutations accumulating with age highly contribute to the outbreak of CLL (Kikushige and



T. Miyamoto, 2014). Using whole exome sequencing (WES), Landau *et al* showed that the loss or addition of large amounts of chromosomal material like *del(11q)*, *del(13q)*, *del(17p)*, and *trisomy 12* may initiate CLL in many cases (Dan A Landau et al., 2015). During CLL progression, further mutations can occur with impact on pathogenesis and prognosis. For instance, mutations in *TP53* and *NOTCH1* genes can contribute to therapy resistance and the transformation of CLL into a more aggressive form, such as Richter's transformation (RT, **Fig.1.2**) (Rossi, Spina, Deambrogi, et al., 2011; Fabbri, Rasi, et al., 2011).



**Fig. 1.2: CLL pathogenesis and its frequently involved somatic mutations.** A variety of somatic mutations have been identified as being involved in CLL development including *del11q*, *del13q*, and *del17p*. Several mutations are reported to be associated with an aggressive CLL course, such as RT, and therapy resistance including *TP53 mut* and *NOTCH1 mut*. The illustration is done based on the publication of Fabbri *et al* (2016). CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, RT: Richter's transformation.

Individual leukemia cases proceed heterogeneously showing multiple populations of CLL subclones with various somatic mutations, supported by the tumor microenvironment (TME) (see chapter 1.2.4). Dependent on this, CLL subclones evolve through competition based on enhanced survival or reduced apoptosis (Dan A. Landau et al., 2013). Despite the variety of identified genomic abnormalities, neither single nor combined mutations are monitored in all CLL patient consequently causing heterogeneous outcome (Fabbri and Dalla-Favera, 2016). However, determined CLL-specific alter-

ations often affect signaling pathways essential for cell proliferation and apoptosis, such as B cell receptor (BCR), P53, and NOTCH1 signaling (Jan A. Burger and Chiorazzi, 2013; Campo et al., 2018; Rosati et al., 2018).

### **1.2.2 Richter's Transformation (RT)**

Due to its heterogeneity, CLL shows a highly variable clinical manifestation ranging from an indolent disease to an aggressive form. CLL typically features a slow progression compared to other leukemia subtypes that can last for decades initially without the need of any treatments. Nonetheless, up to 10% of CLL patients rapidly evolve an aggressive form, named Richter's transformation (RT), showing a low median survival of approximately 12 months (Y. Wang et al., 2020). RT, initially characterized as a 'reticular cell sarcoma' by Maurice Richter in 1928, defines an uncommon clonal transformation from CLL into an aggressive NHL with histomorphological characteristics of a diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL) (Richter, 1928; Parikh et al., 2013). RT can occur in all CLL patients unrelated to age, gender or ethnicity. It is often mistakenly assumed that RT represents a late event during CLL course. Instead, studies evidenced that DLBCL-like RT occurs in patients with a short median time of 1.8 years from CLL diagnosis (Parikh et al., 2013). Nearly half of the analyzed CLL cases (47%) develops RT before any treatments become necessary (Tadmor et al., 2014).

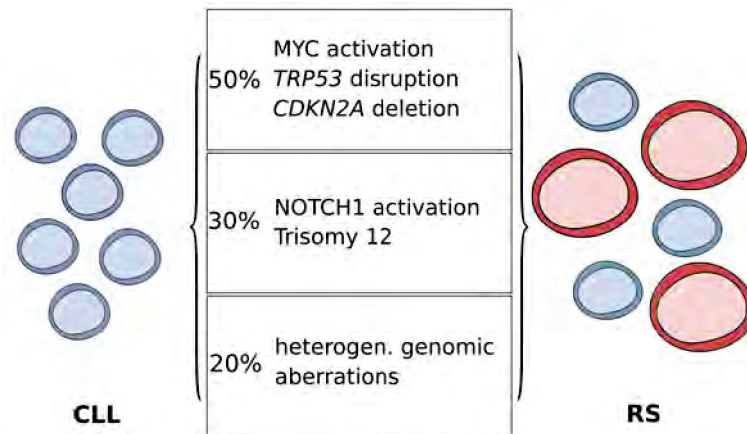
### **1.2.3 Prognostic Indicators and Risk Factors of CLL and RT**

Diagnosis is typically done by blood tests or biopsies of lymph nodes and bone marrow using histological and immunophenotypic validation corresponding to the clinical stage according to Rai *et al* and Binet *et al* (Binet et al., 1981; Rai et al., 1975). As histomorphological hallmark, CLL cells of indolent cases are medium-sized neoplastic B cells

with low proliferation rates and prolonged cell survival. Furthermore, leukemic cells are morphologically and immunophenotypically defined as mature lymphocytes. As distinctive characteristic, CLL cells are predominantly identified by consistent co-expression of the common T cell marker CD5 and pan B cell markers like CD19 and CD23 (Hallek et al., 2018; Al-Sawaf, Eichhorst, and Hallek, 2020).

Since RT shows properties of DLBCL, it can be distinguished from CLL by histomorphological changes, such as the diffuse accumulation of large, pleomorphic B cells with increased proliferative capacities. Rapidly enlarged lymph nodes and extranodal sites including splenomegaly are further DLBCL-typical characteristics of RT (Allan and Furman, 2018). Although several molecular indicators like CD5 appear in CLL and RT, single markers specifically predict RT. For instance, ZAP-70 expression (Wąsik-Szczepanek et al., 2018) as well as stereotyped BCR (Rossi, Spina, Cerri, et al., 2009) are approved as indicators for an aggressive course.

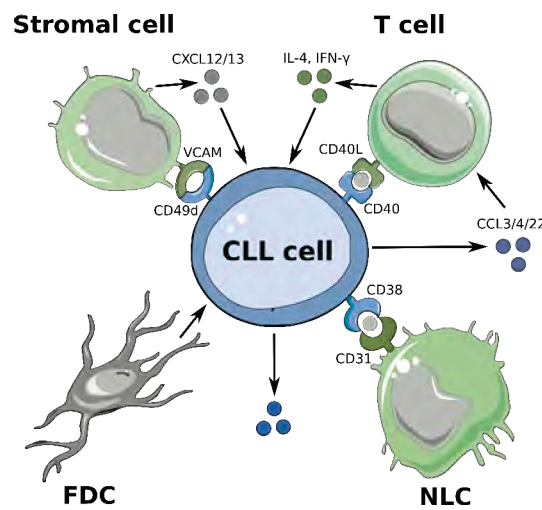
In addition, multiple RT-related mutations have been identified as risk factors by several laboratories in recent years. Genomic abnormalities contributing to the progression to RT mainly include *TP53* disruption (Campo et al., 2018), *MYC* or *NOTCH1* activation (Fonseka and Tirado, 2015; Rosati et al., 2018), and *CDKN2A* loss (Martel et al., 1997). Some somatic aberrations are frequently found as clusters. For example, half of RT-transformed CLL patients features somatic alterations of *TP53*, *MYC*, and *CDKN2A* genes or a combination thereof whereas *NOTCH1* mutations correlate with *trisomy 12* in some cases (**Fig.1.3**) (Dan A Landau et al., 2015; Rossi, Spina, Deambrogi, et al., 2011).



**Fig. 1.3: RT-associated somatic aberrations.** RT-promoting mutations occur alone or in combination with certain other mutations. Half of the analyzed RT patients show mutations in the *TP53*, *MYC* and *CDKN2A* genes or a combination thereof. *NOTCH1* mutations, *trisomy 12* or both occur in about 30% of RT patients. The other 20% of patients display heterogeneous somatic aberrations. The illustration is done based on Rossi *et al* (2011). CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia. RT: Richter's transformation.

#### 1.2.4 Tumor Microenvironment (TME) as Supportive Structure in CLL and RT

The tumor microenvironment (TME) is defined as the surrounding of cancer cells, including various normal cells, blood vessels, and signaling molecules. Cancer progression is influenced by bidirectional communication between cancer and TME cells through several crosstalk mechanisms. Thereby, TME cells affect cell survival, proliferation, migration, and metastasis of cancer cells and further release extracellular signals to favor their own clonal expansion. On the other hand, cancer cells modify the tissue-specific TME to create a favorable surrounding for disease progression (Quail and Joyce, 2013; Hacken and Jan A. Burger, 2016).



**Fig. 1.4: Tumor microenvironmental (TME) cells involved in CLL.** Marrow and splenic TME - CLL interactions include FDCs, NLCs, stromal cells as well as T cells and involve a complex network of many pathways. The illustration shows selected interactions and was created using Servier Medical Art. CCL: C-C motif chemokines, CD: cluster of differentiation, CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, CXCL: chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand, FDC: follicular dendritic cell, IFN-γ: interferon gamma, IL-4: interleukin 4, NLC: nurse-like cell, VCAM: vascular cell adhesion protein.

Over the last decade, marrow and SLO-located TME has been recognized as a pivotal player in CLL (Ten Hacken and Jan A. Burger, 2014; M.K. et al., 2017). There, CLL cells undergo apoptosis until their survival is forced by TME-specific stimuli (Herishanu, Katz, et al., 2013). Cellular and molecular interactions between CLL and TME cells mainly result in the activation of the BCR signaling and its downstream kinases like phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K)/AKT to enhance cell homing and survival of leukemic cells (Oppezzo and Dighiero, 2013). Reported CLL-promoting TME cells include follicular dendritic cells (FDCs) (Heinig et al., 2014), monocyte-derived nurse-like cells (NLCs) (J. A. Burger et al., 2000; Boissard et al., 2015), stromal cells (Kurtova et al., 2009; Lutzny et al., 2013), and diverse T cell subsets (Bagnara et al., 2011) (**Fig.1.4**). For instance, several groups discovered abnormalities in T cell frequencies in blood and SLOs in human and murine CLL (Mackus et al., 2003; Hofbauer et al., 2011; Roessner and Seiffert, 2020). *Inter alia*, accumulation of regulatory T ( $T_{reg}$ ) cells is confirmed in SLO-derived biopsies of CLL patients and correlates with progressive outcome and

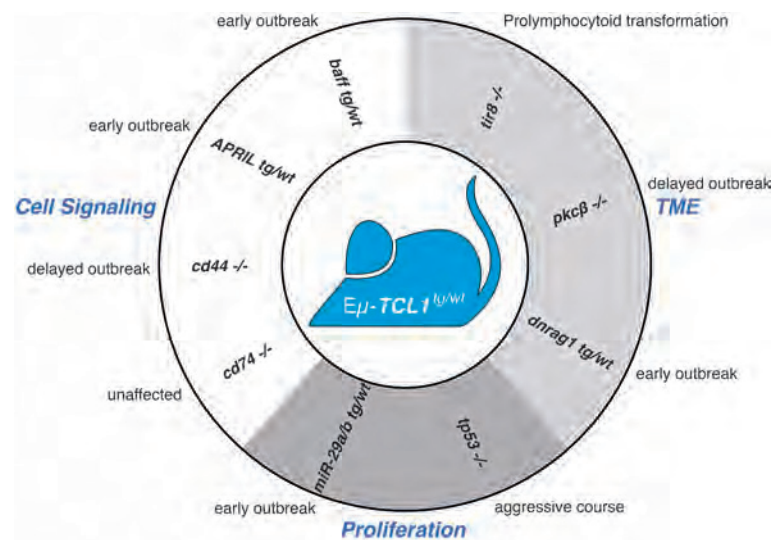
unfavorable genetics (Beyer et al., 2005; Weiss et al., 2011; Biancotto et al., 2012). Numerous proteins and molecules are involved in the communication of CLL cells with the environment, such as chemokines (Jan A. Burger, 2010), interleukins (Dancescu et al., 1992; Francia Di Celle et al., 1996), membrane receptors (Pascutti et al., 2013), and microvesicles or exosomes containing RNA, proteins, and metabolites (Ghosh et al., 2010; Yeh et al., 2015). The communication of T cells with surrounding CLL cells is rarely understood but includes secretion of interleukin 4 (IL-4) (Dancescu et al., 1992) and interferon gamma (IFN- $\gamma$ ) (Buschle et al., 1993) as well as direct interactions by membrane proteins, such as CD40/CD40L (Kitada et al., 1999; Wierda et al., 2000).

### 1.2.5 E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Transgenic Mouse Model for CLL Investigations

Due to high similarities on genetic and physiological levels, mouse models that mimic human diseases are crucial for medical investigations to understand the underlying pathogenic mechanisms and to develop novel therapies. For CLL studies, mouse models with genetic changes have been generated showing aberrations of CLL-associated genes. Especially the first developed CLL-like mouse model, the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* transgenic mouse line, highly resembles the human malignancy.

E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice are characterized by exogenous overexpression of the human *T cell leukemia/lymphoma protein 1* (*TCL1*) gene under the control of the *IGHV* promoter and *IGH* enhancer (E $\mu$ ) causing its expression in immature and mature B cells (Bichi et al., 2002). Upregulated *TCL1* is detected in about 90% of CLL patients with intratumoral heterogeneity at which strong *TCL1* expression correlates with poor prognosis (M. Herling et al., 2006; Marco Herling et al., 2009). The pathogenic mechanism underlying overexpressed *TCL1* remains unsolved, probably a combination of transcriptional and epigenetic alterations initiated by TME-specific stimuli (Yuille et al., 2001; French et al., 2003). In CLL, *TCL1* is reported to function *inter alia* as activator of the serine/threo-

nine kinase AKT (Laine et al., 2000; Y. Pekarsky, 2000) and the nuclear factor 'kappa-light-chain-enhancer' of activated B cells (NF- $\kappa$ B) pathway (Gaudio et al., 2012; Yuri Pekarsky et al., 2008) or as inhibitor of DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferases (DNMT3A and DNMT3B) (Palamarchuk et al., 2012; Biran et al., 2019). As consequence, TCL1 promotes proliferation and survival of malignant B cells.



**Fig. 1.5: Overview of mouse models for CLL investigations based on Eμ-TCL1 transgenic mice.** Additional mouse models were generated to investigate pathogenic pathways in TCL1-driven B cell malignancies involved in cell signaling, proliferation, and tumor microenvironment (TME). This illustration was created based on Simonetti *et al* (2014). -: deletion, tg: transgenic, wt: wildtype.

The Eμ-TCL1 mouse model is widely used for investigations of TCL1-driven mature B cell malignancies. In the last decade, novel mouse models with additional genetic changes have been generated based on Eμ-TCL1 mice to elucidate specific pathogenic mechanisms in the onset of CLL and progression to RT *in vivo* (**Fig.1.5**). These studies provide new insights into CLL pathogenesis, in particular in the dysregulation of proliferation or apoptosis, altered trafficking, and TME. In this study, the Eμ-TCL1 transgenic mouse model was utilized to investigate the involvement of Akt and Notch1 signaling in CLL progression to RT.



### 1.3 B Cell Receptor (BCR) Signaling

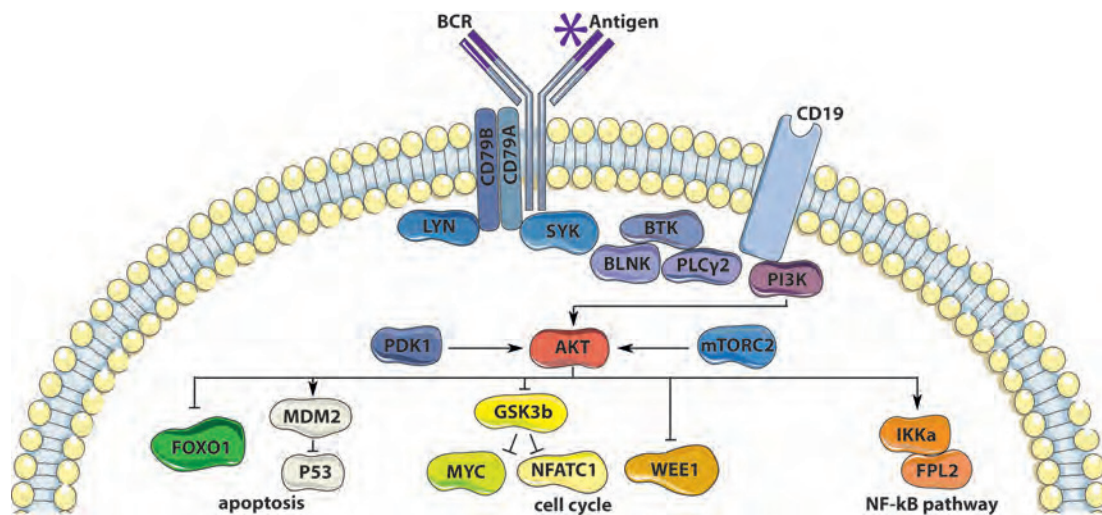
B cells are necessary for the adaptive immune response to fight against bacterial and viral infection mainly through the BCR signaling. BCR is the most numerous membrane-bound receptor on B cells with between 100,000 to 200,000 complexes per cell (Yang and Reth, 2015). B cells generate an unique, high-affinity BCR during maturation that is activated either in an antigen-dependent ('activated') or -independent ('tonic') fashion in SLOs. Active BCR induces activation of Src family kinases, such as LYN and Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK), as well as PI3K, especially PI3K $\delta$  (Gauld and Cambier, 2004; Werner, Hobeika, and Jumaa, 2010). Active PI3K generates the second messenger phosphatidylinositol-3,4,5-triphosphate (PIP<sub>3</sub>) to turn on calcium mobilization (Scharenberg et al., 1998), AKT (Osaki, Oshimura, and Ito, 2004; Fresno Vara et al., 2004), and the NF- $\kappa$ B signaling (M. W. Mayo et al., 2002). Combined PI3K/AKT and BTK actions coordinate proliferation, survival, DNA repair, and migration of mature B cells by the formation of a signalosome including a complex network of signaling cascades. The outcome of BCR signaling is determined by the state of B cell maturation, bound antigen, signal duration, and modulator proteins. BCR abnormalities can lead to a lack of humoral immune response or autoimmunity (Rawlings et al., 2017). Loss-of-function mutations of BCR or downstream kinases like BTK result in impaired B cell development, *inter alia* the absence of mature B cells, and cause immunodeficiency, termed X-linked agammaglobulinemia (XLA) (Takata and Kurosaki, 1996; Ferrari et al., 2007).

#### 1.3.1 AKT Kinase as Key Regulator in Mature and Malignant B Cells

The serine/threonine protein kinase AKT regulates multiple cellular processes, such as activation, apoptosis, cell survival, and proliferation of mature B cells. AKT consists of three isoforms, AKT1 to AKT3, conserved in mammalian genomes with high



homology and similar structures. AKT1 and AKT2 are the dominant isoforms in mature B cells (Calamito et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2019). Several studies confirm that AKT isoforms have overlapping but also specialized functions in development and physiology contributing to the diversity of AKT activities (Gonzalez and McGraw, 2009). AKT is activated through sequential phosphorylation at threonine 308 (Thr308) and serine 473 (Ser473) catalyzed by mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 2 (mTORC2) (Sarbassov et al., 2005), membrane-localized phosphoinositide dependent kinase 1 (PDK1) (Stokoe et al., 1997; Gold et al., 1999), and PI3K (Alessi, James, et al., 1997).



**Fig. 1.6: Downstream actions of AKT kinase in B cells.** AKT is mainly activated by mTORC2, PDK1, and PI3K via sequential phosphorylation at Thr308 and Ser473. In B cells, AKT kinase regulates numerous downstream proteins by phosphorylation involved in proliferation, apoptosis, and differentiation. A selection of AKT actions is presented. The illustration was created using Servier Medical Art. BCR: B cell receptor, BLNK: B cell linker, BTK: Bruton's tyrosine kinase, CD: cluster of differentiation, FOXO1: Forkhead box protein O1, GSK3b: glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta, IKKα: IκB kinase, MDM2: mouse double minute 2 homolog, mTORC2: mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 2, NF-κB: nuclear factor 'kappa-light-chain-enhancer' of activated B cells, NFATC1: nuclear factor of activated T cells, cytoplasmic 1, PDK1: phosphoinositide dependent kinase 1, PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinases, PLCγ2: phospholipase C gamma 2, SYK: spleen tyrosine kinase.

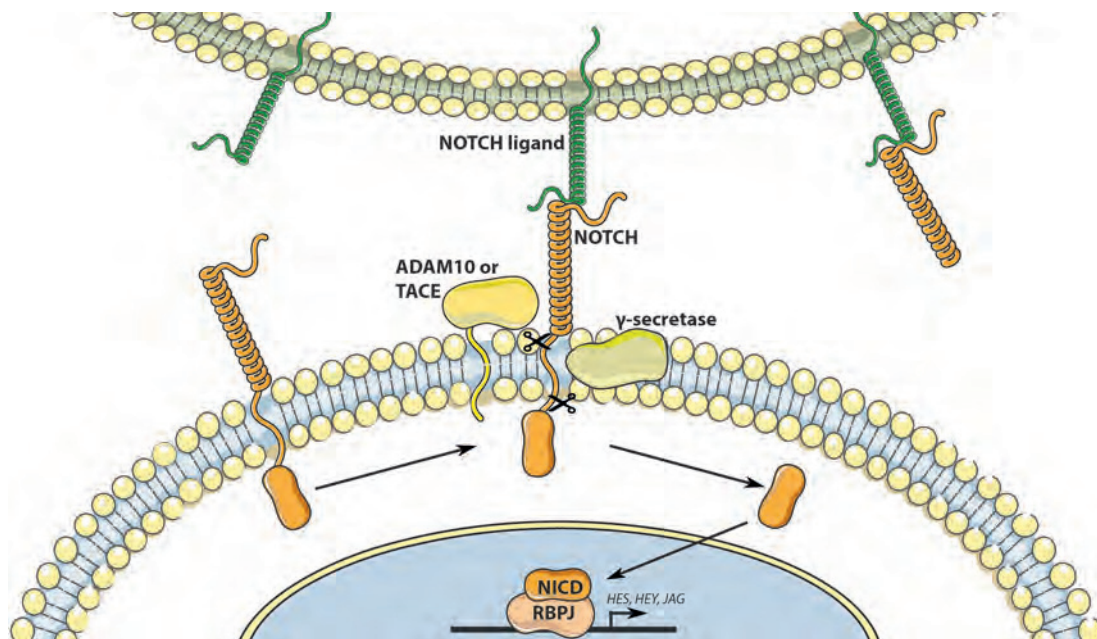
AKT regulates a multitude of downstream proteins. Currently, over one hundred AKT substrates linked to cell physiology and disease have been identified (**Fig.1.6**). Glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta (GSK3b) was the first discovered substrate (Alessi, Caudwell, et al., 1996). AKT-mediated inhibition of GSK3b promotes nuclear accumulation

of multiple transcription factors including MYC (Gregory, Qi, and Hann, 2003) and nuclear factor of activated T cells, cytoplasmic 1 (NFATC1) (Moon et al., 2012). Furthermore, AKT regulates apoptosis and cell cycle by indirect inhibition of P53 through phosphorylated mouse double minute 2 homolog (MDM2) (L. D. Mayo and Donner, 2001; Ogawara et al., 2002) and the nuclear exclusion of the phosphorylated transcription factor Forkhead box protein O1 (FOXO1) (Biggs et al., 1999; Brunet et al., 1999). AKT actions are terminated by phosphatases. For instance, protein phosphatase 2A (PP2A) inactivates AKT by dephosphorylation at Thr308 in lymphoid cells (Kuo et al., 2008) whereas PH domain leucine-rich repeat protein phosphatases (PHLPP1 and PHLPP2) dephosphorylates AKT at Ser473 (Brognard, Siernecki, et al., 2007; Brognard and Newton, 2008). In addition, phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) indirectly represses AKT actions by dephosphorylating PIP<sub>3</sub> (Stambolic et al., 1998). Since the loss of these phosphatases causes overactivated AKT, their expression is repressed or lost in many cancer types (Q. Zhang and Claret, 2012; Álvarez-García et al., 2019).

An involvement of AKT in CLL is assumed since AKT inhibition results in apoptosis of human CLL cells (Zhuang et al., 2010; Hofbauer et al., 2011). Nevertheless, mutations of the PI3K/AKT pathway are rarely found. The molecular mechanisms causing PI3K/AKT activation are still debated but might include BCR stimulation (Schrader et al., 2014; Zurli et al., 2017), overexpression of protein tyrosine phosphatase, non-receptor type 22 (PTPN22) (Negro et al., 2012), and microRNA-22 (Palacios et al., 2015). Particularly in CLL, BCR signaling has been reported as the most prominent pathogenic signaling to empower survival and growth of leukemic B cells (Herishanu, Pérez-Galán, et al., 2011). Thereby, BCR stimulation occurs heterogeneously and partly controversial with an enhanced involvement in aggressive CLL (Stevenson et al., 2011). However, PI3K/AKT downstream actions and their involvement in the suggested progressive course of CLL remain uncertain.

## 1.4 NOTCH Signaling

The ligand-mediated NOTCH signaling is an evolutionary highly conserved pathway that regulates a wide spectrum of cell types. In vertebrates, the signaling system consists of four homologous NOTCH receptors (NOTCH1-4) which are activated by Jagged (JAG1, JAG2) or Delta-like proteins (DLL1, DLL3, and DLL4).



**Fig. 1.7: NOTCH signaling.** NOTCH ligands activate NOTCH receptor by initiating the release of its active moiety, termed NOTCH intracellular domain (NICD). Activated NICD translocates into the nucleus to activate the transcription of target genes as coactivator of RBPJ. ADAM10: a disintegrin and metalloproteinase 10, HEY: hairy/enhancer-of-split related with YRPW motif protein, HES: hairy and enhancer of split; JAG: jagged, TACE: tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  converting enzyme. The illustration was created using Servier Medical Art.

The NOTCH receptor is activated after ligand-binding of neighboring cells by the release of the active moiety, the NOTCH intracellular domain (NICD), from the full-length receptor catalyzed by ADAM-family metalloproteases and  $\gamma$ -secretase complex (Bozkulak and Gerry Weinmaster, 2009). Thereby, the short-lived NICD can enter the nucleus to form a complex with the recombination signal binding protein for immunoglobulin kappa J region (RBPJ) to activate transcription of target genes (**Fig.1.7**) (S. J. Bray, 2006; Castel et al., 2013). Despite the simplicity of the direct and irreversible NOTCH

activation without the need of secondary messengers, the regulation of NOTCH pathway is of importance and complex including glycosylation of receptor and ligand (Panin et al., 2002), endocytosis (Yamamoto, Charng, and Bellen, 2010), and corepressor complexes (Kao et al., 1998; Hsieh et al., 1999).

#### 1.4.1 NOTCH Signaling in Mature and Malignant B Cells

NOTCH signaling displays various context-specific functions ranging from apoptosis, differentiation, and proliferation to migration. In B cells, NOTCH signaling regulates several cell fate decisions. In general, *NOTCH1* and *NOTCH2* are the most frequently expressed members in B cells (Bertrand et al., 2000). During B cell development, NOTCH signaling promotes the differentiation toward marginal zone (MZ) B cells. As consequence, conditional *Notch2* knock out in murine B cells leads to the specific deficiency of MZ B cells (Saito et al., 2003). Conversely, B cell-specific overexpression of a constitutively active Notch2 enhances the accumulation of MZ B cells at the expense of follicular B cells (Hampel et al., 2011). In addition, NOTCH signaling is an important mediator for B cell activation and terminal differentiation toward antibody-secreting cells (Thomas et al., 2007; Santos et al., 2007). Kang *et al* demonstrated that Notch1 increases cell survival and proliferation in murine B cells. In accordance, *Notch1* deletion markedly reduces B cell activation and antibody secretion (Kang, Kim, and Park, 2014).

Due to various interventions of NOTCH signaling in B cell development, abnormal NOTCH activity is associated with diverse B cell malignancies. In CLL, *NOTCH1* is frequently mutated whereas it mostly consists of 2-bp (CT) frameshift deletions causing a premature stop codon. Thereby, *NOTCH1* mutations affect the C-terminal PEST domain (approximately 80% of cases) that regularly initiates the proteasomal degradation of activated NICD (Ianni et al., 2009; Rosati et al., 2018). As consequence, the

truncated PEST domain prolongs half-life of NICD (Blain et al., 2017). In human CLL biopsies, gain-of-function mutations of *NOTCH1* occur in 6 to 12% at initial diagnosis of CLL and approximately 30% of RT cases (Fabbri, Rasi, et al., 2011; Lionetti et al., 2014). For this reason, *NOTCH1* is the most RT-promoting mutation. Although numerous studies confirm the correlation between RT and *NOTCH1* mutations, studies are still missing but vitally needed to pinpoint the function of activated NOTCH1 in B cell transformation.

## 1.5 Objective

CLL is the most frequently diagnosed leukemia subtype in adults of developed countries, accounting for approximately 30% of leukemia variants (Simon, 2020). The majority of CLL patients reveals an indolent course of disease whereas up to 10% of patients manifest an aggressive course like RT (Jain and O'Brien, 2012). The occurrence of certain somatic aberrations promotes RT progression as risk factors, such as *TP53* and *NOTCH1* mutations (Rossi, Spina, Deambrogi, et al., 2011; Dan A Landau et al., 2015).

Despite the correlation between high-risk mutations and RT development, molecular alterations of pathways are poorly understood. However, several studies suggest the involvement of AKT kinase in pathogenesis by promoting cell proliferation and survival (Zhuang et al., 2010; Hofbauer et al., 2011). For this reason, this study aimed to analyze downstream effectors of AKT in progression from CLL to RT.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Chemicals & Materials

#### 2.1.1 Consumables

Chemical/Material	Supplier
Acetonitrile (ACN)	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Agarose	Peqlab, Erlangen, Germany
Ammonium chloride	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Ammonium persulfate (APS)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
AutoMACS Rinsing Solution	Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany
$\beta$ -mercaptoethanol	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Bovine serum albumin (BSA)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Breeding diet	ssniff, Soest, Germany
Chloroform	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Deoxyribonucleoside triphosphate (dNTPs)	Amersham, Freiburg, Germany
Dithioereitol (DTT)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
DMEM plus Glutamax	Gibco BRL, Eggenstein, Germany

Dream Taq DNA polymerase	ThermoFisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany
DreamTaq buffer 10x	ThermoFisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany
Enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) Western Blotting Substrate	ThermoFisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany
Entellan	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Eosin	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Ethanol, absolute	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Ethidium bromide	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Ethylendiamine tetraacetate (EDTA)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Fetal calf serum (FCS) (10%)	Biochrom, Berlin, Germany
Formaldehyde	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Glycerol	Serva, Heidelberg, Germany
Glycine	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)	PerkinElmer, Inc., Massachusetts, U.S.
Hydrogen peroxide (H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> )	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Laemmli-sample buffer	Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., California, U.S.
MACS BSA Stock Solution	Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany
Maintenance diet	ssniff, Soest, Germany
Mayer's Haematoxylin solution	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany



Methanol	Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Microbeads (Cd19, Cd90.2)	Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany
Milk powder	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Nitrogen (liquid)	Linde, Pullach, Germany
PageRuler Prestained Protein Ladder	ThermoFisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany
Paraffin	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Paraformaldehyde (PFA)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
PCR primer	Eurogentec, Cologne, Germany
PeqGreen	VWR, Erlangen, Germany
Phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride (PMSF)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Phosphate buffered saline (PBS)	Gibco BRL, Eggenstein, Germany
PhosphoSTOP	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
2-Propanol (Isopropanol)	Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Proteinase K	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
PVDF membrane	Bio-Rad, Munich, Germany
Qiazol	Qiagen, Hilden, Germany
RIPA buffer	Cell Signaling, Danvers, USA
Sodium azide	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Sodium chloride (NaCl)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Sodium pyruvate	Gibco BRL, Eggenstein, Germany
Strainer 30 µm	Sysmex, Norderstedt, Germany
SuperSignal West Dura ECL substrate	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany



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<i>Taq</i> -polymerase	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
Tetraethylethylenediamine (TEMED)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Trishydroxymethylaminomethane (Tris)	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane acetate (Tris AcOH)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane hydrochloride (Tris HCl)	Sigma-Aldrich, Seelze, Germany
Triton-X-100	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Tween 20	Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany
Xylol	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
Western Blocking reagent	Roche, Mannheim, Germany

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**Tab. 1: Consumables and their suppliers.**

### 2.1.2 Kits

Kit	Supplier
Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit	Agilent, Santa Clara, USA
cDNA reverse transcription kit, high capacity	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
eBioscience™ Foxp3 Transcription factor staining kit	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
LIVE/DEAD Fixable Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
High Fidelity PCR Master	Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany
High-Select™ TiO <sub>2</sub> Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit	Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Germany
RNase-free DNase Set	Qiagen, Hilden, Germany
RNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen, Hilden, Germany
TSA Signal Amplification Kit	PerkinElmer, Waltham, US

**Tab. 2: Kits and their suppliers.**

## 2.2 Patient Ethics

All human samples were obtained with informed consent and with approval of the ethical commission of the medical faculty of the University of Cologne (reference no. 13–091). The diagnosis of CLL, DLBCL, MCL, and RT was based on standard morphological and immunophenotypic criteria. Tumor tissue sections were received by biopsies and characterized for genetic aberrations as previously published (Vollbrecht et al., 2015; Frenzel et al., 2011).

## 2.3 Animal Care and Breeding

### 2.3.1 Animal Ethics and Housing

All experiments were performed with the approval of the ethics of LANUV with identification numbers 84-02.04.2013.A146 and 84-02.04.2019.A009: “Development of personalized therapy strategies by cancer” (Bezirksregierung Cologne, Germany). Mice (*mus musculus*) were kept in the pathogen-free animal facility of the Experimental Medicine and Anatomy at the University Hospital of Cologne with a 12-hour-12-hour light-dark cycle and a temperature of 22-24 °C. Mice were housed in single ventilated cages (IVCs, TypII long) at groups of two to five mice with *ad libitum* access to food and water. Breeding was started on a 1:1 or 1:2 (male:female) basis. Pups were weaned and ear-marked after 21 days.

Mice were monitored twice a week in absence or daily in presence of noticeable health conspicuousness to prevent suffering of mice. Based on a previously prepared score sheet, mice were categorized into different states of burden. Mice were sacrificed if they reached a certain score calculated by their general health state including weight, behavior, and tumor formation. In absence of health complications, mice were scored until an age of 20 months or organ collection. The experimental cohorts randomly represented both females and males.

### 2.3.2 Animal Breeding

The common investigated CLL mouse model, the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* transgenic mice (The Jackson Laboratory, Stock No: 010511), was generated by Bichi *et al* (Jefferson Medical College) (Bichi et al., 2002). The *Cd19-Cre* mouse model (The Jackson Laboratory, Stock No: 006785) was generated by Rickert *et al* (Max Delbruck Centre for Molec-

ular Medicine) (Rickert, Roes, and Rajewsky, 1997). E $\mu$ -*TCL1* transgenic CLL and *Cd19-Cre* mice were ten times backcrossed toward C57/BL6 background. R26-fl-*Akt-C* mouse line was previously generated in the Wunderlich lab (MPI for Metabolism Research) (Kohlhaas et al., 2020). R26-fl-*FoxO1ADA* and R26-fl-*MycT58A* mice were generated by Nakae *et al* (Columbia University) (Nakae, Barr, and Accili, 2000) and Wang *et al* (Oregon Health and Sciences University) (X. Wang et al., 2011) while James R Woodgett is the donating investigator (Mount Sinai Hospital) of Gsk3b<sup>S9A</sup> mice (The Jackson Laboratory, Stock No: 029592) (Patel et al., 2008). Furthermore, R26-fl-*Notch1-IC* mice were ordered by The Jackson Laboratory (Stock No: 008159) with Murtaugh *et al* (Harvard University) as donating investigator (Murtaugh et al., 2003). All R26-based knockin mice were interbred with *Cd19-Cre* and partly with E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice to study hematologic malignancies.

## 2.4 Organ Collection and Cell Preparation

### 2.4.1 Dissection of Organs

Euthanasia of mice was performed according to ethical license either by cervical dislocation or by carbon dioxide overdose if blood was collected. Breathing and reflexes of both hind paws were tested to guarantee death of mice. All required organs were isolated and directly used for extraction of primary cells for *ex vivo* examinations (see chapter 2.4.2). Parts of organs were immediately fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and stored at room temperature protected from light until embedding in paraffin (**Tab. 3**).

Blood samples were taken monthly from the lateral tail vein or by cardiac puncture (end of experiment). For this reason, tails of mice were shortly warmed up under continuous control of temperature under red light to extend blood vessels. The tail vein was punc-

tured using Microlance Cannula 20 G (*Becton Dickinson*). Up to a maximum of 40  $\mu$ l blood was collected in EDTA coated K2 microvettes (*Sarstedt*) and stored on ice until further processing.

Buffer	Component	Amount
Paraformaldehyde (4%)	37% Paraformaldehyde	10.8 ml
	PBS	89.2 ml

**Tab. 3: Buffer used for tissue fixation.**

## 2.4.2 Isolation of Primary Murine Cells and Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells

To receive primary murine immune cells, spleen was homogenized in a gentleMACS C Tube (*Miltenyi Biotec*) filled with 5 ml autoMACS Rinsing buffer (*Miltenyi Biotec*) containing BSA (FACS buffer, **Tab. 4**) via gentleMACS Octo Dissociator (pre-saved program: spleen\_4). Bone marrow was isolated from the mouse thigh. After removing the surrounding muscle tissue and incising the bone, the bone marrow was received by injecting FACS buffer into the bone. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) and splenic as well as bone marrow-derived immune cells were isolated by red blood cell (RBC) lysis to remove RBCs (**Tab. 4**). 5 ml RBC lysis buffer was added to the sample with occasional inverting until the solution turned clear. Lysis was stopped with 5 ml FACS buffer. After harvest of cells by centrifugation (300 g, 10 min, at 4 °C), cell suspension was filtered through 30  $\mu$ m strainers to prevent clotting of cells.

Buffer	Component	Amount
FACS buffer	MACS BSA Stock Solution	5%
	autoMACS Rinsing Solution	95%
RBC lysis buffer	NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	139.5 mM
	Tris-HCl (pH 7.65)	10 mM

**Tab. 4: Buffer used for cell preparation.**

### 2.4.3 Magnetic Cell Sorting (MACS) Technology

B cells and T cells were purified out of single cell suspension of spleen using the MACS®-technology (*Miltenyi Biotec*). In principle, cells were magnetically labeled with MACS MicroBeads and added to a magnetic column placed in a MACS separator. While unlabeled cells pass through the magnetic field, magnetically labeled cells were retained within the column. Afterwards, the column was removed from the separator to elute labeled cells.

Cells were labeled with murine Cd19 (B cells) or Cd90.2 (T cells) MicroBeads after total cells were counted by the MACSQuant 10 (*Miltenyi Biotec*). 10  $\mu$ l beads were added per  $10^7$  total cells and incubated in the dark for 20 min at 4 °C. Cells were washed twice with FACS buffer and  $10^8$  total cells were resuspended in 500  $\mu$ l FACS buffer. Magnetic separation was performed using the autoMACS Separator (*Miltenyi Biotec*) or LS Columns (*Miltenyi Biotec*) placed to the MACS MultiStand (*Miltenyi Biotec*). Columns were washed twice with 5 ml FACS buffer before labeled cells were eluted in 5 ml FACS buffer. Using the autoMACS Separator, the program “Possel” was chosen. Purity of B or T cell suspensions were determined by anti-mouse Cd19-BV421 (*BioLegend*) or anti-mouse Cd90.2-APC/Cy7 (*BioLegend*) positivity of Aqua negative cells as a live/dead marker via flow cytometry (**Tab. 11**, see chapter 2.6.1.1). Isolated cell samples with a purity of at least 90% of total cells were used for further examination.

## 2.5 DNA and RNA Analysis

### 2.5.1 Isolation of DNA and Genotyping

#### 2.5.1.1 DNA Isolation

To receive the genotype of weaned mice, genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated out of ear cuts and analyzed by polymerase chain reactions (PCR). After addition of 500 µl tail lysis buffer containing Proteinase K (1 mg/ml), biopsies were digested at 56 °C and 500 rpm for at least 3 h preferably over night (**Tab. 7**). 500 µl 100% isopropanol was added to precipitate and pellet DNA by centrifugation (17,000 g, 10 min, room temperature). DNA was washed once with 200 µl 70% ethanol and air-dried at 37 °C. Finally, the pellet was resuspended in 50 µl TE buffer containing RNase overnight at room temperature before use.

#### 2.5.1.2 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

Amplification of DNA fragments was done by PCR using the PCR mastermix (**Tab. 7**) with gene-specific primers binding to the gene of interest (**Tab. 5**). The amplification was performed using *Taq*-polymerase (named after the thermophilic bacterium *Thermus aquaticus*) by *in vitro* enzymatic replication using the Flex Cycler<sup>2</sup> (*Analytik Jena*).

Gene of interest	Primer Sequence (5' - 3')	Band Size
<i>TCL1</i>	GCC GAG TGC CCG ACA CTC CAT CTG GCA GCA GCT CGA GAC AAA ACT CCT GAG GCC ATA TTG CTG ATC CAC ATC TGC TG	490 wt, 300 fl
R26-fl- <i>Notch1-IC</i>	ACA CCG GCC TTA TTC CAA G CAG GAC AAC GGC CAC ACA TGG TAT GCC TGA CAC TCA CC AAG GGA GCT GCA GTG GAG TA	241 wt, 300 tg
R26-fl- <i>Akt-CA</i>	TGTCGCAAATTAAGTGTGAATC GATATGAAGTACTGGGCTCTT AAAGTCGCTCTGAGTTGTTATC	590 wt, 390 tg
<i>Cd19-Cre</i>	CTGCAGTTCGATCACTGGAAC AAAGGCCTCTACAGTCTATAG TCCAATTTACTGACCGTACA TCCTGGCAGCGATCGCTATT	550 wt, 450 tg

**Tab. 5: Gene-specific primer sequences (5'-3') for genotyping.**

For each gene-specific primer pair, an adapted PCR protocol was chosen (**Tab. 6**).

Step	<i>Eμ-TCL1</i>	R26-fl- <i>Akt-CA</i> , R26-fl- <i>Notch1-IC</i>	<i>Cd19-Cre</i>
1	94 °C, 10 min	94 °C, 3 min	94 °C, 5 min
2	94 °C, 30 s	94 °C, 30 s	94 °C, 30 s
3	62 °C, 30 s	56 °C, 45 s	58 °C, 45 s
4	72 °C, 1 min	72 °C, 1 min	72 °C, 1 min
5	repeat 30x Step 2-4	repeat 30x Step 2-4	repeat 30x Step 2-4
6	72 °C, 5 min	72 °C, 10 min	72 °C, 10 min
7	12 °C	12 °C	12 °C

**Tab. 6: PCR protocols.**

PCR products were analyzed by horizontal agarose gel electrophoresis to separate and prove DNA fragments depending on size. 1x TAE buffer was boiled with the aimed amount of agarose (usually 2% agarose gel) and blended with the DNA intercalating PeqGreen (1:20,000, *VWR Chemicals*) to visualize DNA (emission maximum: 530 nm, **Tab. 7**). The gel chamber with comb was filled with boiled gel which polymerized by cooling down. 20 µl of PCR product was loaded on gel and run in 1x TAE buffer at



150 V.

Buffer and Mastermix	Component	Amount
<b>Tail Lysis Buffer</b>	Tris-HCl, pH 8.5	100 mM
	EDTA, pH 8.0	5 mM
	SDS	0.2%
	NaCl	200 mM
	Proteinase K	1x
<b>TAE Buffer</b>	40 mM	Tris-AcOH (pH 8.0)
	1 mM	EDTA (pH 8.0)
<b>TE Buffer</b>	10 mM	Tris-HCl (pH 8.5)
	1 mM	EDTA (pH 8.5)
<b>TE/RNase A Buffer</b>	Tris-HCl, pH 8.5	100 mM
	EDTA, pH 8.0	5 mM
	RNase A	100 mg/ml
<b>PCR Mastermix (100x)</b>	H <sub>2</sub> O	2085 µl
	DreamTaq Buffer	250 µl
	dNTPs	20 µl
	per primer	25 µl

**Tab. 7: Buffer and mastermix used for DNA isolation and PCR.**

## 2.5.2 RNA Isolation and Analysis of Gene Expression

### 2.5.2.1 RNA Isolation

To analyze transcriptional levels of the gene of interest, RNA was isolated and expression was analyzed by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Total RNA was isolated from MACS-sorted Cd19<sup>+</sup> and Cd90.2<sup>+</sup> lymphocytes out of spleen with RNeasy Mini Kit (*Qiagen*). Cell pellets were lysed in 500 µl QIAzol (*Qiagen*) before 100 µl chloroform was added and vortexed for 30 s. After centrifugation (12,000 g, 25 min, at 4 °C), samples were separated into three phases: an colorless aqueous phase containing RNA, a white interphase with DNA as well as cell debris and a red organic phase containing proteins. The aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube and RNA as well as DNA was precipitated by addition of the same volume of 70% ethanol. After incubation for 2 min, samples were transferred into RNeasy spin columns. During centrifugation (10,000 g,

15 s, room temperature), nucleic acids bound to the membrane of the spin columns. Column-bound nucleic acids were washed using 350  $\mu$ l RW1 buffer. Bound DNA was digested using the RNase-free DNase Set (*Qiagen*) by adding 70  $\mu$ l RDD buffer with 10  $\mu$ l DNase I directly onto the membrane and incubating for 15 min. Digested DNA was washed off with 350  $\mu$ l RW1 buffer. RNA was washed with 500  $\mu$ l RPE buffer. Spin columns were placed onto new collection tubes and membrane was dried by centrifugation (10,000 g, 2 min, room temperature). RNA was eluted with 30  $\mu$ l RNase-free water by centrifugation (10,000 g, 3 min, room temperature). RNA concentration was determined using NanoDrop (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*).

### 2.5.2.2 cDNA Synthesis

RNA was reverse transcribed with the High Capacity cDNA RT Kit (*Applied Biosystems*). RNA was diluted to a concentration of 100 ng/ $\mu$ l. RNA samples and 2x cDNA mastermix were mixed with a 1:1 ratio (**Tab. 8**). Transcription was performed by the Flex Cycler<sup>2</sup> (*Analytik Jena*) at 37 °C for 2 h. Afterwards, the reverse transcriptase was inactivated by incubation for 5 min at 85 °C. cDNA was diluted with RNase-free water to a final concentration of 12.5 ng/ $\mu$ l.

Component	Volume/reaction [ $\mu$ l]
10x RT Buffer	2,0
25x dNTP Mix	0,8
10x RT Random Primers	2,0
Multiscribe Reverse Transcriptase	1,0
<i>total</i>	5,8

**Tab. 8:** Mastermix used for cDNA synthesis.

### 2.5.2.3 Quantitative Real-Time PCR (qPCR)

Gene expression were analyzed by qPCR using the TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix (**Tab. 9**). qPCR assay was prepared and analyzed in 384-well plates using the QuantStudio™ 6 Flex Real-Time PCR System (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*).

Component	Volume/reaction [μl]
TaqMan Mastermix	5,0
specific TaqMan probe (FAM-MGB)	0,3
reference TaqMan probe (VIC-MGB)	0,3
H <sub>2</sub> O	0,4
<i>total</i>	6,0

**Tab. 9:** Mastermix used for qPCR.

50 ng cDNA was mixed with TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix to a final volume of 10 μl. Probes from *Thermo Fisher Scientific* shown in **Tab. 10** were chosen. *Tbp* was used as reference gene.

Gene	Catalog number	Gene	Catalog number
<i>Akt1</i>	Mm01331624_m1	<i>Jag1</i>	Mm00496902_m1
<i>Bax</i>	Mm00432050_m1	<i>Jag2</i>	Mm01325629_m1
<i>Bbc3</i>	Mm00519268_m1	<i>Mdm2</i>	Mm00487657_m1
<i>Bcl2</i>	Mm00477631_m1	<i>Notch1</i>	Mm00435245_m1
<i>Cdkn1a</i>	Mm01303209_m1	<i>Notch2</i>	Mm00803077_m1
<i>Dll1</i>	Mm01279269_m1	<i>Notch3</i>	Mm00435270_m1
<i>Dll3</i>	Mm00432854_m1	<i>Notch4</i>	Mm00440525_m1
<i>Dll4</i>	Mm00444619_m1	<i>Pdcd10</i>	Mm00479023_m1
<i>Dtx1</i>	Mm00492297_m1	<i>Ppm1d</i>	Mm00450393_m1
<i>Fas</i>	Mm01204974_m1	<i>Pten</i>	Mm00477208_m1
<i>Heyl</i>	Mm00516555_m1	<i>s100a4</i>	Mm00803372_g1
<i>Hes1</i>	Mm00468601_m1	<i>Tbp</i>	Mm00446973_m1
<i>Hes5</i>	Mm00439311_g1	<i>Trp53</i>	Mm01731290_g1

**Tab. 10:** qPCR probes of gene of interest and reference gene.

## 2.6 Protein Analysis

### 2.6.1 Flow Cytometry

Flow cytometry provides a method to study cells based on specific light scattering and fluorescent characteristics of single cells. Expression of either surface, intracellular or nuclear proteins can further be detected by staining cells with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies (**Tab. 11**) whereas cells expressing endogenous fluorescent proteins like eGFP can be directly detected. For flow cytometry, primary cells out of peripheral blood, spleen, and bone marrow were isolated and analyzed. All centrifugation steps were performed at 300 g, 4 °C for 10 min.

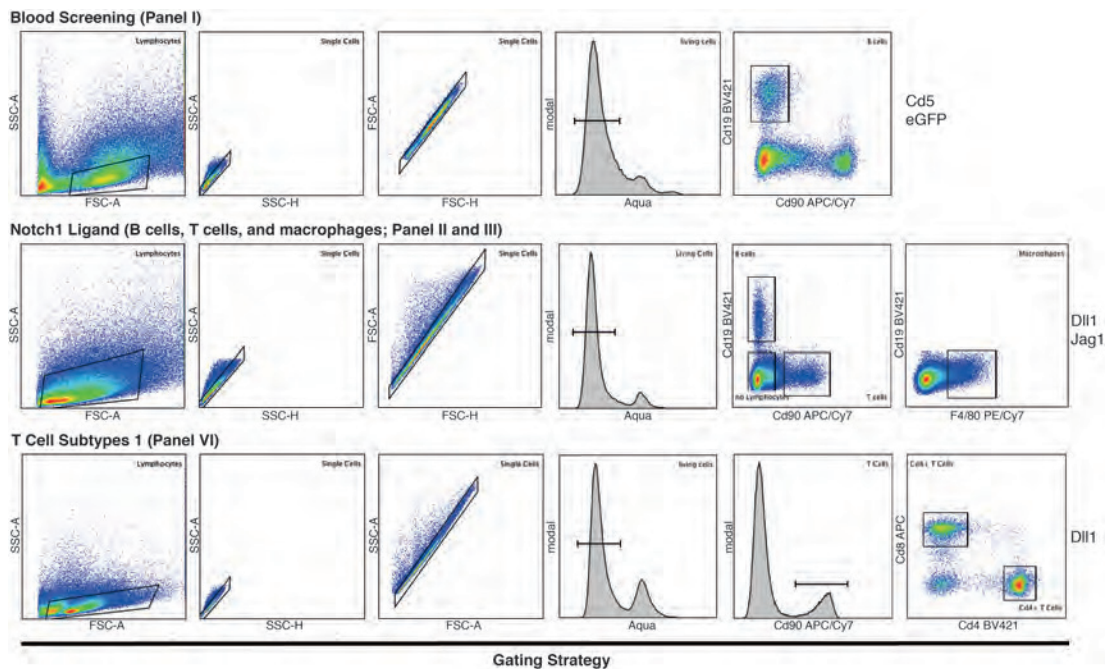
#### 2.6.1.1 Staining of Extracellular Proteins

Primary murine cells were stained against various antibody panels listed in **Tab. 11** and **Tab. 12**. Dilutions of antibodies were used as recommended by the manufacturer or adjusted by titration experiments. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation before being resuspended in 50 µl staining solution composed of FACS buffer, TruSain fcX<sup>TM</sup> anti-mouse Cd16/32 antibody (*BioLegend*) as blocking solution, and fluorochrome-labeled antibodies of interest.

Antibody	Fluorochrome	Dilution	Company	Panel No.
Cd4 (GK1.5)	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	VI
Cd5 (53-7.3)	PE/Cy5	1:150	BioLegend	I, II, III
Cd8 (53-6.7)	APC	1:60	BioLegend	VI
Cd19 (6G5)	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	I, II, III
Cd90.2 (30-H12)	APC/Cy7	1:60	BioLegend	I, II, III, VI
DII1 (HMD1-3)	PE	1:100	BioLegend	II, IV
F4/80 (BM8)	PE/Cy7	1:50	BioLegend	II, III
Jag1 (E-12)	PE	1:100	BioLegend	III
-	Aqua	1:250	Thermo Fisher	all

**Tab. 11: Antibodies used for extracellular staining analyzed by flow cytometry.** APC: Allophycocyanin, BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, Cy5: Cyanine5, Cy7: Cyanine7, PE: Phycoerythrin.

Cells were incubated with extracellular antibodies (**Tab. 11**) for 15 min at room temperature protected from light. Cells were washed twice with 1 ml FACS buffer before being resuspended in 200  $\mu$ l FACS buffer. Stained samples were analyzed immediately by MACSQuant 10. Additionally, an unstained sample was measured as negative control to reduce effects of autofluorescence. The following gating strategies were applied (**Fig.2.1**).



**Fig. 2.1: Gating strategy for flow cytometry experiments with extracellular staining.** Cells were identified *via* FSC-A vs. SSC-A dot blots and single cells *via* both SSC-H vs SSC-A as well as FSC-H vs FSC-A dot blots. Apoptotic cells were gated out using Live/Dead Aqua staining. APC: Allophycocyanin, BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, Cy5: Cyanine5, Cy7: Cyanine7, FSC-A/H: forward scatter-area/height, PE: Phycoerythrin, SSC-A/H: side scatter-area/height.

### 2.6.1.2 Staining of Intracellular Proteins

For intracellular staining, the eBioscience™ Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*) was used. Cells were fixed after extracellular staining (see chapter 2.6.1.1) by 500  $\mu$ l Foxp3 Fixation/Permeabilization solution. Cells were incubated for 1 h on ice protected from light. Afterwards, cells were directly perme-

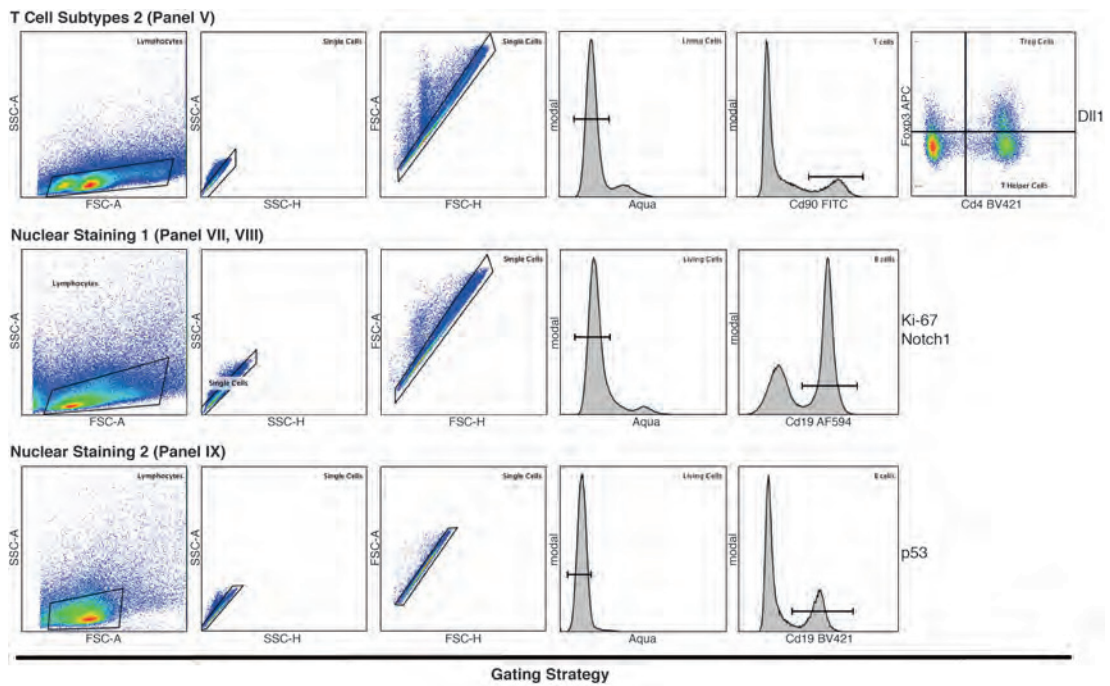
abilized using 1 ml 1x Permeabilization buffer and centrifuged (600 g, 15 min, room temperature). After washing, 50 µl intracellular staining solution was added for at least 30 min at room temperature protected from light (**Tab. 12**).

Antibody	Fluorochrome	Dilution	Company	Panel No.
Cd4 (GK1.5)	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	V
Cd5 (53-7.3)	AF647	1:100	BioLegend	VII, VIII
Cd19 (GD5)	AF594	1:100	BioLegend	VII, VIII
Cd19 (GD5)	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	IX
Cd90.2 (30-H12)	FITC	1:150	BioLegend	V
DII1 (HMD1-3)	PE	1:100	BioLegend	V
Foxp3 (FJK-16s) *	APC	1:150	Thermo Fisher	V
Ki-67 (11F6) *	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	VII
Notch1 (HMN1-12) *	BV421	1:100	BioLegend	VIII
p53 (1C12) *	AF647	1:100	Cell Signaling	IX
-	Aqua	1:250	Thermo Fisher	all

**Tab. 12: Antibodies used for intracellular staining analyzed by flow cytometry.** Marked (\*) antibodies were stained after fixation and permeabilization. AF594: AlexaFluor 594, AF647: AlexaFluor 647, APC: Allophycocyanin, BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, FITC: Fluorescein isothiocyanate, PE: Phycoerythrin.

Cells were washed twice and resuspended in 200 µl FACS buffer. Samples were stored at 4 °C until measurement by MACSQuant 10 and MACSQuant VYB *via* flow cytometry.

The following gating strategies were applied for extracellular staining (**Fig.2.2**).



**Fig. 2.2: Gating strategy for flow cytometry experiments with intracellular staining.** Lymphocytes were identified *via* FSC-A vs. SSC-A dot plots and single cells *via* both SSC-H vs SSC-A as well as FSC-H vs FSC-A dot plots. Apoptotic cells were gated out using Live/Dead Aqua staining. APC: Allophycocyanin, BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, FITC: Fluorescein isothiocyanate, FSC-A/H: forward scatter-area/height, PE: Phycoerythrin, SSC-A/H: side scatter-area/height.

## 2.6.2 Western Blot Analysis

### 2.6.2.1 Protein Isolation

Western blot analysis allows to detect and relatively quantify specific proteins and phosphoproteins from cell lysates. Cell samples were incubated in 50  $\mu$ l 1x RIPA buffer supplemented with phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and PhosphoSTOP for 1 h at 4  $^{\circ}$ C to lyse cells. Cell debris were harvested by centrifugation (17,000 g, 10 min, at 4  $^{\circ}$ C) at which the through-over contains proteins. Protein concentration was determined by Nanodrop (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*) and Pierce<sup>TM</sup> BCA Protein Assay Kit (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*). For the Pierce BCA protein assay, protein samples were 1:100 diluted in DEPC water and mixed with the BCA mastermix. Samples were incubated for 30 min at 37  $^{\circ}$ C. After cooling down the samples to room temperature, the



absorbance of samples was determined at 562 nm. Protein concentration was calculated using standard curves. Samples were diluted to a final concentration of 20 µg with 1x Laemmli sample buffer supplemented with 10% β-mercaptoethanol.

### 2.6.2.2 SDS Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and Western blot

Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was performed using Mini-PROTEAN® Series (*BioRad*). Samples were boiled for 10 min at 95 °C to denature proteins before being loaded on 10% agarose gel (*BioRad*) together with 15 µl PageRuler Prestained Protein Ladder. The agarose gel run at 150 V. The transfer onto a PVDF-membrane (*BioRad*) was performed using Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (program: midi, 7 min, *BioRad*). PVDF-membranes were blocked for 2 h at room temperature in the same blocking solution as used for primary antibodies (**Tab.13**). PVDF-membranes were probed with the appropriate primary antibody added to blocking solution overnight at 4 °C.

Antibody	Species	Ratio	Company	Cat. Number
α Phospho-Akt (Ser473)	rabbit	1:2,000	Cell Signaling	4060
α panAkt	rabbit	1:2,000	Cell Signaling	4685S
α Calnexin, C-Terminal	rabbit	1:10,000	Sigma-Aldrich	208880
α rabbit-HRP	goat	1:2,000	Sigma-Aldrich	A6154

**Tab. 13: Antibodies used for Western blot analysis.** HRP: horseradish peroxidase.

Unbound antibodies were removed by five washing steps with TBS-T for 5 min each time (**Tab.14**). Immunoreactivity was detected with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-labeled secondary antibodies (**Tab.13**). PVDF-membranes were incubated into blocking solution containing secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. Proteins were visualized on the FUSION Solo (*Vilber*) using ECL super signal (*Thermo Fisher*



*Scientific*) as substrate. Images were analyzed and proteins were relatively quantified using ImageJ software. If necessary, PVDF-membranes were stripped in Stripping buffer containing 2%  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol at 56 °C for 30 min for further protein analysis.

Buffer	Component	Amount
Blocking solution	10% (v/v)	10x Western Blocking
	90% (v/v)	Reagen TBS-T
Blocking solution (BSA)	5% (v/v)	BSA
	95%	TBS-T
Blocking solution (milk powder)	5% (v/v)	Milk powder
	95%	TBS-T
SDS-running buffer	Tris	25 mM
	Glycin	200 mM
	SDS	0.1%
Stripping buffer	SDS	2%
	Tris	625 mM
	$\beta$ -mercaptoethanol	0.8%
TBS	1.47 M	NaCl
	0.2 M	Tris (pH 7.5)
TBS-T	Tris	50 mM
	NaCl	140 mM
	Tween20	0.05%

**Tab. 14: Buffer used for Western blot analysis.**

### 2.6.3 Proteomics and Phosphoproteomics

Proteomics and phosphoproteomics were used to analyze the proteome including protein levels as well as their phosphorylation states. Cd19<sup>+</sup> purified B cells (2.4.3) were dissolved in 200  $\mu$ l Urea/Thiourea buffer (**Tab.15**). The reducing agent dithiothreitol (1 mM) was added to samples and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. Indole-3-acetic acid (5.5 mM) was added and incubate for 45 min at room temperature in the dark. 800  $\mu$ g of total proteins were digested two times with LysC (0,5 ng/ $\mu$ l) with a 1:100 ratio at room temperature overnight. For desalting of samples, samples were acidified using trifluoroacetic acid (TFA, 1%). The supernatant was collected after centrifugation (full speed, 10 min, room temperature). A C<sub>18</sub> column (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*) was

activated with 2 ml 100% acetonitrile (ACN). After washing with 1 ml 0.1% TFA, samples were loaded on column. The column was washed three times with 1 ml 0.1% TFA. Peptides were eluted with elution buffer (**Tab.15**). A quarter of samples were taken for proteome analysis by mass spectrometry (*Bruker Daltonics*).

Desalted samples were enriched using the High-Select TiO<sub>2</sub>Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit (*Thermo Fisher Scientific*) to receive phosphoproteins. For TiO<sub>2</sub> extraction, dried peptide samples were suspended in 150 µl Binding/Equilibration buffer. 200 µl Wash buffer was added to TiO<sub>2</sub>spin tip before centrifugation (3,000 g, 2 min, room temperature). 20 µl Binding/Equilibration buffer was added to spin tip and centrifuged (3,000 g, 2 min, room temperature). To bind phosphopeptides, 150 µl suspended peptide samples were added to the spin tip and centrifuged (1,000 g, 5 min, room temperature). Column was washed two times with 20 µl Binding/Equilibration buffer and centrifuged (3,000 g, 2 min, room temperature). 20 µl LC-MS grade water was added to column and centrifuged (3,000 g, 2 min, room temperature). Phosphopeptides were eluted using 50 µl Phosphopeptide Elution buffer and centrifuged (1,000 g, 5 min, room temperature). To enhance phosphopeptide concentration, the elution step was repeated. Eluted phosphopeptide samples were immediately dried in a speed vacuum concentrator to remove Phosphopeptide Elution buffer and resuspended in 15 µl 5% FA and 2% ACN. Prepared proteomic and phosphoproteomic samples were measured *via* mass spectrometry (*Bruker Daltonics*) by Dr. Janica Wiederstein (Krüger lab, CECAD).

Buffer	Component	Amount
Urea/Thiourea buffer	Urea	6 M
	Thiourea	2 M
	Hepes pH 7.4	500 M
Elution buffer	ACN	60%
	FA	0.1%

**Tab. 15:** Buffer used for proteomics and phosphoproteomics.

## 2.7 Immunohistochemical and Immunofluorescent Staining

Murine spleen was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for at least 3 days at room temperature. Paraffin-embedded samples were deparaffinized and stained after retrieval.

### 2.7.1 H&E Staining

For H&E staining of murine samples, sections were incubated in Mayer's Haematoxylin solution for 2 min. Excess staining was washed off with water and further incubated in tap water for 15 min. Sections were washed using ddH<sub>2</sub>O and incubated in Eosin for 15 min. Stained sections were washed with tap water for five times. Samples were incubated in 75% ethanol for 1 min, in 90% ethanol for 1 min, in isopropanol for 1 min and in xylol for 1 min for dehydration. Finally, samples were mounted using Entellan and imaged with AxioVision 4.2 (*Carl Zeiss MicroImaging*) using bright field microscopy.

### 2.7.2 Immunofluorescent Staining

For immunofluorescent staining of human biopsies and murine spleens, deparaffinized sections after retrieval were added to Tris-buffered saline (TBS) buffer for 10 min and three time to TBS buffer with 0.05% Tween-20 for 5 min. Sections were blocked in 1% hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and incubated three time in TBS buffer with 0.05% Tween-20 for 5 min. Samples were blocked in TNB buffer (*PerkinElmer*) for 20 min. First antibodies in blocking buffer were incubated overnight on room temperature in the dark (**Tab.16**). Antibodies were washed off using TBS buffer with 0.05% Tween-20 three times for 5 min. Samples were incubated in horseradish peroxidase (HRP, 1:100) for 30 min at room temperature protected from light. Samples were washed three time using TBS buffer with 0.05% Tween-20 for 5 min. Using TSA Signal Amplification Kit

(*PerkinElmer*), Cyanine 3 was incubated on sections as fluorochrome with a 1:100 ratio and washed three time in TBS buffer with 0.05% Tween-20 for 5 min. Finally, samples were counterstained with DAPI (1:1,000, *Hoechst*) and mounted. Sections were imaged with AxioVision 4.2 (*Carl Zeiss MicroImaging*).

Antibody	Species	Ratio	Company	Cat. Number
$\alpha$ pAKT Ser473	anti-rat	1:100	Cell Signaling	#3787

**Tab. 16: Antibodies used for immunofluorescent staining.**

## 2.8 Statistical Analysis

Mice of indicated genotype were randomly assigned to groups, regardless of gender but taking age (weeks) at organ collection into account. All mouse studies were performed in a blinded fashion. GraphPad Prism software package was used for statistical analysis and illustration. Proteomics and phosphoproteomics were illustrated and calculated using Instant Clue software (Nolte et al., 2018). Gene Ontology (GO) Enrichment Analysis (n=20 terms, P-value cutoff (FDR) < 0.05) was performed using ShinyGO v0.61 software. P values were determined with a unpaired Student's t-test or a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test with an One- or Two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher Least Significant Difference (LSD) (see Figure legends). P values below 0.05 were considered significant, \* $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ .

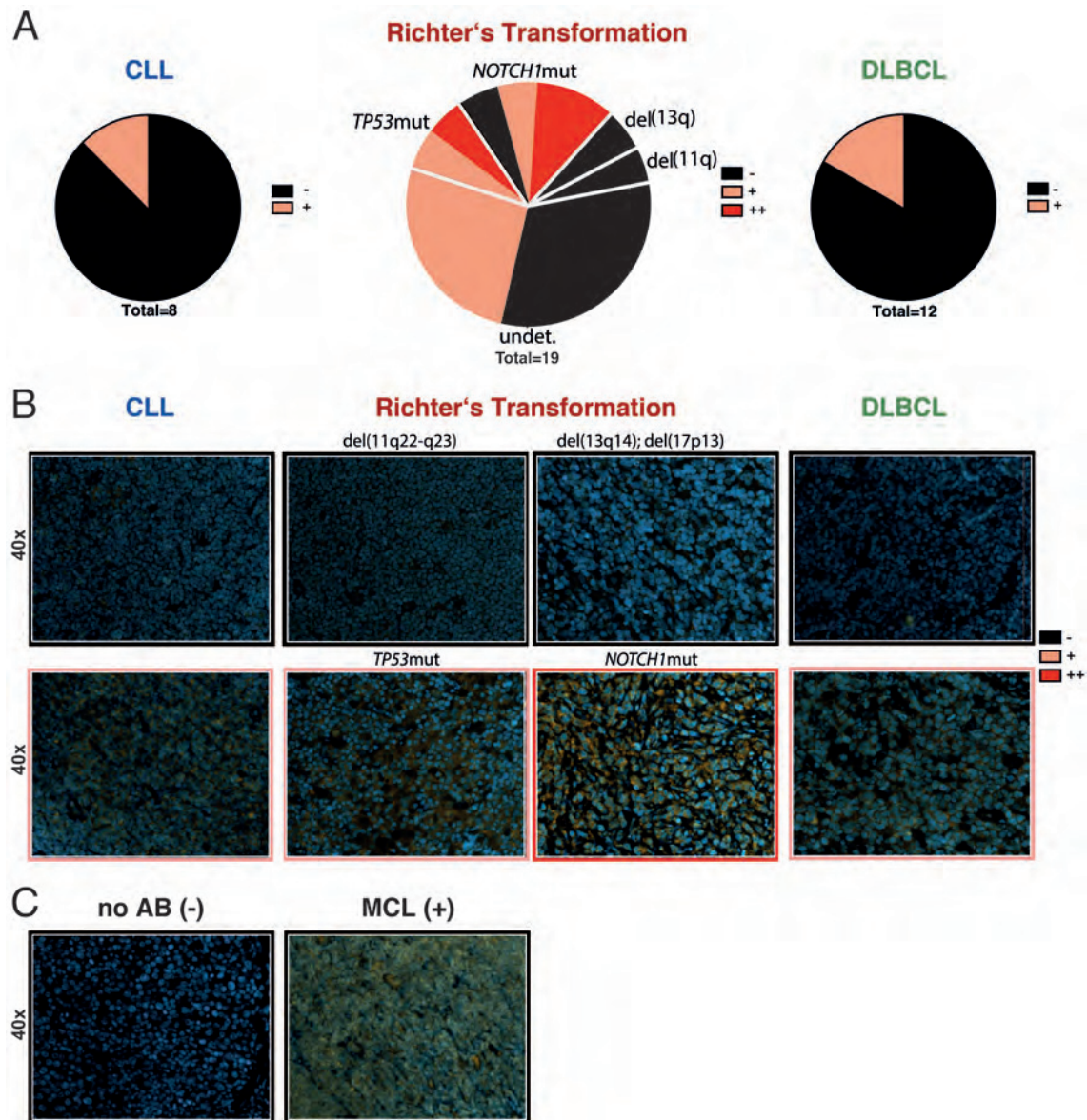
## 3 Results

### 3.1 Human RT Biopsies Display Overactivated AKT

The BCR pathway is required for the proliferation, activation, and survival of mature B cells and was proven as the most prominent signaling particularly in CLL (Herishanu, Pérez-Galán, et al., 2011). It was hypothesized that BCR stimulation and its downstream pathways including PI3K/AKT and IKK/NF- $\kappa$ B, correlates with worse prognosis of CLL (Jan A. Burger and Chiorazzi, 2013). CLL reveals a variable clinical outcome ranging from indolent disease to aggressive forms, such as RT. RT describes a clonal transformation from CLL into an aggressive NHL with the histomorphological characteristics of a DLBCL (Richter, 1928; Parikh et al., 2013). Despite the suggested involvement of PI3K/AKT signaling in an aggressive course of CLL, this correlation had never been studied in RT patients. This might be due to the fact that RT rarely contains activating PI3K/AKT or PTEN null mutations (Schrader et al., 2014).

To fill the gap in knowledge, human CLL (n=8), DLBCL (n=12), and RT (n=19) sections were immunohistochemically analyzed for steady-state levels of activated AKT using Ser473 phosphorylation antibody. Active AKT was detected in 12.5% of CLL and 16.7% of DLBCL tumor biopsies. Contrarily, the majority of RT patients (52.6%) stained positive for active AKT (**Fig.3.1A**). Mantle cell lymphoma (MCL, n=9) sections were used as positive control due to the widely accepted, constitutive activation of AKT involved

in pathogenesis (**Fig.3.1C**) (Rudelius et al., 2006; Col et al., 2008).



**Fig. 3.1: Active Akt in human RT tumor biopsies with *Notch1* or *TP53* mutations.** **A** Ratio of CLL (n=8), RT (n=19), and DLBCL (n=12) patients without (-, black), with (+, light red), and with excessive (++, red) signal for pAKT (Ser473) via immunohistochemistry. The classification of pAKT (Ser473) signal was independently decided upon by five project-unrelated assessors without any information about samples. **B** Immunohistochemical representatives (magnification: 40-times) for human tumor biopsies without (-, outlined in black), with (+, outlined in light red), and with excessive (++, outlined in red) signal for pAKT (Ser473) used for **A**. **C** Immunohistochemical representatives of controls. Human MCL samples were used as positive control. The negative control was only incubated with the secondary but not with the primary pAKT (Ser473) antibody. AB: antibody, CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, DLBCL: diffuse large B cell lymphoma, MCL: mantle cell lymphoma; yellow: pAKT (Ser473), blue: DAPI.



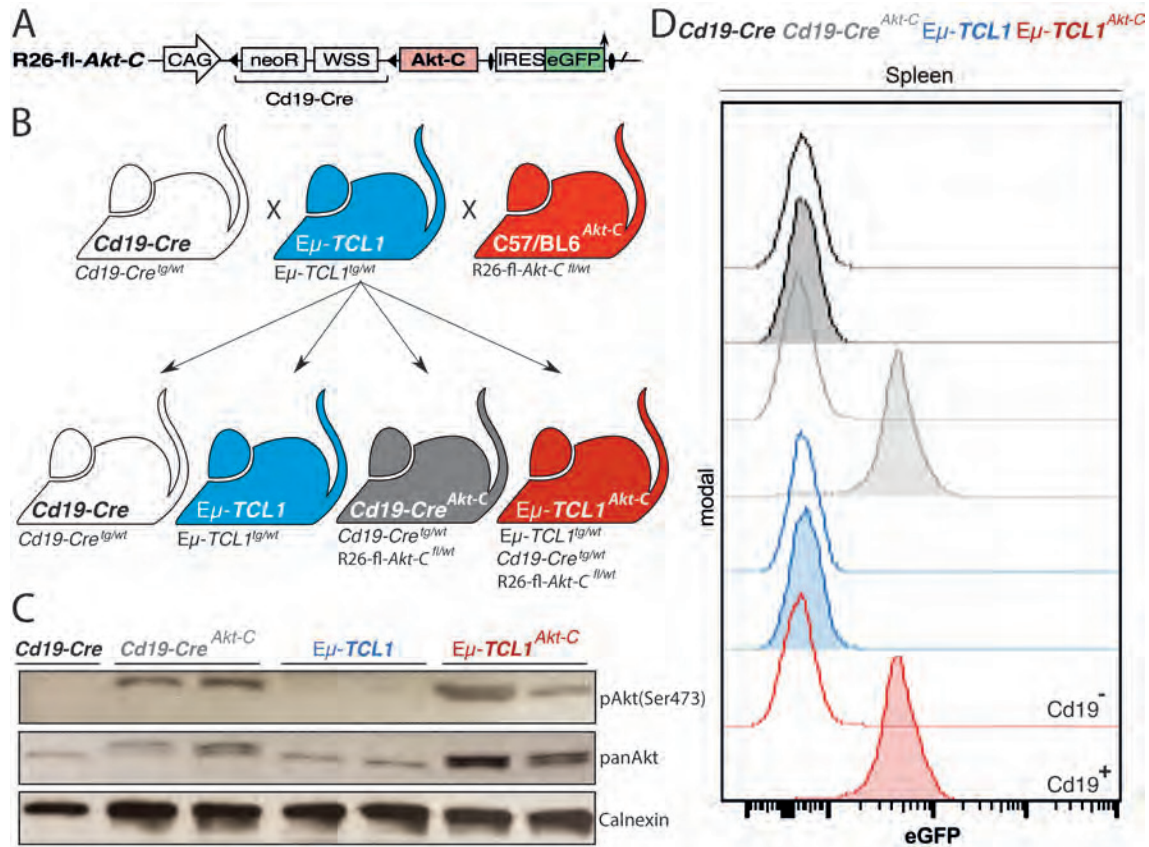
Moreover, various strengths of phosphorylated AKT were determined for RT sections. RT patients harboring somatic mutations in *NOTCH1* or *TP53* genes exhibited moderate to high levels of active AKT whereas activated AKT was absent in RT patients possessing *del(11q)*, the site of the *ATM* gene and the *miR34b/c* cluster (Stankovic and Skowronska, 2014), or *del(13q)* aberrations including *DLEU2*, *MIR15A*, and *MIR16-1* genes (**Fig.3.1A,B**) (Cimmino et al., 2005; Klein et al., 2010). These results correlate with Western blot data of Dr. Mona al-Maarri showing a high variability of steady state levels of activated AKT in primary, human CLL samples. While most CLL samples showed low levels of active AKT, samples with mutations appeared to be present in progressive cases, mainly *NOTCH1* and *TP53* mutations, revealed augmented activation of AKT by Ser473-phosphorylation (Kohlhaas et al., 2020). Collectively, RT and progressive CLL patients display enhanced AKT activation, especially in presence of *NOTCH1* and *TP53* somatic mutations.

## **3.2 B Cell-Specific *Akt-C* Expression in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Transgenic CLL Mice Drives RT**

### **3.2.1 Generation of the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* CLL Mouse Model with B Cell-Specific *Akt-C* Expression**

To study the relevance and function of activated Akt kinase in the progression of CLL *in vivo*, a common CLL mouse model, the E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>tg/wt</sup> (termed E $\mu$ -*TCL1*) mice (Bichi et al., 2002), was characterized in the presence of B cell-specific constitutive active Akt. For this purpose, a ROSA26 (R26) mouse line was generated in which a loxP-flanked stop cassette prevents the expression of a N-terminal myristoylation tagged murine *Akt1* gene, named *Akt-C*, and the reporter gene *eGFP* (enhanced green fluo-

rescent protein, **Fig.3.2A**). The N-terminal myristoylation tag directs Akt-C to the cell membrane to initiate its continuous activation through phosphorylation at Thr308. Akt is fully activated by further phosphorylation at Ser473 (Liao and Hung, 2010).



**Fig. 3.2: Validation of the Akt-C construct expressed in B cells.** **A** Scheme of the Akt-C construct. **B** Scheme of the breeding strategy to receive experimental  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice. **C** Representative Western blot of pAKT (Ser473) and total Akt in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age. Calnexin was used as loading control. **D** Representative blot of eGFP in  $Cd19^{-}$  (uncolored) and  $Cd19^{+}$  (colored) splenocytes of indicated mice at 7-8 months age via flow cytometry. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H). Akt-C: constitutive active Akt, CAG: cytomegalovirus early enhancer/chicken  $\beta$  actin, eGFP: enhanced green fluorescent protein, IRES: internal ribosomal entry site, neoR: neomycin resistance, WSS: Westphal stop sequence.

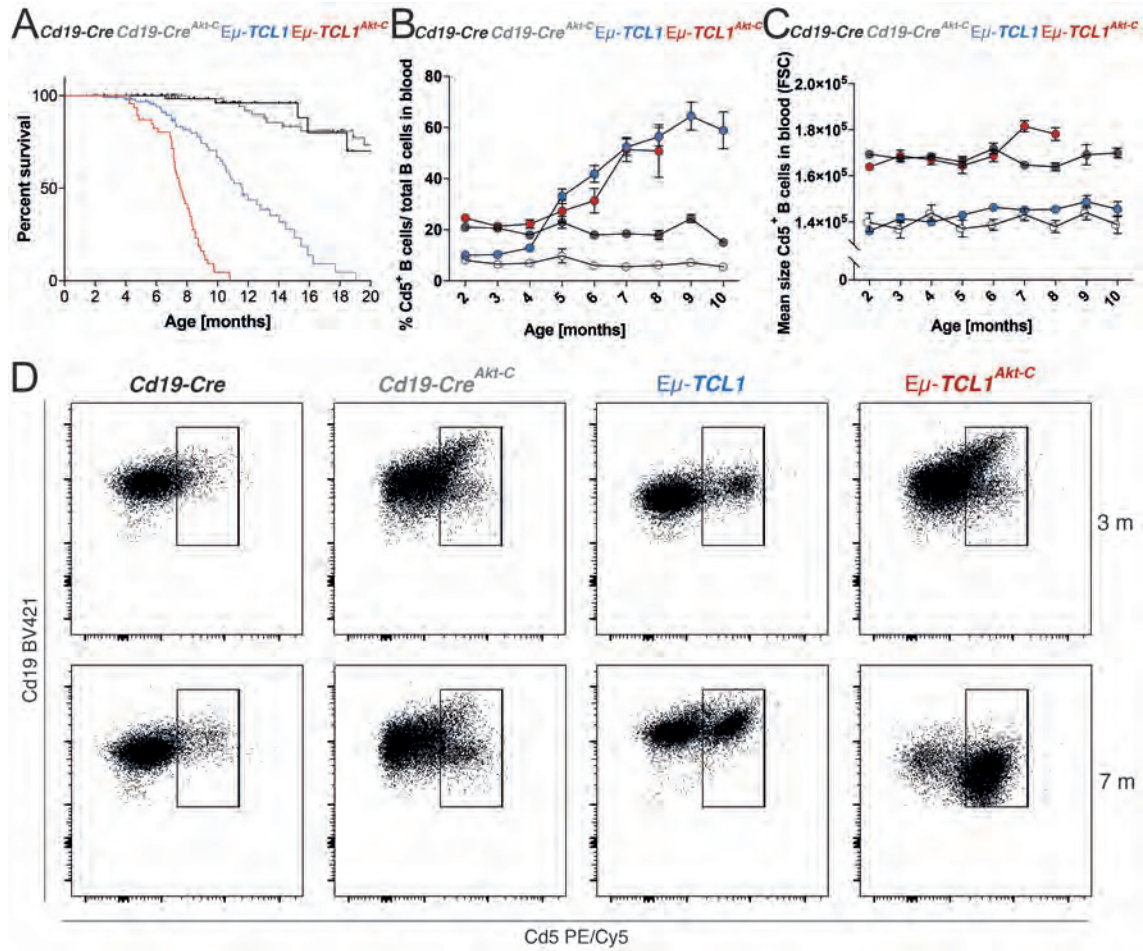
To investigate the impact of Akt-C in CLL,  $R26-fl-Akt-C^{fl/wt}$  mice were intercrossed with  $Cd19-Cre^{tg/wt}$  (termed  $Cd19-Cre$ ) mice yielding  $Cd19-Cre^{tg/wt}; R26-fl-Akt-C^{fl/wt}$  (termed  $Cd19-Cre^{Akt-C}$ ) mice to express Akt-C specifically in  $Cd19^{+}$  B cells.  $Cd19-Cre^{Akt-C}$  mice were further intercrossed with the  $E\mu-TCL1$  transgenic CLL mouse model to obtain experimental  $E\mu-TCL1^{tg/wt}; Cd19-Cre^{tg/wt}; R26-fl-Akt-C^{fl/wt}$  (termed  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$ ) mice



(**Fig.3.2B**). While E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice display a B cell-restricted overexpression of human *TCL1*, E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice additionally express the constitutive active *Akt1* variant in B cells. The specificity of *Akt-C* expression was validated by the B cell-restricted eGFP expression in both *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Akt-C</sup> and E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice (**Fig.3.2D**). The overactivation of Akt was detected by phosphorylation on the activating residue Ser473 in splenic B cells of *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Akt-C</sup> and E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice. Both the endogenous and the N-terminal myristoylation tagged Akt protein were monitored in B cells of *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Akt-C</sup> and E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice causing two bands with different molecular weights (**Fig.3.2C**).

### 3.2.2 B Cell-Specific *Akt-C* Expression in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Transgenic CLL Mice Causes a Decreased Survival Capacity

CLL cells are predominantly identified by the expression of Cd5, a common T cell surface receptor and marker for B-1a cells, on Cd19<sup>+</sup> B cells. The CLL course was monitored by monthly screening of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells in peripheral blood *via* flow cytometry. CLL cells occurred in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice at 4-5 months age and in E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice at 6-7 months age. Despite the various ages of incidence, the course of CLL proceeded similarly in both mouse models (**Fig.3.3B**). The median survival of E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice amounted 11.6 months whereas survival decreased markedly in E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice to a median survival of 7.6 months independent of gender. Almost all E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice (96%) died until 10 months of age whereas 67% of E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice survived this time point (**Fig.3.3A**). This confirms a rapidly evolving, aggressive outcome of CLL in E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice.

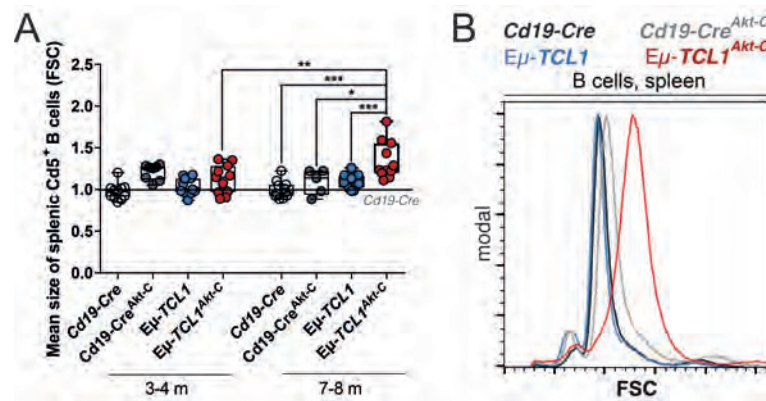


**Fig. 3.3: B cell-specific *Akt-C* expression in *Eμ-TCL1* mice promotes progressive CLL.** **A** Kaplan-Meier survival curve of indicated mice (n=45-50 mice per genotype). **B** Relative quantification (%) and **C** relative cell size (FSC) of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells in peripheral blood taken monthly from indicated mice (n=25-30 mice per genotype) *via* flow cytometry. Due to premature death, curve of *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice ends at 8 months age. **D** Representative blots of extracellular Cd5 PE/Cy5 and Cd19 BV421 in blood-derived samples of indicated mice at 3 and 7 months age *via* flow cytometry. The gating to define Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells is shown and used for the quantification in **B** and **C**. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H). Data are presented as means ± SEM (**B,C**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, FSC: forward scatter, PE/Cy5: tandem fluorochrome composed of phycoerythrin (PE) and cyanine 5 (Cy5).

*Cd19-Cre* and *Cd19-Cre<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice revealed neither affected survival capacity nor CLL cells at any age but a constant low level of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells in peripheral blood (**Fig.3.3B,D**). This assumption is supported by studies showing that the mature B cell selection into B-1a and MZ B cells is compromised in absence of Akt1/Akt2 (Calamito et al., 2010). However, *Cd19-Cre<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice featured a B cell-intrinsic phenotype without leukemia/lymphomagenesis at any age (Cox et al, submitted).

### 3.2.3 B Cell-Specific *Akt-C* Expression in $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}$ Transgenic CLL Mice Drives RT

RT is characterized as rapid transformation from indolent CLL to an aggressive DL-BCL, advanced by acquired RT-related somatic aberrations. As characteristic, RT cells can be identified by their cell enlargement. Relative cell sizes of  $\text{Cd5}^+$  B cells were determined by the FSC (forward scatter) *via* flow cytometry.

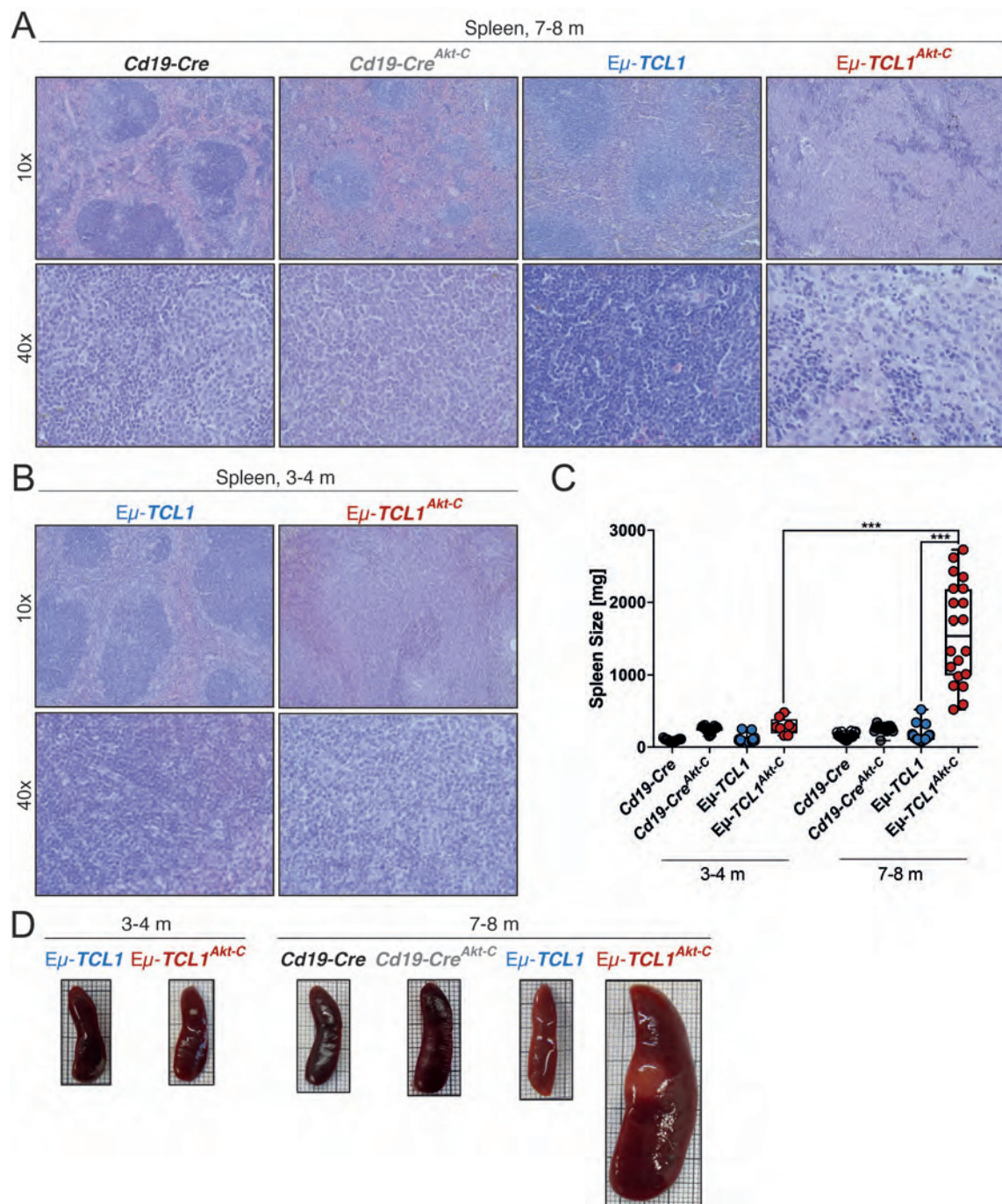


**Fig. 3.4: B cell-specific *Akt-C* expression in  $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}$  mice causes cancer cell enlargement.**

**A** Relative mean cell size (FSC) of splenic  $\text{Cd5}^+$  B cells of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. **B** Representative blot of FSC of splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H). Data were normalized on 3-4 months old  $\text{Cd19-Cre}$  mice in **A**. Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in  $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}^{\text{Akt-C}}$  mice. Data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A**). \* $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**A**). FSC: forward scatter.

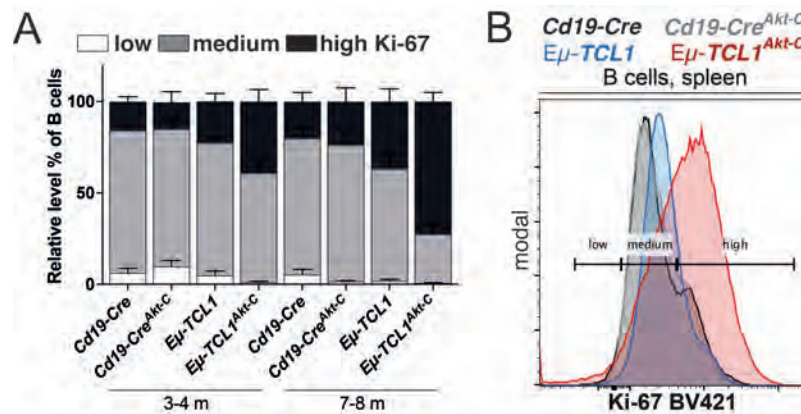
Blood and splenic CLL cells of  $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}$  mice displayed unchanged cell sizes over time, similar to  $\text{Cd19-Cre}$  mice.  $\text{Cd19-Cre}^{\text{Akt-C}}$  and  $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}^{\text{Akt-C}}$  mice exhibited larger  $\text{Cd5}^+$  B cells at any age, indicating the capacity of Akt on cell size (Faridi et al., 2003; Latronico et al., 2004). In contrast to the unaltered B cell size of  $\text{Cd19-Cre}^{\text{Akt-C}}$  mice throughout life, blood and splenic  $\text{Cd5}^+$  B cells of  $\text{E}\mu\text{-TCL1}^{\text{Akt-C}}$  mice were enlarged at 6 months of age (**Fig.3.3C, 3.4A,B**).





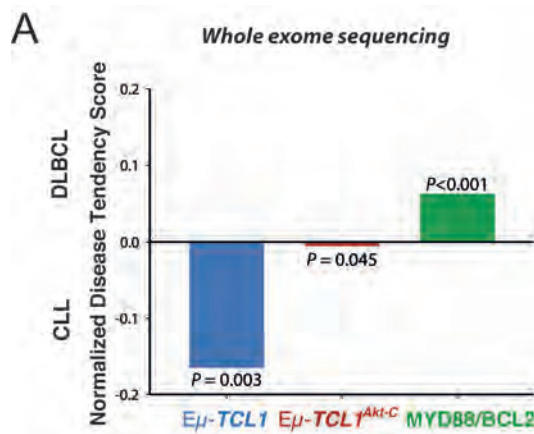
**Fig. 3.5: B cell-specific *Akt-C* expression in *Eμ-TCL1* mice drives the progression to RT.** **A,B** Histological representatives (magnification: 10- and 40-times) of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age using H&E staining. **C** Spleen sizes [mg] and **D** representative spleens of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age. Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice. Data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**C**). \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**C**).

Morphological evaluation *via* H&E staining exhibited disrupted splenic histoarchitecture in both  $E\mu-TCL1$  and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice at 7-8 months age. Splenocytes of  $E\mu-TCL1$  transgenic CLL mice displayed normal-sized cells with scant cytoplasm and inconspicuous nucleoli. Contrarily, enlarged, pleomorphic cells with degranulated nuclei and abundant cytoplasm were observed in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice after transformation (7-8 months of age), thus showing a DLBCL-like histomorphology (**Fig.3.5A**). In contrast, splenocytes of  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice before transformation (3-4 months of age) featured round nucleoplasm with inconspicuous cell sizes (**Fig.3.5B**).  $Cd19-Cre$  and  $Cd19-Cre^{Akt-C}$  mice showed ordinary histomorphology at any age. In addition, spleens of  $Cd19-Cre^{Akt-C}$  and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice were larger at any age. However,  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice revealed splenomegaly with weights up to 2870 mg (24-times increased) after transformation, a characteristic property of lymphomas. Contrarily,  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice presented normal-sized spleens at analyzed ages (**Fig.3.5C,D**).



**Fig. 3.6: B cell-specific *Akt-C* expression in  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice demonstrates high proliferative capacity.** **A** Relative level (%) of splenic B cells with low (white), medium (gray) or high (black) levels of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age (n=8-12 mice per genotype) *via* flow cytometry. **B** Representative blot of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. Gating for “medium Ki-67” was defined based on the signal (50% of the maximal amplitude) of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in  $Cd19-Cre$  mice. Augmented levels were defined as “high Ki-67”, lower levels until the unstained peak (50% of the maximal amplitude) were defined as “low Ki-67”. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H). Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice. Data are presented as box with means  $\pm$  SEM (**A**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421.

The proliferative nuclear marker Ki-67 has a strong prognostic value in CLL. The fraction of proliferating cells increases with disease progression (Bruey et al., 2010). Consequently, immoderate proliferative activity was published for RT cases (Giné et al., 2010). The intracellular staining against Ki-67 revealed augmented proliferation rates in splenic B cells of  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice *via* flow cytometry. Beside equal Ki-67 levels in both 7-8 months old  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice before transformation, RT cells of  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice displayed increased Ki-67 protein, indicating high proliferative capacity and a more progressive disease (**Fig.3.6A,B**). On average, Ki-67 levels were 2.6-times increased in 7-8 months old  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice compared to  $Cd19-Cre$  mice.  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice also showed the increase of nuclear Ki-67 protein throughout life but this was small in comparison to  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice, corresponding to the definition as a low-grade lymphoproliferative disorder (Bosch and Dalla-Favera, 2019). The proliferative capacity of  $Cd19-Cre^{Akt-C}$  mice resembled that of  $Cd19-Cre$  mice at any age.



**Fig. 3.7: Akt-induced RT cells genetically demonstrate an intermediary form between CLL and DLBCL.** **A** The mean normalized disease tendency score using splenic B cell-derived DNA samples of indicated mice at 7-8 months age *via* whole exome sequencing (WES).  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice were used as CLL control, MYD88/BCL2 mice as DLBCL control. Data were generated and analyzed by Dr. Stuart Blakemore. P values were calculated *via* binomial testing. CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, DLBCL: diffuse-large B cell lymphoma.

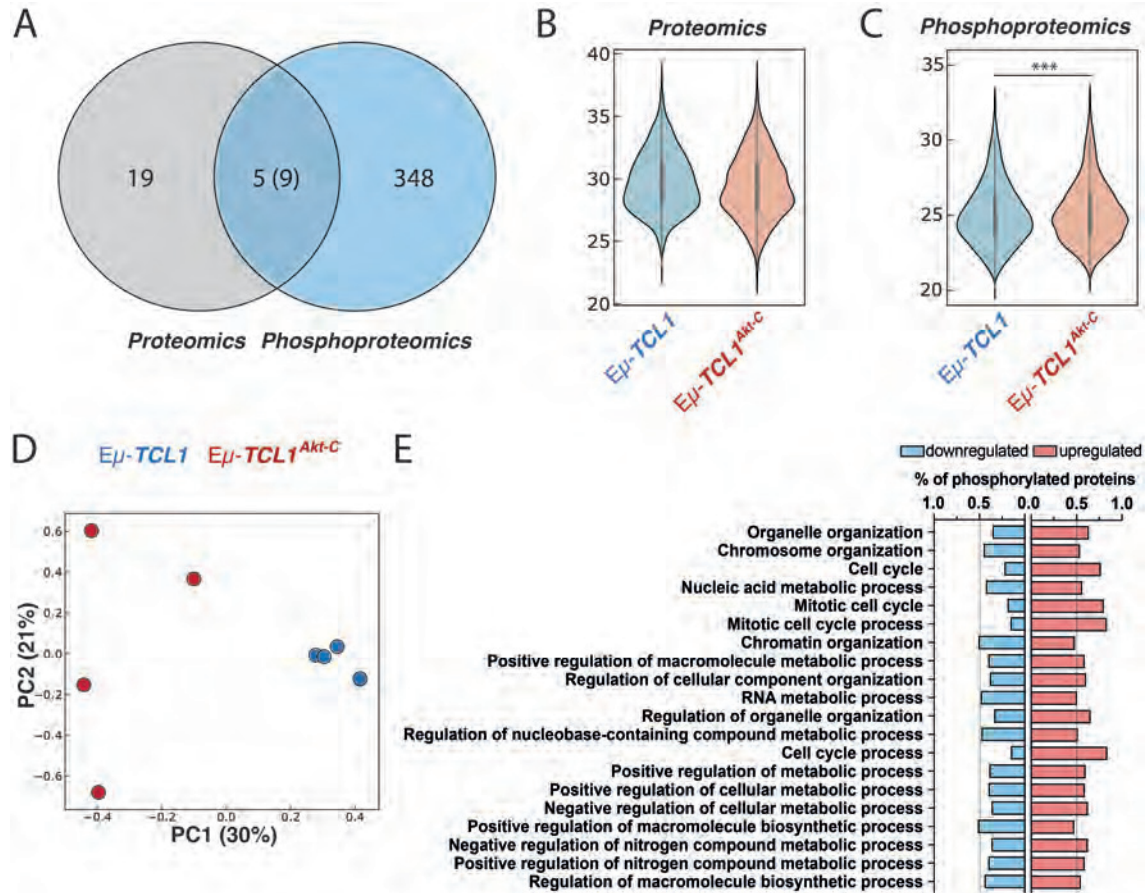
Next, it was investigated whether additional acquired mutations in E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice might drive CLL to RT. In cooperation with the Pallasch lab (CECAD), an intermediary mutational form between CLL and DLBCL has been revealed in splenic RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice (n=9) *via* WES (**Fig.3.7A**). This corresponds to the definition of RT by featuring properties of both CLL and DLBCL (Mao et al., 2007). As controls, E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice pointed out an enrichment of CLL-typical somatic alterations in leukemic cells whereas MYD88/BCL2 mice (Cd19-Cre-driven combined Myd88 and Bcl2 aberrations), a common activated B cell (ABC)-DLBCL mouse model (Knittel et al., 2016), exhibited augmented aberrations characteristically for DLBCL. Thus despite the incidence of RT-typical mutations for individual RT samples including genes of the BCR signaling or *Notch1*, recurrent mutations were absent in RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice, suggesting that RT exclusively occurred based on Akt actions as kinase (Kohlhaas et al., 2020). These findings confirm that the continuous B cell-specific activation of Akt kinase in the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* CLL mouse model causes the spontaneous transformation from CLL to RT with a disease penetrance of 100%.

### **3.2.4 (Phospho)proteomic Profiling Identifies Overexpression of *s100a4* and Reduction of *Pcdc10*, Regulated by Rbpj/Notch**

The serine/threonine kinase Akt may function as a central regulator for the transformation from CLL to RT. Akt regulates various metabolic processes involved in cell proliferation, survival, and apoptosis through phosphorylation of *inter alia* Gsk3b (Alessi, Caudwell, et al., 1996), FoxO1 (Biggs et al., 1999; Brunet et al., 1999), and Mdm2 (L. D. Mayo and Donner, 2001; Ogawara et al., 2002) (**Fig.1.6**). To identify relevant downstream actions of Akt arising in RT, alterations on protein levels and their phosphorylation states were investigated using proteomics and phosphoproteomics in collaboration



with the Krüger lab (CECAD). For this, splenic B cell-derived proteins of 7-8 months old  $E\mu-TCL1$  ( $n = 4$ ) and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  ( $n = 4$ ) mice were investigated.



**Fig. 3.8: Akt-induced RT cells reveal the enrichment of activating phosphorylation of proteins involved in cell cycle processes.** **A** Venn diagram showing numbers of proteins with different amounts (grey, proteomics) or phosphorylation states (blue, phosphoproteomics) of splenic B cells in comparison between  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  vs.  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice. Five proteins with in total nine phosphorylation sites (Akt1, Golm1, Mecp2, Nfatc1, Sp140) were significantly changed in both proteomics and phosphoproteomics. **B,C** Label-free quantification (LFQ) intensity of proteomics and phosphoproteomics of indicated mice. **D** Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of indicated mice. **E** Gene Ontology (GO) Enrichment Analysis of biological processes (n=20 terms, P-value cutoff (FDR) < 0.05) of significantly changed phosphorylation sites (phosphoproteomics) in comparison between  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  vs.  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice using ShinyGO v0.61. The measurement of samples on the mass spectrometry was carried out by Dr. Janica Wiederstein (CECAD). \*\*\*p ≤ 0.001. PC1,2: principal component 1,2.

Mice with identical genotypes exhibited similar outcome and hence, homogeneous biology of RT or CLL samples (**Fig.3.8D**). Despite the constant total amount of proteins, significantly more phosphorylated proteins were observed in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice, rep-

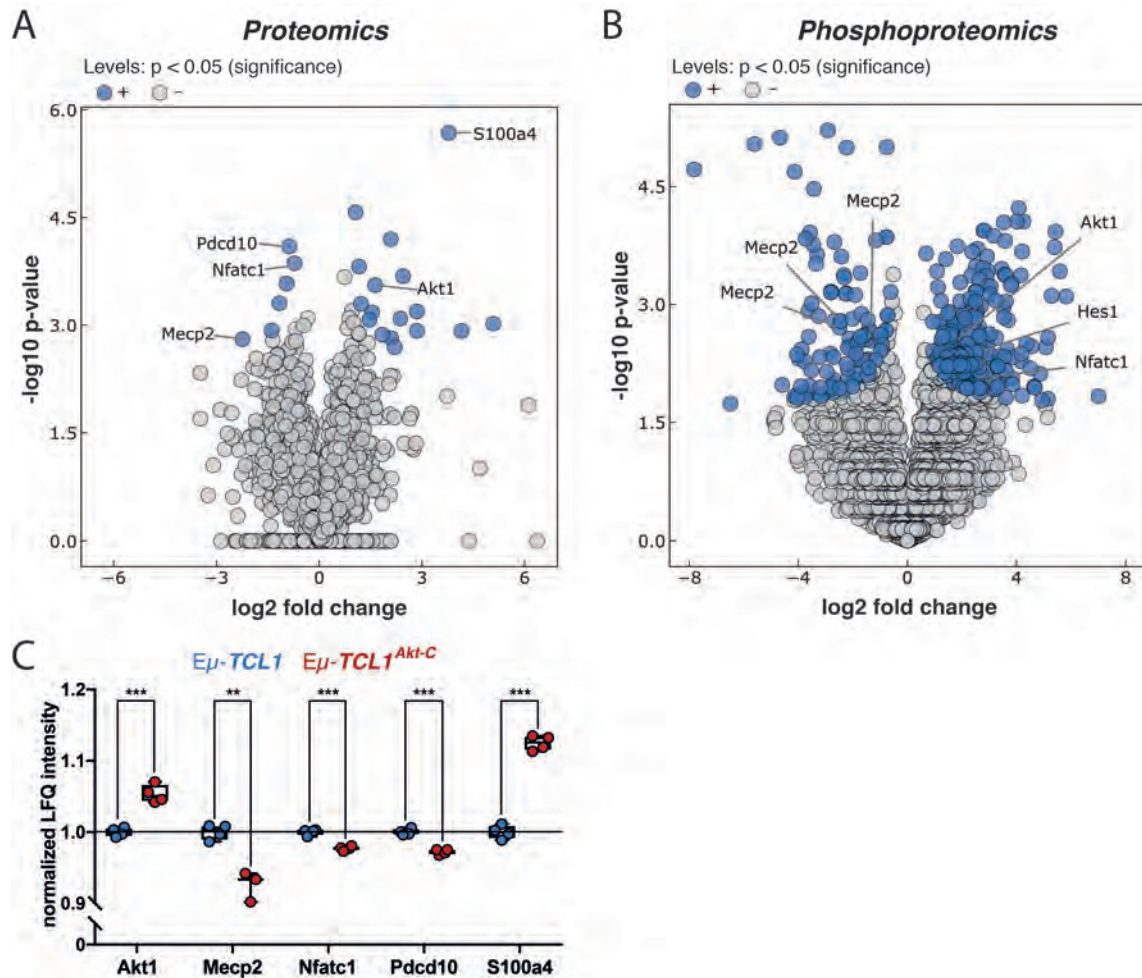


representing the activity of Akt kinase (**Fig.3.8B,C**). Most altered phosphorylation sites were enhanced phosphorylated (70.3%) in E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice. In total, 24 proteins and 357 phosphorylation sites were significantly changed in E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice compared to E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice. In RT cells, five proteins (Akt1, Golm1, Mecp2, Nfatc1, and Sp140) displayed changes on both protein levels and phosphorylation states (**Fig.3.8A**).

To identify biological processes in which Akt-mediated phosphorylated proteins were involved, Gene Ontology (GO) Enrichment Analysis (n=20 terms, P-value cutoff (FDR) < 0.05) was performed with proteins showing altered phosphorylation using ShinyGO v0.61 software. Changed phosphorylated proteins were involved in an abundance of processes including cell cycle, epigenetic regulation, and biosynthesis (**Fig.3.8E**). While most processes revealed equal levels of up- and downregulated phosphorylation, enhanced phosphorylation (77.2-84.2%) was enriched for proteins involved in cell cycle. Phosphorylation of these proteins, such as cyclin-dependent kinase 4 (Cdk4) (Bockstaele et al., 2006), chromosome alignment-maintaining phosphoprotein 1 (Champ1) (Itoh et al., 2011), minichromosome maintenance complex component 3 (Mcm3) (Lin, Aggarwal, and Diehl, 2008), kinesin family member 11 and 23 (Kif11, Kif23) (Rapley et al., 2008; Daigo et al., 2018), and nucleoporin Tpr (Rajanala et al., 2014), have been discovered to promote proliferation.

Moreover, Akt1 overactivation and enhanced availability were revealed in B cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice, validating the Akt-mediated RT mouse model (**Fig.3.9A-C**). S100a4, a member of the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent S100 family, was identified as the most significantly up-regulated protein in E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice (12-times increased, **Fig.3.9A**) (Zimmer et al., 1995). The metastasis factor S100a4 correlates with poor prognosis in multiple solid tumors, including ovarian (Kikuchi et al., 2006; Link et al., 2019), prostate (Saleem et al., 2006; Siddique et al., 2013), and lung cancer (R. L. Stewart et al., 2016). In leukemia subtypes like AML, S100a4 has been shown to promote proliferation, cell cycle pro-

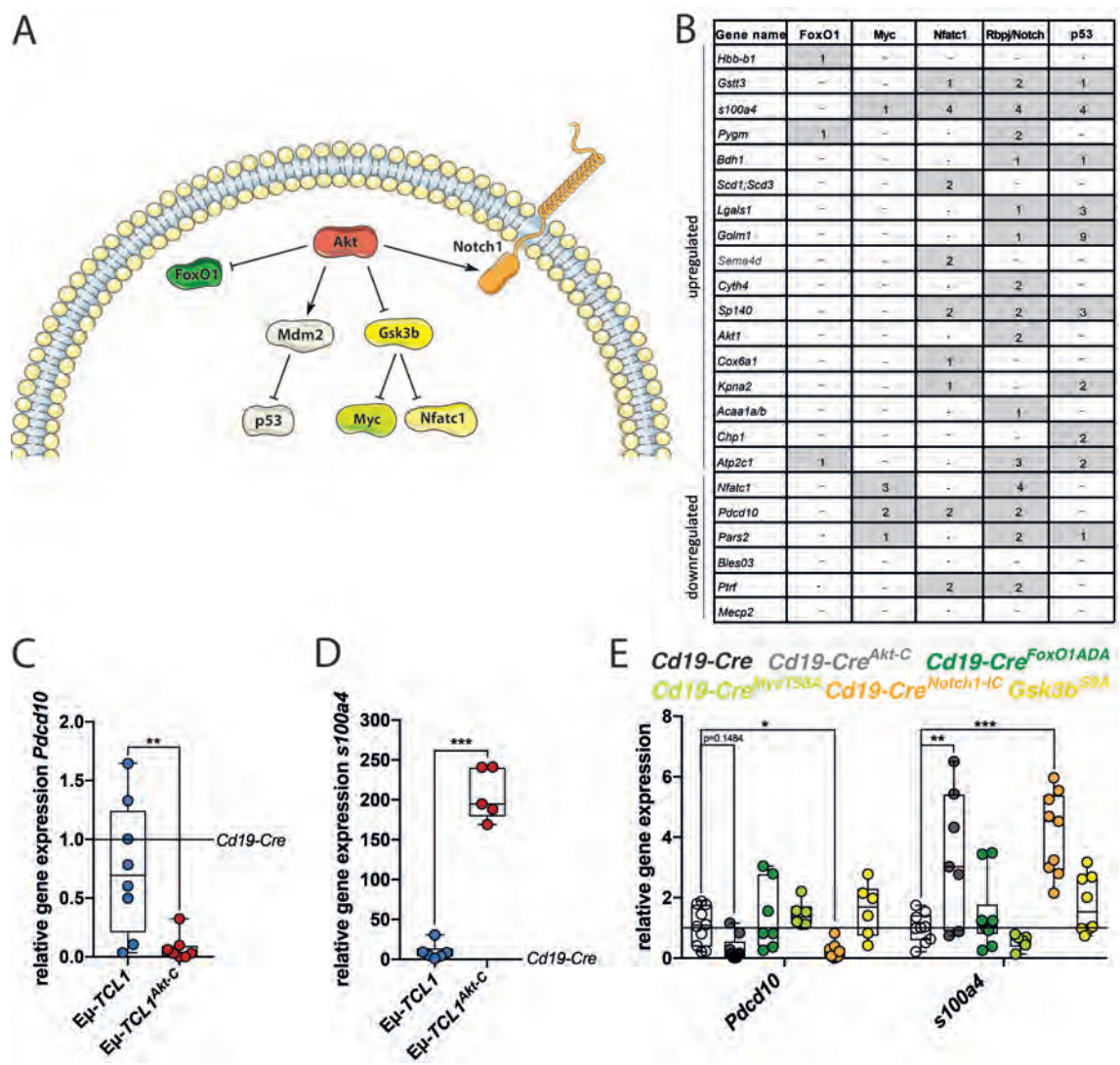
gression, and cell survival in transformed cells (Brenner and Bruserud, 2018; Alanazi et al., 2020).



**Fig. 3.9: Proteomics and Phosphoproteomics identify changes for S100a4, Mecp2, and Pdc10, related to the Notch1 signaling.** A,B Volcano blot of proteomics and phosphoproteomics of splenic B cells in comparison between E $\mu$ -TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup> vs. E $\mu$ -TCL1 mice. Proteins with  $p < 0.05$  were labeled as significant (blue colored). C Normalized label-free quantification (LFQ) intensity of indicated protein amounts (proteomics) of indicated mice. Data were normalized to the mean of E $\mu$ -TCL1 mice. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (C). \*\* $p \leq 0.01$  and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t test (C).

A negative regulator of *s100a4* transcription, named *Nfatc1*, was reduced but more phosphorylated at Ser390 in E $\mu$ -TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice (Bhattacharyya et al., 2011). In addition, methyl CpG binding protein 2 (*Mecp2*), a repressor of the Akt signaling and *Notch1*, was reduced and less phosphorylated at Ser70, Ser229, and Ser292 in RT cells (Fig.3.9A,B) (Li et al., 2014; W. Zhang et al., 2018). Furthermore, programmed cell

death 10 (*Pdcd10*) protein was reduced in RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice (**Fig.3.9A,C**). In accordance to this result, *Pdcd10* transcription has been reported to be repressed by Rbpj/Notch1, associated with tumoral cell proliferation (Lambertz et al., 2015). To investigate whether changed protein levels in E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice are a consequence of altered gene expression, promoter regions (e.g. 2 kb upstream of transcription start) of significantly altered proteins were analyzed for transcription factor binding sites *via* Genomatix software. Akt regulates the activity of multiple transcription factors by phosphorylation. Mainly, Akt enhances the activity of Myc (R. Sears et al., 2000; R. C. Sears, 2004), Nfatc1 (Crabtree and Olson, 2002; Beurel, Grieco, and Jope, 2015), and Rbpj/Notch (Villegas et al., 2018) but represses FoxO1 (X. Zhang et al., 2011) and p53 (Ogawara et al., 2002) (**Fig.3.10A**). Significantly changed proteins exhibited variable transcription factor binding sites for FoxO1, Myc, Nfatc1, p53, and Rbpj (Notch) in their 2 kb upstream promoter region of corresponding genes, suggesting a direct transcriptional link between these transcription factors in *Akt-C*-expressing RT cells. In total, 13% of genes of changed proteins showed FoxO1 binding sites while 17%, 39%, and 43% of genes revealed binding sites for Myc, Nfatc1, and p53. The majority (65%) of significantly changed available proteins was identified as potential Rbpj/Notch target genes (**Fig.3.10B**).

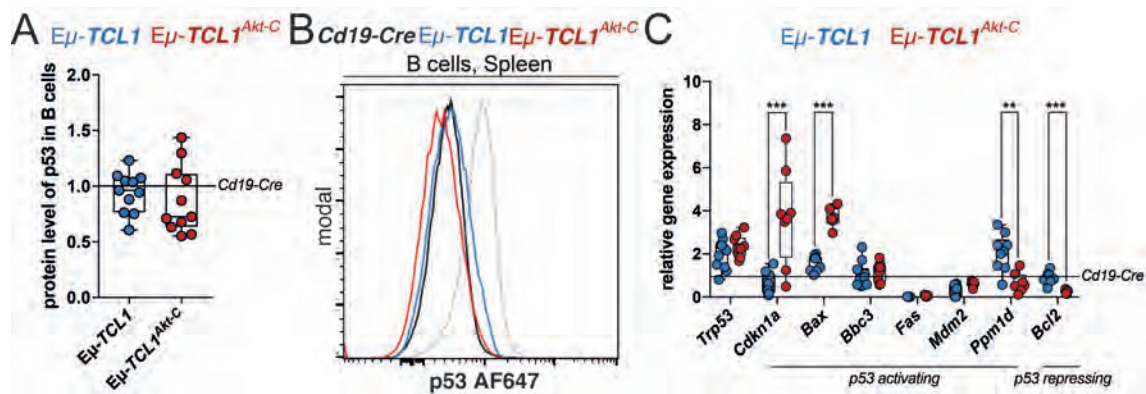


**Fig. 3.10: Rbpj/Notch1-regulated transcriptional changes of *Pdcd10* and *s100a4* in Akt-initiated RT cells.** **A** Scheme of downstream transcription factors of Akt. **B** Numbers of indicated transcription factor binding sites for significantly changed available proteins (proteomics) in comparison between *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* vs. *Eμ-TCL1* mice using Genomatrix software. The transcription factors FoxO1, Myc, Nfatc1, Rbpj/Notch, and p53 were analyzed as effector of Akt. Proteins were sorted by values of the log2 fold change. **C-E** Relative gene expression of *Pdcd10* and *s100a4* relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age via qPCR. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **C-E**. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**C-E**). \* $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test (**C-D**) and One-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**E**).

In accordance with proteomic data, increased *s100a4* expression was validated in B cells from *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice that revealed transcription factor binding sites for Myc, Nfatc1, p53, and Rbpj/Notch (**Fig.3.10D**). Using mouse models with conditional nuclear activation of FoxO1 (*Cd19-Cre* tg/wt; R26-fl-*FoxO1ADA*, termed *Cd19-Cre<sup>FoxO1ADA</sup>*),



Myc (Cd19-Cre tg/wt; R26-fl-*Myc*<sup>T58A</sup>, termed *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Myc<sup>T58A</sup></sup>), and Notch1 (Cd19-Cre tg/wt; R26-fl-*Notch1-IC*, termed *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Notch1-IC</sup> mice, see chapter 3.3) or with indirect inhibition of Nfatc1 (Gsk3b<sup>S9A</sup>, constitutive activation of Gsk3b kinase) in B cells, the transcriptional regulation of *s100a4* by Rbpj/Notch1 was verified (**Fig.3.10E**). Furthermore, *Pdcd10* expression was suppressed in Akt-mediated RT cells by Rbpj/Notch1 due to transcriptional repression in both *Eμ-TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> and *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Notch1-IC</sup> mice (**Fig. 3.10C,E**). *Akt1* further showed transcription factor binding sites for Rbpj/Notch that is discussed in chapter 3.3.3.



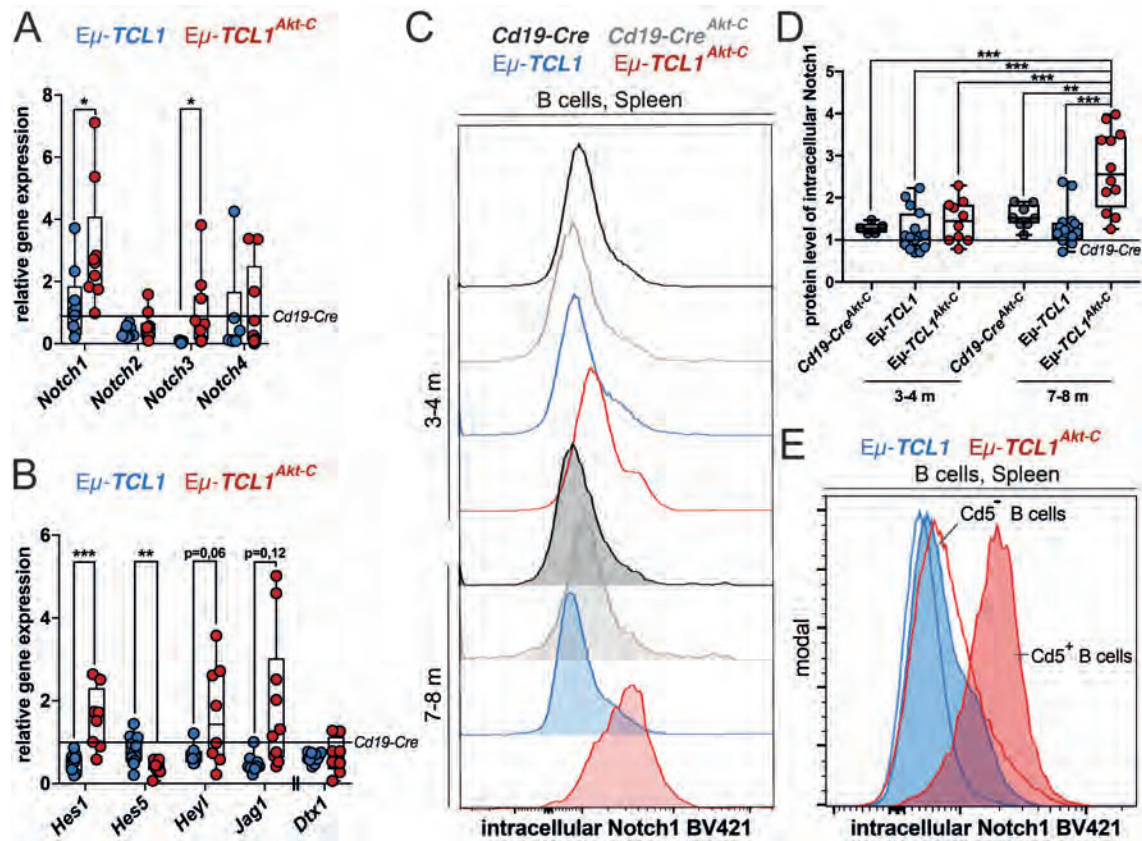
**Fig. 3.11: Unaffected p53 activity in Akt-induced RT cells.** **A** Relative protein quantification and **B** its representative blot of intracellular p53 AF647 in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age. **C** Relative gene expression of *Trp53* and common p53 target genes relative to *Tbp* in B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **B**. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **A** and **C**. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A,C**). \*\*p ≤ 0.01 and \*\*\*p ≤ 0.001. Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t test (**A,C**). AF647: AlexaFluor 647.

In addition, despite the widely accepted Akt-mediated degradation of p53 (**Fig.3.10A**) (Ogawara et al., 2002), the protein level of the tumor suppressor p53 remained unchanged in transformed *Eμ-TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice compared to *Eμ-TCL1* and *Cd19-Cre* mice (**Fig.3.11A,B**). The transcriptional level of *Trp53* was also identical in both cancer mouse models but displayed upregulation compared to *Cd19-Cre* mice. Common target genes of p53 confirmed no tendency of expression pattern (**Fig.3.11C**) (Fischer, 2017). While some targets imply increased p53 activity (*Cdkn1a*, *Bax*, *Bcl2*), others implicate un-

changed or decreased activity (*Bbc3*, *Fas*, *Mdm2*, *Ppm1d*). Most p53 target genes are known to be additionally regulated by further transcription factors. For instance, *Cdkn1a* expression has been shown to be also regulated by Rbpj/Notch1 (Guo et al., 2009), p16 (Al-Khalaf and Aboussekhra, 2013), and Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin (Xu et al., 2016). In summary, (phospho)proteomic profiling leads to the assumption that a potential cross-talk between Akt and Notch1 signaling increases the aggressiveness of CLL toward RT.

### 3.2.5 *Akt-C* Expression in RT Cells Results in Overactivation of the Notch1 Signaling

Human data indicate a possible link between gain-of-function mutations of the *NOTCH1* gene and augmented activation of AKT in patients with RT or an aggressive course of CLL (see chapter 3.1). In addition, changes on protein levels and their phosphorylation states were identified in murine RT cells, associated with Rbpj/Notch1 activity (see chapter 3.2.4). Notch proteins act as cofactors for the transcription factor Rbpj by enhancing expression of genes involved in B cell development and proliferation (see chapter 1.4) (Kang, Kim, and Park, 2014; Francesca Arruga, Vaisitti, and Deaglio, 2018). *Notch1* and *Notch3* expression were significantly upregulated in RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice compared to CLL cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice (**Fig.3.12A**). However, C<sub>T</sub> (cycle threshold) values indicated low mRNA levels of *Notch3* in RT cells and ordinary levels compared to *Cd19-Cre* mice. Increased transcription of common target genes implicate enhanced Rbpj/Notch activity in RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice while CLL cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice revealed unaffected expression levels of Rbpj/Notch target genes, similar to *Cd19-Cre* mice (**Fig.3.12B**) (Borggreve and Oswald, 2009).



**Fig. 3.12: Overactivation of the Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT cells.** **A** Relative gene expression of Notch receptors and **B** common canonical (*Hes1*, *Hes5*, *Hey1*, and *Jag1*) as well as non-canonical (*Dtx1*) Rbpj/Notch target genes relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age *via* qPCR. **C** Representative blot of intracellular Notch1 BV421 and **D** its relative protein quantification in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 3-4 (uncolored) and 7-8 months age (colored) *via* flow cytometry. **E** Representative blot of intracellular Notch1 BV421 in splenic Cd5<sup>-</sup> (uncolored) and Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells (colored) of indicated mice at 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **C** and **E**. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **A**, **B**, and **D**. Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A**, **B**, **D**). \* $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test (**A**, **B**) and Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**D**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421.

*Hes1* and *Dtx1* were selected as hallmark to distinguish between the activation of the canonical and non-canonical Notch signaling (F. Arruga et al., 2014). The unaltered *Dtx1* but enhanced *Hes1* expression demonstrated the restriction to the activation of the canonical Notch signaling. The expression-based data are in line with the transcriptional profile of RT cells of  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice compared to CLL cells of  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice *via* single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) in collaboration with Pallasch lab

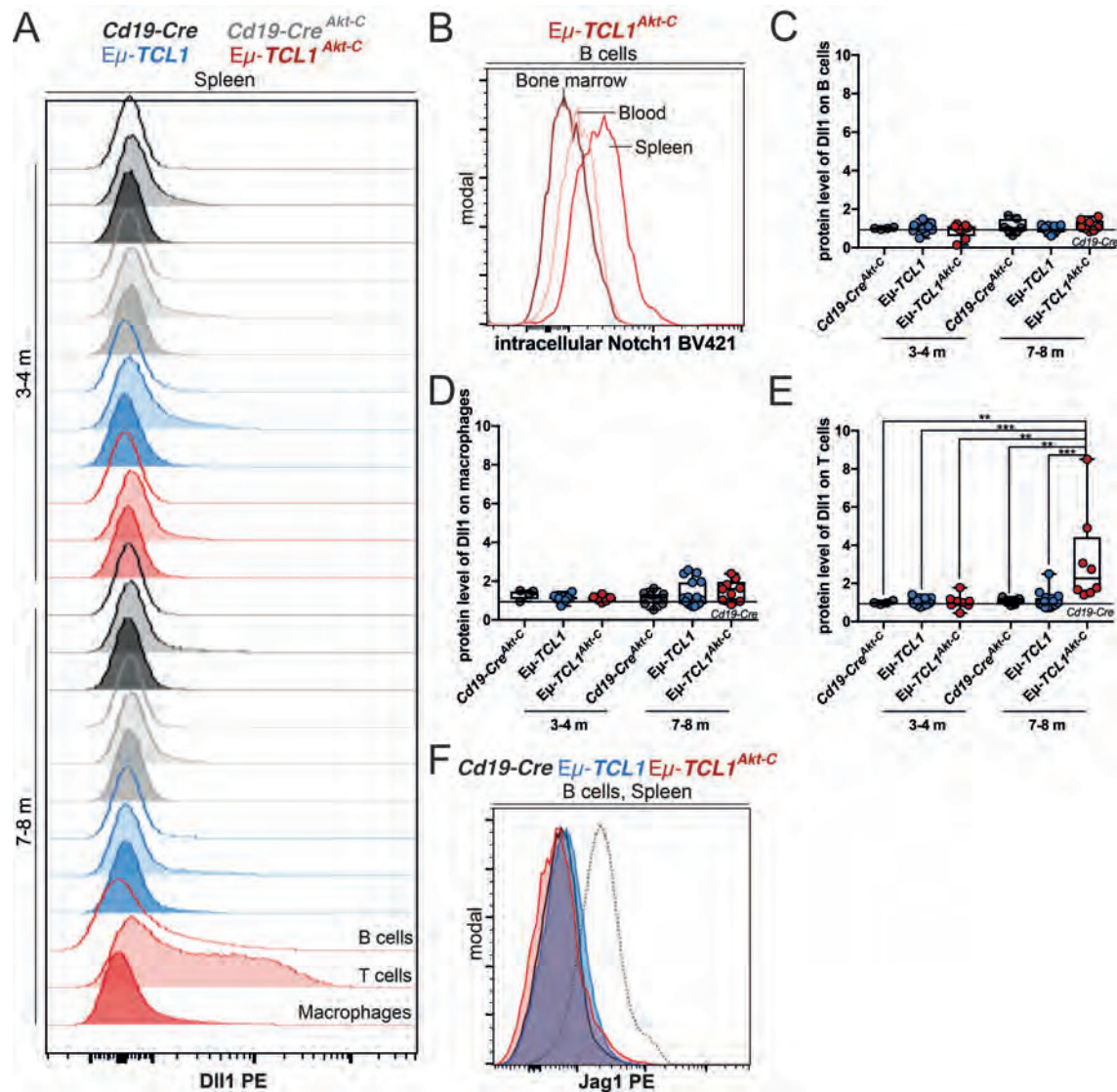
(CECAD). scRNA-seq data demonstrated transcriptional upregulation of genes regulated by Rbpj/Notch1, such as *Hes1* and *s100a4* (Kohlhaas et al., 2020).

Strikingly, high protein levels of intracellular Notch1 were solely detected in RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice. B cells of *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice showed low levels of intracellular Notch1 in comparison to RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice but enhanced levels compared to *Cd19-Cre* mice. Contrariwise, CLL cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice showed unaffected levels of intracellular Notch1 at any age in both Cd5<sup>+</sup> CLL and normal Cd5<sup>-</sup> B cells (**Fig.3.12C-E**). Besides, upregulation of intracellular Notch1 was restricted to Cd5<sup>+</sup> RT cells whereas normal Cd5<sup>-</sup> B cells of the same mouse showed low levels (**Fig.3.12E**). These data confirm the overactivation of the Notch1 pathway in murine Akt-mediated RT.

### **3.2.6 Splenic, Regulatory T cells Induce Overactivation of Notch1 Signaling in RT Cells by Presenting Dll1 Ligand**

The transmembrane receptor Notch1 is activated through cleavage after binding to Jag or Dll ligands presented on adjacent cells to mediate changes of the microenvironment. CLL manifestation is influenced by bidirectional communication between leukemic cells and the TME through several crosstalk mechanisms by stimulating cell survival, proliferation, and metastasis (Quail and Joyce, 2013; Hacken and Jan A. Burger, 2016; Meurette and Mehlen, 2018). The marrow and SLO-located TME form the supportive structure to develop CLL and to progress to RT including macrophages (Galletti, Caligaris-Cappio, and Bertilaccio, 2016), monocyte-derived NLCs (J. A. Burger et al., 2000; Boissard et al., 2015), marrow stromal cells (Kurtova et al., 2009; Crompton et al., 2017), and several T cell subsets (Bagnara et al., 2011).



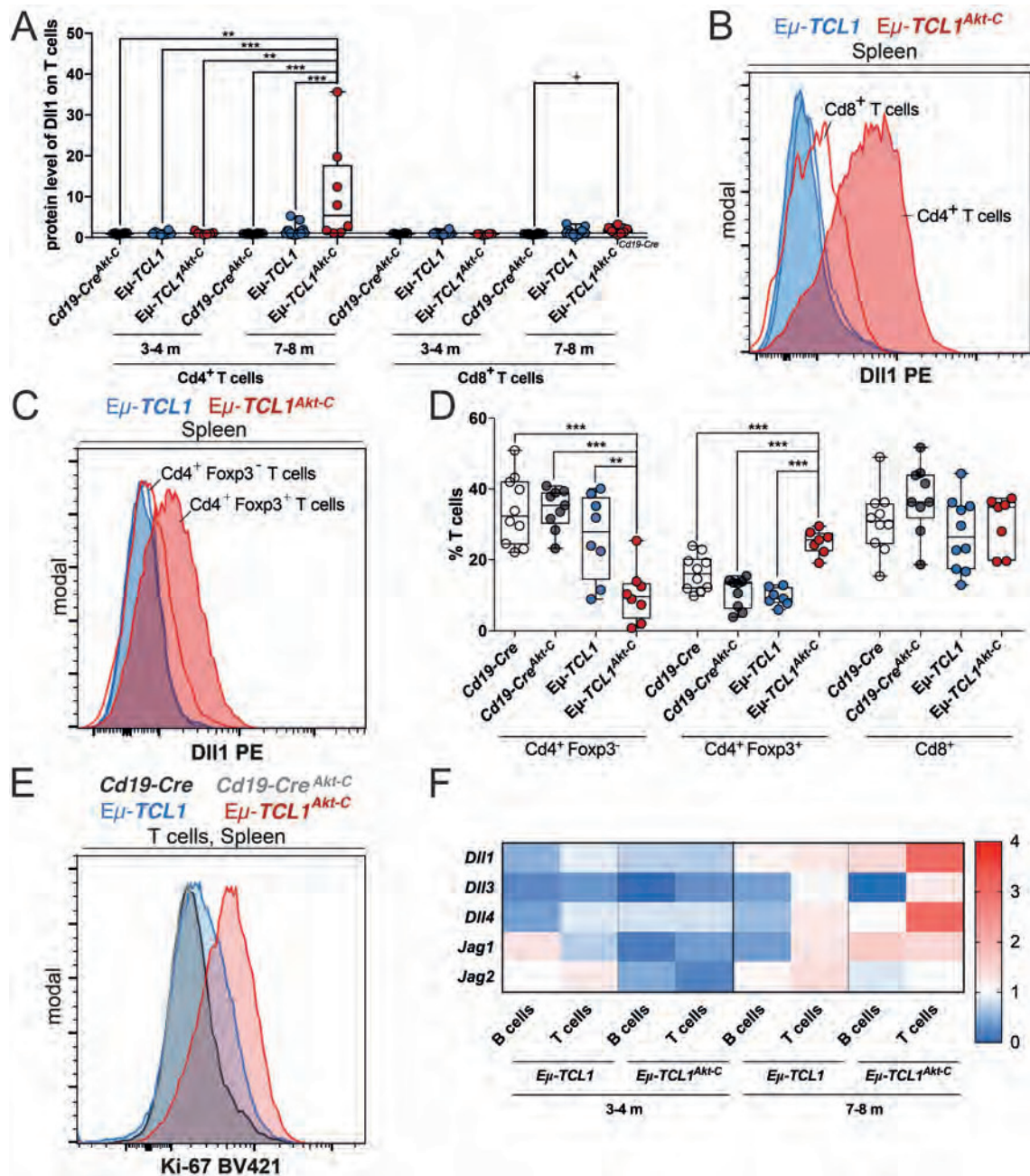


**Fig. 3.13: Aberrant DII1 on splenic T cells stimulates Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT.**

**A** Representative blot of extracellular DII1 PE on splenic B cells (uncolored), T cells (slightly colored), and macrophages (colored) of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. **B** Representative blot of intracellular Notch1 BV421 in blood (light red), splenic (red), and marrow (dark red) B cells of *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice at 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. **C** Relative protein quantification of extracellular DII1 PE on splenic B cells, **D** macrophages, and **E** T cells, of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. **F** Representative blot of extracellular Jag1 PE on splenic B cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age *via* flow cytometry. The dashed histogram represents a positive control. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **A**, **B**, and **F**. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **C-E**. Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**C-E**). \*\* $p \leq 0.01$  and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**C-E**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, PE: phycoerythrin.

Notch receptor - ligand interactions and their impact in RT progression have not been investigated so far. Tissue-specific analysis of intracellular Notch1 in transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice indicates strongest Notch1 stimulation in splenic RT cells whereas marrow RT cells showed same levels as blood RT cells where cells are not in tight contact (**Fig.3.13B**). This result corresponds to human data evidencing that the transcriptional and protein-based upregulation of NOTCH1 was highest in SLO-derived CLL cells (F. Arruga et al., 2014). To specify ligand-presenting cells, protein levels of the prominent Notch1 ligand Dll1 were determined on the cell surface of splenic TME cells. Thereby, aberrant Dll1 was discovered on Cd90<sup>+</sup> T cells in RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice. In contrast, T cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice before transformation, E $\mu$ -*TCL1* and *Cd19-Cre<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice showed unchanged Dll1 levels (**Fig.3.13A,E**). Simultaneously, Dll1 was unaltered presented on F4/80<sup>+</sup> macrophages (**Fig.3.13D**). NLCs could not be identified in murine spleens.

In addition, RT cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice showed low Dll1 levels (**Fig.3.13A,C**). Although another Notch1 ligand, named Jag1, has been identified as direct Rbpj/Notch1 target and was transcriptionally upregulated in RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice (**Fig. 3.12B**), Jag1 protein remained unchanged in RT cells (**Fig.3.13F**). These flow cytometry data are in line with previous studies showing the lack of DLL1 and DLL4 as well as unaltered JAG1 and JAG2 ligands in human CLL cells in both *NOTCH1* mutated and wildtype cases (F. Arruga et al., 2014). Furthermore, JAG1 expression and protein processing have been shown to associate with survival of CLL cells but not with NOTCH activation (De Falco et al., 2018). Here, low levels of Notch ligands on cancer cells confirm their inability to promote RT among each other but dependency on surrounding TME cells. The apoptotic bias of CLL and RT cells in absence of supportive TME cells is well accepted. As reported, only co-cultivation or supplementation of cytokines rescues leukemic cells from spontaneous apoptosis *ex vivo* (Ghamlouch et al., 2013).



**Fig. 3.14: Cell expansion and aberrant Dll1 on splenic, regulatory T cells stimulate Notch1 signaling in Akt-induced RT.** **A** Relative protein quantification of extracellular Dll1 PE on splenic T cell subsets of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age via flow cytometry. **B** Representative blot of extracellular Dll1 PE on splenic *Cd4<sup>+</sup>* (colored) and *Cd8<sup>+</sup>* T cells (uncolored) or on **C** *Cd4<sup>+</sup>* Foxp3<sup>-</sup> T helper cells (uncolored) and *Cd4<sup>+</sup>* Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells (colored) of indicated mice at 7-8 months age via flow cytometry. **D** Frequencies of splenic T cell subsets of indicated mice at 7-8 months age via flow cytometry. **E** Representative blot of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in T cells of indicated mice at 7-8 months age via flow cytometry. **F** Relative gene expression of Notch ligands relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells and T cells of indicated mice at 3-4 and 7-8 months age via qPCR. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **B**, **C**, and **E**. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **A** and **F**. Data of mice at 3-4 months age represent the analysis before, at 7-8 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>ΔAkt-C</sup>* mice. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A**, **D**). \**p* ≤ 0.05, \*\**p* ≤ 0.01, and \*\*\**p* ≤ 0.001. Statistical analyses were performed using One-Way (**D**) or Two-Way (**A**) ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test. BV 421: Brilliant Violet 421, PE: phycoerythrin.

T cells are subdivided into Cd4<sup>+</sup> T helper or T<sub>reg</sub> cells as well as Cd8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T cells. Corresponding to the assumed CLL-promoting function of Cd4<sup>+</sup> T cells (Os et al., 2013), increased Dll1 levels were monitored on Cd4<sup>+</sup> T cells, especially Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T<sub>reg</sub> cells, in Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice during RT. Dependent on the state of RT, the upregulation of Dll1 varied between a 1.8-times and a 35.6-times increase. Foxp3<sup>-</sup> T helper and Cd8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T cells revealed unchanged ligand levels. In contrast, Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice before transformation, Eμ-*TCL1* and *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice showed low levels of Dll1 on diverse T cell subsets (**Fig.3.14A-C**). Furthermore, splenic T cells exhibited increased proliferation rates in RT-transformed Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice by nuclear Ki-67 staining causing cell expansion (**Fig.3.14E**). As consequence, T<sub>reg</sub> cells expanded solely in Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice with frequencies up to 28% of total T cells at the expense of T helper cells (**Fig.3.14D**). These observations matched with the scRNA-seq data of the splenic TME of RT-transformed Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice which demonstrated an enrichment of Cd4<sup>+</sup> T cells with genes involved in pro-survival pathways, such as *Bcl2* (Kohlhaas et al., 2020). In accordance, increased frequencies of blood-derived T<sub>reg</sub> cells are reported in CLL patients with high accumulation in SLOs, associated with progressive outcome and unfavorable genetics (Weiss et al., 2011; Biancotto et al., 2012).

To investigate the cause of exaggerated Dll1 on T<sub>reg</sub> cells, the transcription of Notch ligands was determined. The transcription of *Dll1* and *Dll4* demonstrated a similar expression pattern, showing T cell-restricted overexpression in RT-transformed Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>Akt-C</sup> mice. *Dll3*, *Jag1*, and *Jag2* pointed unchanged expression in T cells of analyzed mice (**Fig.3.14F**). Presumably, upregulation of ligands in T<sub>reg</sub> cells occurred through transcriptional regulation during RT.

Consolidated, these data affirm the stimulation of the proto-oncogenic Notch1 signaling through splenic T<sub>reg</sub> cells by stringently presenting Notch1 ligands on the cell surface.



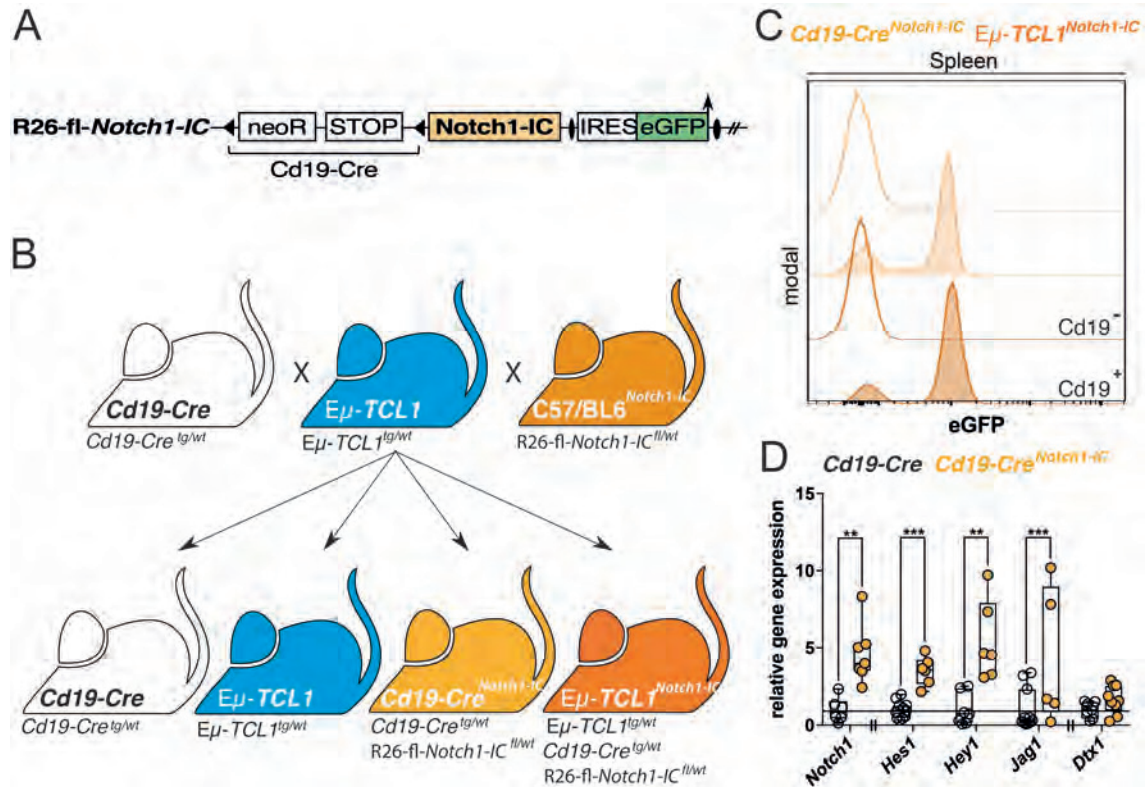
### 3.3 B Cell-Specific *Notch1-IC* Expression in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Transgenic CLL Mice Empowers the Transformation to RT

#### 3.3.1 B Cell-Specific *Notch1-IC* Expression Drives RT in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Mice

Gain-of-function mutations of *NOTCH1* have been identified as the most frequently RT-promoting aberration (Puente et al., 2011; Fabbri, Rasi, et al., 2011). *NOTCH1* mutations regularly affect the C-terminal PEST domain by 2-bp (CT) frameshift deletions in human CLL and RT causing a premature stop codon (approximately 80% of cases) (Willander et al., 2013; Rosati et al., 2018). The PEST deletion, an initiator for the proteasomal degradation of NICD, prolongs half-life of activated NICD (Blain et al., 2017). Despite the assumed malignant effect of overactivated NOTCH1 in CLL, pathogenic NOTCH1 actions still remain unknown. Neither *in vivo*- nor *in vitro*-studies have been published so far to unravel the function of NOTCH1 causing an aggressive course of CLL.

To prove the significance of overactivated Notch1 in CLL *in vivo*, a E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mouse model with a constitutive activated Notch1, named Notch1-IC, was generated. The tissue-specific expression of the *Notch1-IC* construct containing a loxP-flanked neo-STOP cassette was enabled by previous insertion into the ubiquitously expressed ROSA-26 locus between the coding sequence and the GT(ROSA)26Sor promoter (referred as R26-fl-*Notch1-IC*). R26-fl-*Notch1-IC*<sup>fl/wt</sup> mice express Cre-dependent eGFP as reporter and the intracellular, active domain of the murine Notch1 receptor (encoding amino acids 1749-2293) without the PEST domain (**Fig.3.15A**) (Murtaugh et al., 2003). R26-fl-*Notch1-IC*<sup>fl/wt</sup> mice were intercrossed with *Cd19-Cre* mice to receive *Cd19-Cre*<sup>tg/wt</sup>; R26-fl-*Notch1-IC*<sup>fl/wt</sup> mice (termed *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>) with a B cell-specific expression of *Notch1-IC*. *Cd19-Cre*<sup>Notch1-IC</sup> mice were further bred to E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice to receive experi-

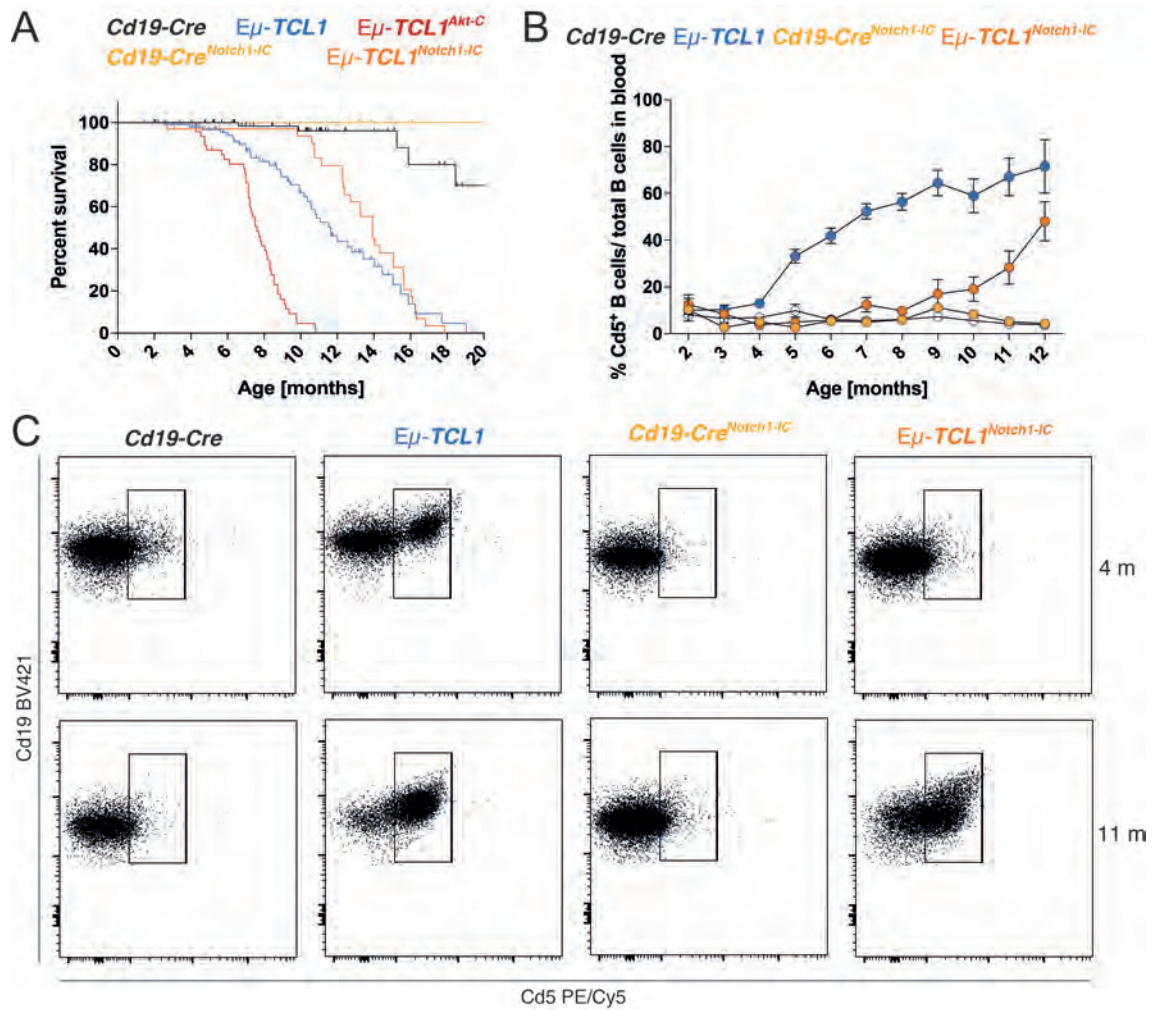
mental  $E\mu-TCL1^{tg/wt}; Cd19-Cre^{tg/wt}; R26-fl-Notch1-IC^{fl/wt}$  mice (termed  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$ , Fig.3.15B).



**Fig. 3.15: Validation of the Notch1-IC construct expressed in B cells.** **A** Scheme of the R26-fl-Notch1-IC construct. **B** Scheme of the breeding strategy to receive experimental  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. **C** Representative blot of eGFP in  $Cd19^{-}$  (uncolored) and  $Cd19^{+}$  (colored) splenocytes of indicated mice at 3-5 months age via flow cytometry. **D** Relative gene expression of *Notch1* and common canonical (*Hes1*, *Hey1*, *Jag1*) as well as non-canonical (*Dtx1*) Rbpj/Notch target genes relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 3-5 months age via qPCR. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **C**. Data were normalized to  $Cd19-Cre$  mice in **D**. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**D**). \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\* $p \leq 0.001$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test (**D**). eGFP: enhanced green fluorescent protein, IRES: internal ribosomal entry site, neoR: neomycin resistance, Notch1-IC: constitutive active Notch1.

The B cell-restricted expression of *Notch1-IC* was verified by eGFP via flow cytometry (Fig.3.15C). Both  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice displayed eGFP expression specifically in  $Cd19^{+}$  B cells. Transcription of *Notch1* was further elevated in B cells of  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. The augmented expression of common Rbpj/Notch target genes validated increased canonical Notch1 activity and thus the functionality of the mouse model (Fig.3.15D) (Borggreve and Oswald, 2009; F. Arruga et al., 2014). *Dtx1*

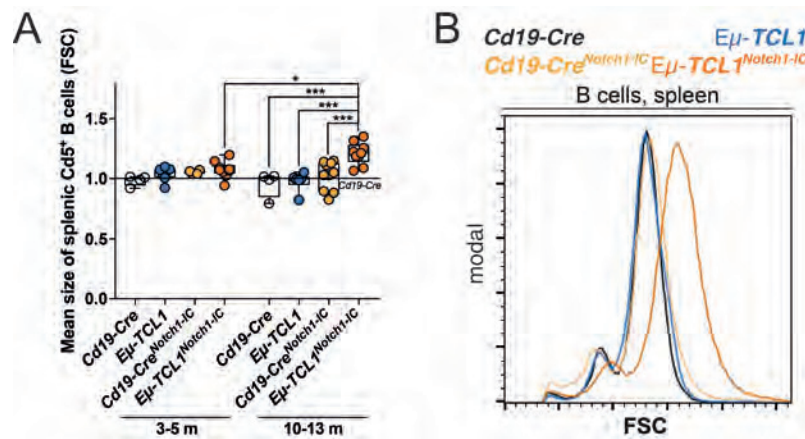
as target for the non-canonical Notch pathway was slightly increased but not significant.



**Fig. 3.16: B cell-specific *Notch1-IC* expression in *Eμ-TCL1* mice initiates CLL with a similar progression but a later outcome than in the Akt-induced RT mouse model.** **A** Kaplan-Meier survival curve of indicated mice. **B** Relative quantification (%) of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells in peripheral blood taken monthly from indicated mice (n=8-10 mice per genotype) *via* flow cytometry. **C** Representative blots of extracellular Cd5 PE/Cy5 and Cd19 BV421 in blood-derived samples of indicated mice at 4 and 11 months age *via* flow cytometry. The gating to define Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells is shown and used for the quantification in **B**. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **C**. Data are presented as box with means  $\pm$  SEM (**B**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, FSC: forward scatter, PE/Cy5: tandem fluorochrome composed of phycoerythrin (PE) and cyanine 5 (Cy5).

The course of CLL was monitored by monthly screening of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells in peripheral blood. An increasing population of Cd5<sup>+</sup> B cells emerged in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice with a similar progression but later outcome than in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Akt-C</sup>* mice. Cd5<sup>+</sup> leukemic B cells appeared in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice from the age of 10 months (**Fig.3.16B,C**). The

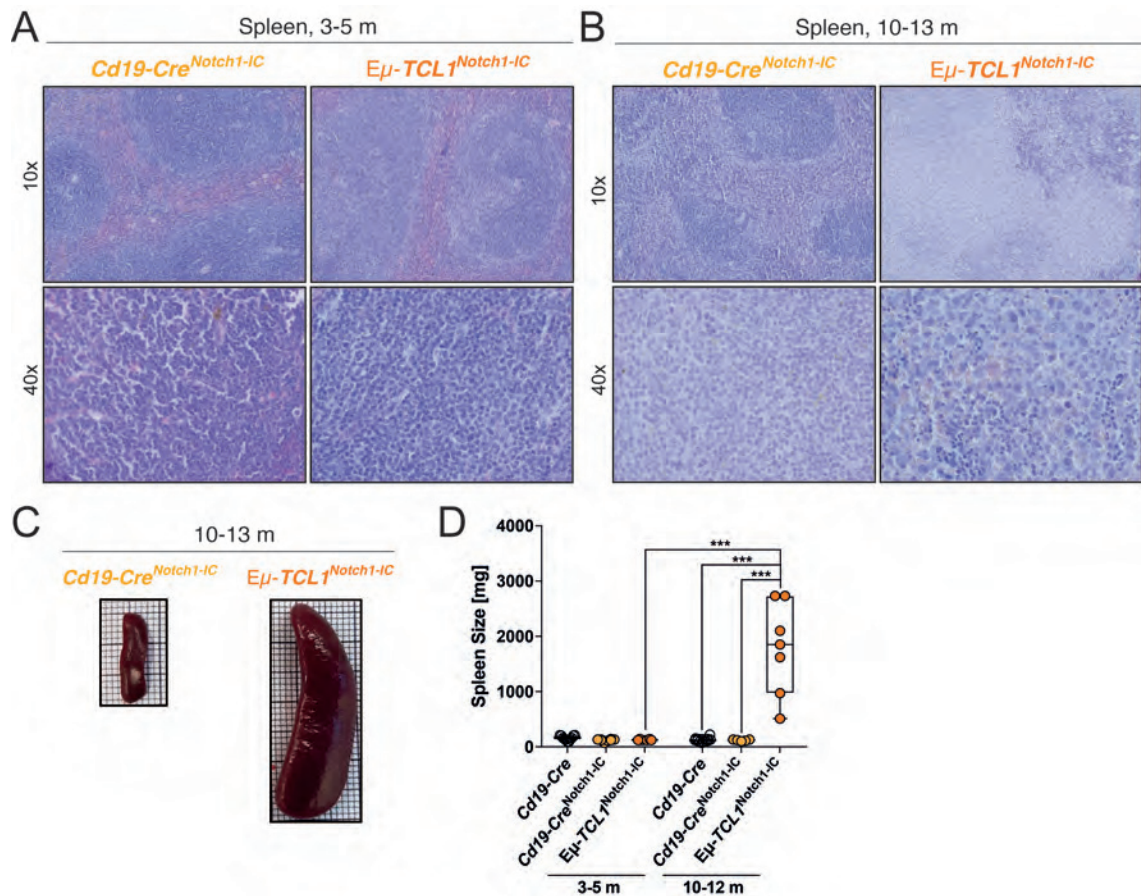
survival capacity decreased markedly and similarly in both  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  and  $E\mu-TCL1^{Akt-C}$  mice but at different ages (median survival: 13.3 months for  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice, **Fig.3.16A**). In opposition, reduced survival and leukemic cells lacked in  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. Furthermore, a distinctive  $Cd5^+$  B cell population was not detected in peripheral blood of  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  mice, similar to  $Cd19-Cre$  mice (**Fig.3.16C**).



**Fig. 3.17: B cell-specific *Notch1-IC* expression in *Eμ-TCL1* mice promotes enlarged cancer cells.** **A** Relative cell size (FSC) of splenic  $Cd5^+$  B cells of indicated mice at 3-5 and 10-13 months age. **B** Representative blots of FSC of splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **B**. Data were normalized to  $Cd19-Cre$  mice in **A**. Data of mice at 3-5 months age represent the analysis before, at 10-13 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. Data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A**). \*p ≤ 0.05, and \*\*\*p ≤ 0.001. Statistical analyses were performed using Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**A**). FSC: forward scatter.

CLL and RT cells were distinguished by relative cell sizes (FSC) *via* flow cytometry. Splenic  $Cd5^+$  B cells indicated enlarged cell sizes in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice at 10-13 months age, suggesting RT with a disease penetrance of 100%. In contrast,  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice before transformation (3-5 months age) and  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  mice displayed normal cell sizes of  $Cd5^+$ -defined B cells (**Fig.3.17A,B**).

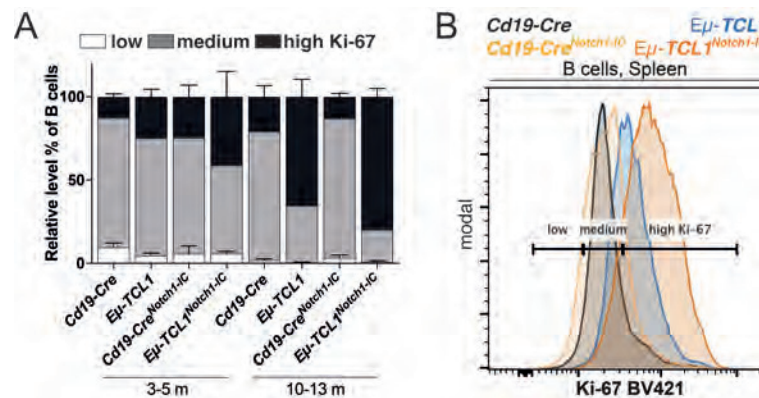




**Fig. 3.18: B cell-specific *Notch1-IC* expression in *Eμ-TCL1* mice initiates RT.** **A,B** Histological representatives (magnification: 10- and 40-times) of indicated mice at 3-5 and 10-13 months age using H&E staining. **C** Representative spleens and **D** its spleen sizes [mg] of indicated mice at 3-5 and 10-13 months age. Data of mice at 3-5 months age represent the analysis before, at 10-13 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice. Data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**D**). \*\*\*p ≤ 0.001. Statistical analyses were performed using Two-Way ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test (**D**).

Moreover, H&E staining revealed DLBCL-like histomorphology with distorted splenic histoarchitecture in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice at 10-13 months age. Splenocytes characterized enlarged, pleomorphic cells with abundant cytoplasm and multiple nucleoli, corresponding to human RT morphology (**Fig.3.18B**). *Cd19-Cre<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* and untransformed *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice exhibited inconspicuous splenic histomorphology in absence of enlarged splenocytes (**Fig.3.18A**). Considerably, *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice developed splenomegaly at 10-13 months age with spleen weights up to 2810 mg (23-times increase), indicating lymphomagenesis (**Fig.3.18C,D**). In contrast, *Cd19-Cre<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* and

untransformed  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice featured ordinary spleen sizes.



**Fig. 3.19: Notch1-activated  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice display high proliferative capacity.** **A** Relative level (%) of splenic B cells with low (white), medium (gray) or high (black) levels of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 of indicated mice at 3-5 and 10-13 months age ( $n=8-10$  mice per genotype) *via* flow cytometry. **B** Representative blot of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in total, splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. Gating for “medium Ki-67” was defined based on the signal (50% of the maximal amplitude) of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in  $Cd19-Cre$  mice. Augmented levels were defined as “high Ki-67”, lower levels until the unstained peak (50% of the maximal amplitude) were defined as “low Ki-67”. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **B**. Data of mice at 3-5 months age represent the analysis before, at 10-13 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. Data are presented as box with means  $\pm$  SEM (**A**). BV421: Brilliant Violet 421.

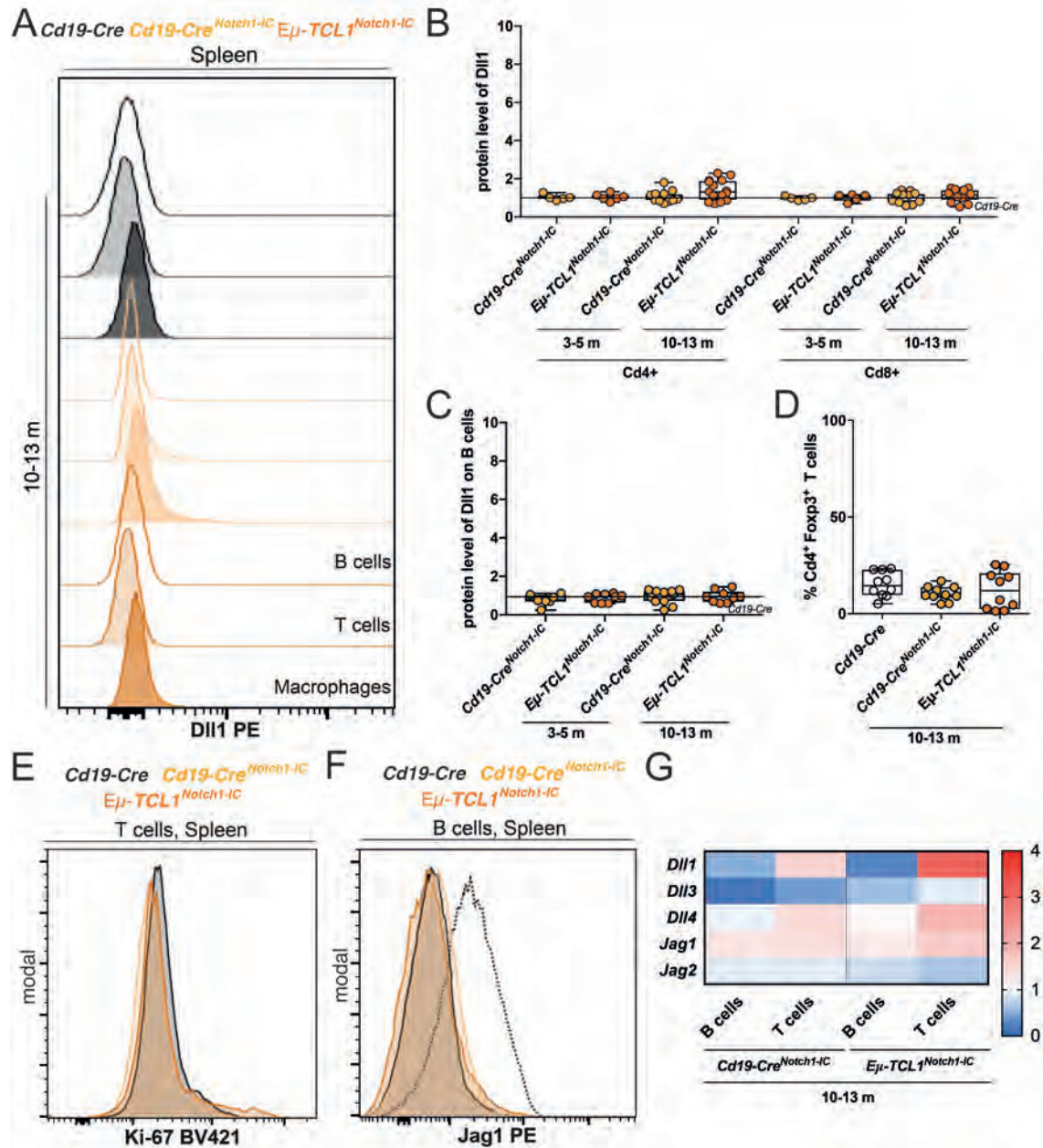
The proliferation rate associated with disease progression was determined using intracellular Ki-67 staining *via* flow cytometry. Proliferation was greatly augmented in splenic B cells of  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice at any age. However, splenic RT cells revealed immoderate levels of nuclear Ki-67 in transformed  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice, indicating high proliferative activity. On average, 79.8% of RT cells showed elevated Ki-67 levels in  $E\mu-TCL1^{Notch1-IC}$  mice. In opposition, the proliferative activity of splenic B cells of  $Cd19-Cre^{Notch1-IC}$  mice resembled the proliferation rate of  $Cd19-Cre$  mice (**Fig.3.19A,B**).

Taken together, DLBCL-like RT occurred in Notch1-activated  $E\mu-TCL1$  mice with a disease penetrance of 100%, proving the oncogenic function of Notch1 *in vivo*.

### 3.3.2 B Cell-Specific *Notch1-IC* Expression in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* Mice Drives RT Independent of the Splenic TME

Due to the modified splenic TME in the Akt-mediated RT mouse model (see chapter 3.2.6), splenic TME and cancer cells of E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice were investigated for Notch1 ligands like Dll1 *via* flow cytometry. Splenic TME cells presented inconspicuous Dll1 levels on their cell surface (**Fig.3.20A**). Cd4<sup>+</sup> T cells in particular, including Foxp3<sup>+</sup> T<sub>reg</sub> cells, lacked plenty Dll1 (**Fig.3.20B**). In opposition to Akt-initiated RT, splenic T cells further exhibited ordinary proliferation rates alike *Cd19-Cre* mice (**Fig.3.20E**). Consequently, T cell frequencies, including T<sub>reg</sub> cells, were unaltered in RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice (**Fig.3.20D**). Summarized, the splenic TME of the RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mouse model resembled the microenvironment of *Cd19-Cre* and *Cd19-Cre*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice. These data verify that the accumulation of Dll1 on the cell surface and the selective expansion of ligand-presenting TME cells are not regulated by Rbpj/Notch1 target genes but probably by direct interactions between the extracellular domains of Notch receptor and ligand. Furthermore, RT cells presented low levels of Notch1 ligands, such as Dll1 and Jag1 (**Fig.3.20A,F**).

Despite the low protein levels of Dll1 on TME cells, the transcription of *Dll1*, *Dll4*, and *Jag1* was upregulated in T cells of both Notch1-IC mouse models similar to E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>*Akt-C*</sup> mice at which the upregulation was stronger in RT-transformed E $\mu$ -*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice compared to *Cd19-Cre*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice (**Fig.3.20G**). This result indicates that the T cell-restricted *Dll1* and *Dll4* expression are stimulated by Rbpj/Notch1 target genes of surrounding Notch1-activated B cells that are perhaps involved in cytokine production.



**Fig. 3.20: Notch1-activated *Eμ-TCL1* mice develop RT independent of the splenic TME.**

**A** Representative blot of extracellular Dll1 PE on splenic B cells (uncolored), T cells (slightly colored), and macrophages (colored) of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. **B** Relative quantification of extracellular Dll1 PE on splenic T cell subsets and **C** B cells of indicated mice at 3-5 and 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. **D** Relative numbers (%) of splenic Cd4<sup>+</sup> Foxp3<sup>+</sup> regulatory T cells in relation to total T cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. **E** Representative blot of nuclear Ki-67 BV421 in splenic T cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. **F** Representative blot of extracellular Jag1 PE on splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* flow cytometry. **G** Relative gene expression of Notch ligands relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells and T cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age *via* qPCR. BV421: Brilliant Violet 421, PE: phycoerythrin. Data of mice at 3-5 months age represent the analysis before, at 10-13 months age the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1*<sup>Notch1-IC</sup> mice. Data were previously gated for living (Aqua staining), single cells (FSC-A vs. FSC-H, SSC-A vs. SSC-H) in **A**, **E**, and **F**. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **B**, **C**, and **G**. All data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**B-D**). Statistical analyses were performed using One-Way (**C,D**) or Two-Way (**B**) ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test.

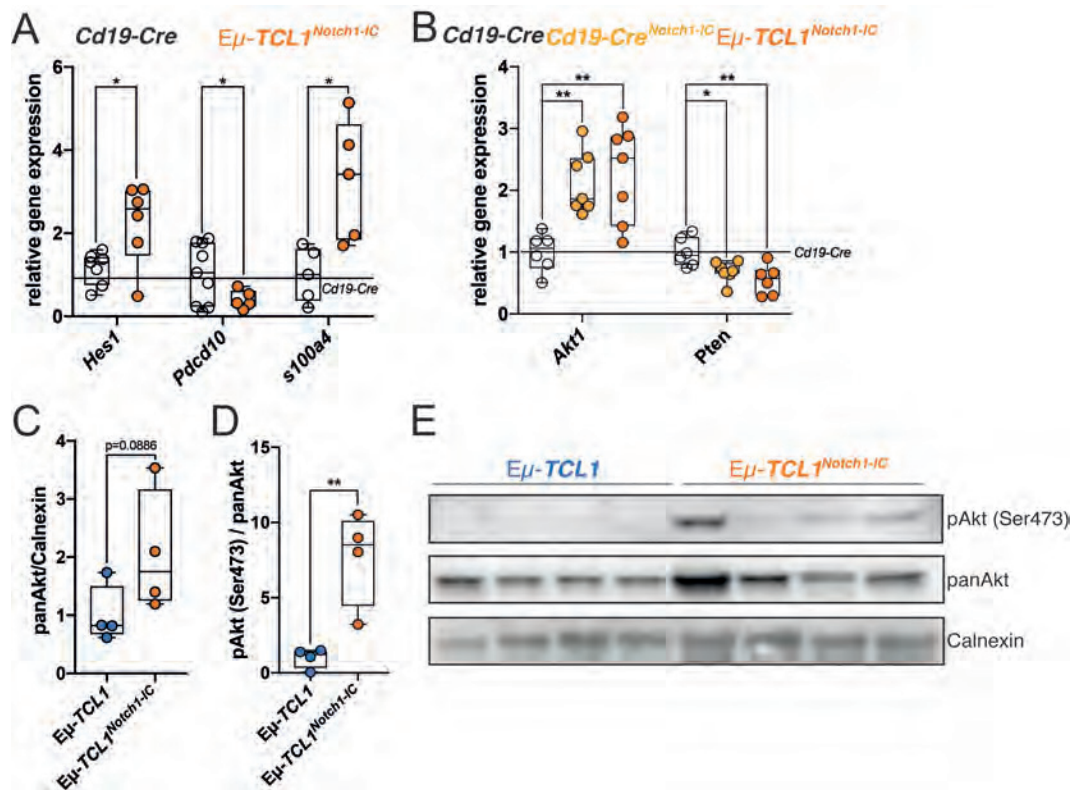


Collectively, these experiments demonstrate that the expression of the active domain of Notch1 in Eμ-*TCL1* CLL mice suffices to initiate RT, independent of the splenic TME. These findings strongly suggest the pivotal function of the co-overactivation of Akt and Notch1 during RT manifestation.

### 3.3.3 B Cell-Specific *Notch1-IC* Expression in Eμ-*TCL1* Mice Causes Over-activated Akt

The proteom of Akt-induced RT was characterized by the overexpression of the *S100a4* oncogene and repression of the *Pdcd10* tumor suppressor, both transcriptionally regulated by Rbpj/Notch1. In line with this, transformed Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice showed Notch1-induced upregulation of *s100a4* and downregulation of *Pdcd10* transcription (**Fig.3.21A**). Consequently, Notch1 may exert its tumorigenic activity by regulating prominent canonical targets like *Hes1* but also *Pdcd10* and *s100a4* as effector genes. However, it might be that *vice versa* Notch1 increases Akt activity. To this end, *Akt1* gene revealed transcription factor binding sites for Rbpj/Notch in their 2 kb upstream promoter region using Genomatix software (**Fig.3.10B**). The transcription of *Akt1* was upregulated in both Notch1-IC mouse models and the protein levels of total Akt was enhanced in RT cells of Eμ-*TCL1*<sup>*Notch1-IC*</sup> mice compared to CLL cells of Eμ-*TCL1* mice (**Fig.3.21B,C**). In accordance with overactivated AKT in *NOTCH1* mutated RT patients (**Fig.3.1A,B**), Notch1-activated RT cells revealed Akt stimulation by Ser473 phosphorylation using Western blot (**Fig.3.21D,E**). As published for T cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (T-ALL), Notch1 can promote Akt activity by silencing *Pten* expression *via Hes1* (Palomero, Dominguez, and Ferrando, 2008). *Pten* indirectly inhibits Akt actions as a PIP<sub>3</sub> phosphatase (Cantley and Neel, 1999; Georgescu, 2010; Carracedo and Pandolfi, 2008). Accordingly, *Pten* expression is repressed in both Notch1-activated

mouse models (**Fig.3.21B**).



**Fig. 3.21: Enhanced expression and activation of Akt in Notch1-induced RT cells.** **A** Relative gene expression of *Hes1*, *Pcd10*, and *s100a4* relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age via qPCR. **B** Relative gene expression of *Akt1* and *Pten* relative to *Tbp* in splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age via qPCR. **C** Relative protein quantification of panAkt normalized to Calnexin, **D** pAkt(Ser473) normalized to panAkt, and **E** its representative blot of pAkt (Ser 473) and panAkt of splenic B cells of indicated mice at 10-13 months age via Western blot. Calnexin was used as loading control. Data were normalized to *Cd19-Cre* mice in **A-B** or to *Eμ-TCL1* mice in **C**. Data of mice at 10-13 months age represent the analysis after the transformation to RT in *Eμ-TCL1<sup>Notch1-IC</sup>* mice. Data are presented as box with whiskers and median (**A-C**). \* $p \leq 0.05$  and \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ . Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t test (**A,C**) or One-Way (**B**) ANOVA plus Fisher's LSD test.

These data suggest that Notch1 acts both up- and downstream of the Akt signaling to enable CLL progression to RT. These findings confirm a bidirectional co-overexpression and -activation of the Akt and Notch1 signaling during tumorigenesis in the Akt- and Notch1-mediated RT mouse models.

## 4 Discussion

CLL is the most frequent leukemia subtype in adults of developed countries accounting for approximately 30% of leukemia variants and defines a NHL of mature, long-lived B cells with a leukemic course (Simon, 2020). CLL describes a heterogeneous malignancy with a variable clinical outcome ranging from an indolent disease with a nearly normal life expectancy to an aggressive form depending on somatic aberrations. The majority of CLL patients evolves an indolent form that can last for decades initially without the need of any treatments (Rodríguez-Vicente, Díaz, and Hernández-Rivas, 2013). Nevertheless, up to 10% of CLL cases manifest a sudden aggressive course like RT with a markedly reduced survival of approximately 12 months (Y. Wang et al., 2020). Contrarily to CLL, RT commonly defines an aggressive NHL with histomorphological characteristics of a DLBCL (Richter, 1928; Parikh et al., 2013). Approximately 80% of DLBCL variants of RT cases are clonally related to the prior CLL disease and feature properties of both CLL and DLBCL (Mao et al., 2007).

In general, AKT kinase, as central node, is required for the activation, proliferation, and survival of mature B cells. Particularly in CLL, the involvement of PI3K/AKT is suggested as principal mediator of pro-survival signaling although gain-of-function mutations of members of the PI3K/AKT pathway are regularly not found (Schrader et al., 2014). However, several studies showed that extensive apoptosis of CLL cells occurred through specific inhibition of PI3K/AKT (Zhuang et al., 2010; Hofbauer et al.,



2011). Mainly, AKT can be activated by the BCR signaling which has been identified as the most prominent pathogenic pathway in CLL (Herishanu, Pérez-Galán, et al., 2011). Furthermore, BCR stimulation is known to highly correlate with worse prognosis of CLL (Rodríguez et al., 2007; Stevenson et al., 2011). In accordance, Wendel *et al* demonstrated in a lymphoma mouse model that Akt promotes tumorigenesis showing an aggressive course (Wendel et al., 2004). The dichotomy of the CLL course is still insufficiently understood, especially the impact of AKT actions. Due to the hypothesized correlation between PI3K/AKT signaling and worse prognosis of CLL, the questions arise how AKT downstream actions are involved in CLL pathogenesis and whether AKT activity correlates with an aggressive course, such as RT.

## **4.1 Active Akt Induces the Progression from CLL to RT by Over-activation of the Canonical Notch1 Signaling**

### **4.1.1 Active Akt Drives the Transformation from CLL to RT**

AKT kinase triggers B cell proliferation and activation through a multitude of downstream pathways including GSK3b (Alessi, James, et al., 1997), FOXO1 (Biggs et al., 1999; Brunet et al., 1999), and MDM2 (L. D. Mayo and Donner, 2001; Ogawara et al., 2002). In this thesis, the immunohistochemical study of human cancer biopsies confirms a correlation between activated AKT and RT development, especially for *TP53* and *NOTCH1* mutated cases. Contrarily, CLL and DLBCL biopsies lack active AKT in the majority of cases.

To solely focus on Akt actions in CLL pathogenesis *in vivo*, a B cell-specific, Akt-activated CLL mouse model was characterized. For this, the commonly studied E $\mu$ -*TCL1* transgenic CLL mouse model was utilized possessing exogenous overexpression of the human *TCL1* gene specifically in B cells (Bichi et al., 2002). Under physiological condi-

tions, *TCL1* is involved in the development of early B and T cells by mediating survival and growth signals (Teitell, 2005). Aberrant *TCL1* expression is known in about 90% of CLL patients and functions *inter alia* as coactivator of AKT, ATM, and heat shock protein 70 (HSP70) (Paduano et al., 2018). The mechanisms underlying overexpressed *TCL1* in B cell malignancies remain unsolved, probably a combination of transcriptional and epigenetic alterations initiated by TME-specific stimuli (Yuille et al., 2001; French et al., 2003; Sivina et al., 2012).

Active Akt initiates the spontaneous development of RT in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice with a disease penetrance of 100%. The disease progression of the RT mouse model highly resembles the human RT outcome with an initial indolent course followed by sudden malignant transformation. In accordance with human RT, murine RT confirms an DLBCL-like histomorphology with enlarged, pleomorphic cells in absence of normal substructures and a distinctive lymphomatous phenotype including splenomegaly. Moreover, RT cells feature immoderate proliferative capacities and CLL/RT-typical immunophenotypic markers like CD5. The malignant effect of Akt is only observed in combination with overexpressed *TCL1*. Akt actions in absence of any oncogenic driver reveal an intrinsic phenotype but never drive leukemia/lymphomagenesis (Cox et al, submitted).

In line with the definition of RT, the genomic signature of the Akt-activated RT mouse model involves characteristic mutations of both CLL and DLBCL (Kohlhaas et al., 2020). The absence of recurrent mutations despite the identification of single RT-associated somatic alterations for individual mice, such as members of the BCR signaling or *Notch1*, confirms that murine RT exclusively occurs based on Akt actions as kinase. This finding indicates that Akt cooperates in the induction of aggressive CLL. Thereby, murine *in vivo*-studies of this thesis reveal the requirement of Akt actions on the transformation from CLL to RT.

#### 4.1.2 Akt Promotes the Activation of the Notch1 Proto-oncogene in RT

Active AKT in *NOTCH1* mutated human cases with progressive CLL or RT suggests a correlation between AKT and NOTCH1 signaling in the aggressive course. In human biopsies, gain-of-function mutations in the *NOTCH1* gene occur in approximately 10% of CLL cases at diagnosis and 30% of RT cases (Fabbri, Rasi, et al., 2011; Puente et al., 2011). Hence, *NOTCH1* mutations represent the most RT-promoting aberration. *NOTCH1* somatic aberrations markedly reduce the overall survival of patients supposing a dismal prognosis and an unfavorable clinical outcome, similar to patients with *TP53* abnormalities (Rossi, Rasi, et al., 2012). Under physiological conditions, the evolutionary conserved NOTCH1 signaling promotes proliferation, maturation, and survival of B cells. NOTCH1 stimulation empowers the release of NICD as active moiety that translocates into the nucleus to regulate the transcription of target genes together with the transcription factor RBPJ (Andersson, Sandberg, and Lendahl, 2011).

(Phospho)proteomic profiling of murine RT cells compared to CLL cells confirms changes for proteins associated with the Notch1 signaling. Thereby, more than half of significantly changed proteins exhibit transcription factor binding sites for Rbpj/Notch in promoter region of corresponding genes. For instance, S100a4 has been identified as the most upregulated protein in RT cells that was verified to be transcriptionally regulated by Rbpj/Notch1. Members of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent S100 family highly correlate with metastasis, cell survival, and proliferation, implicating an aggressive course of cancer (Bresnick, Weber, and Zimmer, 2015; Brenner and Bruserud, 2018). In addition, *Pdcd10* tumor suppressor is downregulated in the RT mouse model both at the transcriptional and protein level. Consistently, *Pdcd10* is accepted as a cancer-related target gene of Rbpj/Notch1 that represses the activation of Akt (Lambertz et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2020). Furthermore, *Mecp2*, a repressor of *Notch1* transcription and Akt

signaling, is decreased in murine RT cells (Li et al., 2014). In line with this, scRNA-seq data of the Akt-mediated RT mouse model in comparison to CLL mice reveal that the majority of differentially expressed genes in RT is regulated by Rbpj/Notch (Kohlhaas et al., 2020).

In further molecular investigations, augmented expression of prominent Rbpj/Notch target genes like *Hes1* approves Akt-initiated upregulation of the canonical Notch signaling. Notch1 is identified as the receptor involved in RT progression by enhanced expression and elevated protein levels of its intracellular, active moiety. In contrast, *TCL1*-driven CLL shows no alterations in Notch signaling. This study suggests that the co-overactivation of Akt and Notch1 signaling enables the malignant transformation to RT. In accordance, Akt/Notch interactions are assumed under physiological conditions in B cells. For instance, Akt/Notch2 cooperation empowers B cell differentiation toward MZ B cells in absence of any oncogenic driver including *TCL1* (Cox et al, submitted). While concurrent activation of PI3K/Akt and Notch1 triggers tumorigenesis in melanoma (Bedogni et al., 2008) and ALL (Gutierrez and Look, 2007; Hales, Taub, and Matherly, 2014), a possible crosslink between Akt and Notch1 for CLL pathogenesis has not been reported so far. This study demonstrates for the first time that the overactivation of Akt increases the aggressiveness of CLL by activating the Notch1 pathway as a pivotal effector.

#### **4.1.3 Regulatory T Cells Promote RT by Presenting Notch1 Ligands on the Cell Surface**

Notch signaling needs external stimuli from the microenvironment *via* presentation of appropriate ligands, membrane-bound members of the Delta/Jagged family (LaFoya et al., 2016). Consequently, the Notch1 receptor needs the ligand-based activation to

evolute its proto-oncogenic effect. In CLL, dysregulated Notch activation is tissue- and microenvironment-dependent. Due to the highest upregulation of intracellular Notch1 in the spleen during RT, the splenic TME represents a potential source for Notch1 ligands like Dll1. This corresponds to the finding of Arruga *et al* which revealed highest expression and activation of NOTCH1 in human SLO-derived CLL cells (F. Arruga et al., 2014). Over the last decade, the central role of the TME in the pathogenesis of CLL and other B cell malignancies has been discovered but is still poorly understood.

This thesis shows abundant Dll1 ligand on splenic Cd4<sup>+</sup> T cells, especially on T<sub>reg</sub> cells, in Akt-mediated RT but not in CLL. In accordance, human BCR-activated CLL cells are known to instruct the migration of T cells toward SLOs *via* chemokines and to modify the TME to enable intercellular interactions (Attekum, Eldering, and Kater, 2017). This thesis further suggests that Notch1 activation in splenic RT cells promotes the expansion of ligand-presenting T<sub>reg</sub> cells. In concordance with the murine data of this thesis, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells exhibit aberrant proliferation during human CLL (Palma et al., 2017). Furthermore, augmented frequencies of blood-derived T<sub>reg</sub> cells are reported in CLL patients with high accumulation in SLOs correlating with progressive outcome and unfavorable genetics (Weiss et al., 2011; Biancotto et al., 2012). In addition to Notch receptors, Notch ligands undergo proteolytic cleavage by Adam proteins and  $\gamma$ -secretase after binding to receptor to release an intracellular ligand domain (D'Souza, A. Miyamoto, and G. Weinmaster, 2008). Although the function of the proteolysis is not yet understood, an intrinsic activity is hypothesized which might support Notch activation and cell survival as a positive feedback mechanism (Zolkiewska, 2008). Nevertheless, the multiple modifications of SLO-located T cells enable Notch1 overactivation to drive murine RT.

In CLL patients, T cells are deregulated whereas the effect of various T cell subsets as pro- or anti-tumorigenic TME cells is still under discussion. Under physiological condi-

tions,  $T_{reg}$  cells reduce the activity of effector T cells as immunosuppressor to maintain peripheral tolerance and to limit autoimmune and chronic inflammatory diseases. The pathogenic effect of  $T_{reg}$  cells during CLL is still uncertain. Here, a pro-tumoral impact of  $T_{reg}$  cells is suggested.

Although RT describes an aggressive form of CLL, Akt-mediated RT cells highly depend on the TME. Despite the transcriptional regulation of Notch ligands like *Jag1* by *Rbpj/Notch1*, enhanced ligand proteins are absent on murine RT cells alluding to the inability of their mutual activation. These results are in line with previous studies that validate the absence of all NOTCH1 ligands (DLL1, DLL4, and JAG1) on human CLL cells in both *NOTCH1* mutated and wildtype cases (F. Arruga et al., 2014). JAG1 expression and protein processing correlate with survival of CLL cells but not with NOTCH activation (De Falco et al., 2018). Furthermore, NOTCH1 is known to be rapidly repressed in absence of TME-specific stimuli even in *NOTCH1*-mutated CLL cells (F. Arruga et al., 2014). This exhibits the requirement of consistent TME interactions for NOTCH1 signaling.

These findings verify the dependency of Akt-initiated RT cells from the splenic TME by the presentation of Notch1 ligands and the cellular expansion of ligand presenting  $T_{reg}$  cells. On the other hand, murine RT cells are shown here to adapt the surrounding TME toward a pro-tumoral behavior to ensure cancer progression.

## 4.2 The Active, Intracellular Domain of Notch1 Initiates RT Independent of the Splenic TME

### 4.2.1 Active Notch1 Drives the Transformation from CLL to RT

The most frequent *NOTCH1* mutations in CLL and RT patients affect the C-terminal PEST domain (approximately 80% of cases) (Rosati et al., 2018). Mutations consist of 2-bp (CT) frameshift deletions that cause a premature stop codon and the truncation of the PEST domain (Willander et al., 2013). The PEST domain promotes the proteasomal degradation of cleaved NICD. Consequently, PEST deletion prolongs the half-life of activated NICD (Blain et al., 2017). Although *NOTCH1* mutations predict the stabilization of its active form and dysregulated signaling, investigations of the functional effect of mutated NOTCH1 are still missing but vitally needed for the understanding of its pathogenic function in CLL.

To prove the transformative potential of activated Notch1 *in vivo*, a E $\mu$ -*TCL1* transgenic CLL mouse model with a B cell-specific active Notch1 was characterized. For this purpose, only the intracellular, active domain of Notch1 without the PEST domain is expressed in the E $\mu$ -*TCL1* CLL mouse model. Notch1 activation spontaneously drives RT in E $\mu$ -*TCL1* mice with large tumor burden and disease penetrance of 100%. In accordance with the definition of human RT, Notch1-mediated RT affirms DLBCL-like histomorphology, CLL/RT-specific immunophenotypic characteristics, and splenomegaly. Notch1-caused RT further indicates an aggressive course by immoderate proliferation. Beside the various ages of incidence, the observed phenotype is nearly identical to the characterized Akt-initiated RT mouse model. The oncogenic function of Notch1 is only present in combination with overexpressed *TCL1*. In absence of any malignant driver, the activated Notch1 mouse model reveals an intrinsic phenotype but never develops



any B cell malignancies. Consolidated, this study confirms that the Notch1-activated RT mouse model imitates the biology of human RT. Overactivation of Notch1 promotes the progression of CLL toward RT.

#### **4.2.2 Notch1 Acts as a Pivotal Upstream Oncogene of Akt during RT**

This study suggests that Notch1 exerts its tumorigenic activity by acting downstream of the PI3K/Akt signaling. *Vice versa*, this thesis provides evidence that Notch1 also acts upstream of the PI3K/Akt pathway. *Akt1* is here verified as a direct target gene of Rbpj/Notch1 during RT. As published for T-ALL, Notch1 can indirectly promote Akt activity by silencing the *Pten* tumor suppressor gene *via Hes1* (Palomero, Dominguez, and Ferrando, 2008). *Pten* constitutes a major brake of the PI3K/Akt pathway by exerting enzymatic activity as a PIP<sub>3</sub> phosphatase (Cantley and Neel, 1999; Georgescu, 2010). In line with this, Notch1 drives Akt activation by reduced *Pten* expression in murine RT. This result corresponds to the data of patients with RT or aggressive CLL of this study that show anomalous AKT activation in *NOTCH1* mutated cases. In addition, studies about melanoma and metastatic colon cancer have reported that overexpressed *NOTCH1* increases the aggressiveness of cancer by activating the PI3K/AKT pathway which is reversed by NOTCH1 inhibition with  $\gamma$ -secretase inhibitors (GSIs) (Balint et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2006; Pal et al., 2018).

Consolidated, Akt and Notch1 activate each other in murine RT. This thesis demonstrates for the first time that bidirectional Notch1-PI3K/Akt interactions induce the transformation of CLL toward RT as key signaling.

### 4.2.3 Active Notch1 Drives RT Independent of the Splenic TME

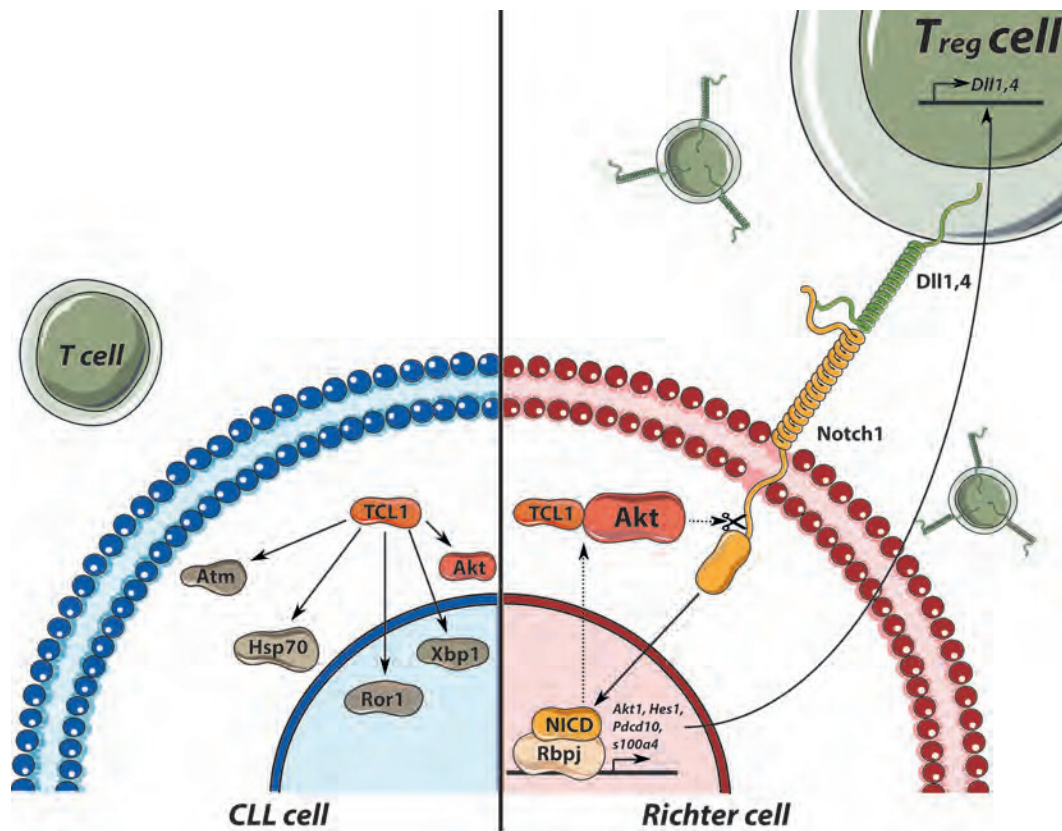
Akt-induced RT empowers Notch1 actions by multiple modifications of the splenic TME, mainly *via* increased occurrence of Dll1-presenting T<sub>reg</sub> cells. In contrast, the Notch1-mediated RT mouse model affirms the TME-independent development of RT with unchanged TME cell populations and absent Notch1 ligands on their cell surface. Presumably, the presentation of Notch ligands on the cell surface requires the extracellular domain of Notch receptors that is lacking in the Notch1-IC-induced RT mouse model. Nevertheless, Notch1-activated RT cells empower ligand expression in surrounding T cells maybe by pro-tumorigenic cytokine production, regulated by Rbpj/Notch1 target genes (Colombo et al., 2018).

This study demonstrates that the expression of the intracellular, active domain of Notch1 induces RT, uncoupled from the SLO-derived TME. This strongly evidences the importance of the oncogenic Notch1 signaling in RT and proves the driving force of Notch1 in aggressive CLL pathogenesis.

## 4.3 Conclusions

This thesis shows the transformative central function of bidirectional Akt/Notch1 signaling in the development of RT in both human sections and murine *in vivo*-studies. Notch1 activation is mediated by splenic, ligand-presenting T<sub>reg</sub> cells (**Fig.4.1**). The up-regulation of Notch1 ligands in T<sub>reg</sub> cells requires both the expression of Rbpj/Notch1 target genes and the extracellular domain of the Notch1 receptor in RT cells. Thereby, this study indicates that the expression of Notch1 ligands in T cells is induced by Rbpj/Notch1 target genes of RT cells whereas the enhanced presentation of ligands as well as the expansion of TME subsets might require the possible binding to the extracellular moiety of the Notch receptor. This illustrates the potential 'manipulative'

effect of RT cells on the TME to promote disease progression.



**Fig. 4.1: Bidirectional overactivation of Akt and Notch1 in *TCL1*-overexpressed CLL promotes RT.** During CLL, *TCL1* regulates downstream proteins including Akt, Atm, Ror1, and Hsp70 (Paduano *et al*, 2018; left side). During RT, overactivated Akt enhances the stimulation of the canonical Notch1 signaling by promoting the expression of Rbpj/Notch1 target genes. Notch1 activation is caused by ligand-presenting regulatory T (*Treg*) cells. Activated Notch1 induces further Notch1 ligand and presentation and cell expansion of *Treg* cells. Rbpj/Notch1 target genes are *inter alia* involved in the transcriptional upregulation of *Dll1* and *Dll4* in *Treg* cells. Identified target genes during RT include *Akt1*, *Hes1*, *Pcd10*, and *s100a4*. Vice versa, Notch1 enhances Akt actions by promoting phosphorylation (right side). The illustration was created using Servier Medical Art. CLL: chronic lymphocytic leukemia, Dll1,4: Delta-like protein 1,4, Hes1: Hairy enhancer of split 1, Hsp70: Heat shock protein 70, NICD: Notch1 intracellular domain, Pcd10: Programmed cell death 10, Rbpj: Recombination signal binding protein for immunoglobulin kappa J region, Ror1: Receptor tyrosine kinase like orphan receptor 1, s100a4: S100 calcium-binding protein A4, *TCL1*: T cell leukemia/lymphoma protein 1, Xbp1: X-box binding protein 1.

This thesis supports further studies to develop PI3K/AKT- and NOTCH1-targeted therapies for aggressive CLL and RT. Kinase inhibitors of the BCR signaling have become attractive alternatives to chemotherapeutic treatments for leukemia/lymphoma, such as ibrutinib and idelalisib (Wiestner, 2012; Wiestner, 2015; Maharaj, Sahakian, and Pinilla-

Ibarz, 2017). Due to the multiple physiological functions of PI3K/AKT and NOTCH1 in various cell types, severe and lasting side effects are conceivable during systemic inhibition of both pathways. To minimize side effects, treatments that are directed to oncogenic AKT/NOTCH1 mediators or interaction partners are more selective and recommended. For instance, S100A4 is a newly identified RBPJ/NOTCH1 target in CLL that comes more and more into focus for novel therapies. A recent study records first successes of an anti-S100A4 antibody therapy in aggressive cancer (Ganaie et al., 2020). However, because of the high correlation between active AKT/NOTCH1 and poor outcome, pAKT and NICD may function as novel prognostic tools for human CLL patients.

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## 7 Versicherung

Ich versichere, dass ich die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation selbständig angefertigt, die benutzten Quellen und Hilfsmittel vollständig angegeben und die Stellen der Arbeit - einschließlich Tabellen, Karten und Abbildungen -, die anderen Werken im Wortlaut oder dem Sinn nach entnommen sind, als Entlehnung kenntlich gemacht habe; dass diese Dissertation noch keiner anderen Fakultät oder Universität zur Prüfung vorgelegen hat; dass sie - abgesehen von oben angegebenen Teilpublikationen - noch nicht veröffentlicht worden ist sowie, dass ich eine solche Veröffentlichung vor Abschluss des Promotionsverfahrens nicht vornehmen werde. Die Bestimmungen dieser Promotionsordnung sind mir bekannt. Die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation ist von PD Dr. F. Thomas Wunderlich betreut worden.

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Vivien Kohlhaas

(Köln, den 02.03.2021)

# Curriculum Vitae

## Personal Information

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Name	Vivien Kohlhaas
Date of Birth	April 4 <sup>th</sup> , 1994
Place of Birth	Witten, Germany
Mail	Vivien.Kohlhaas@sf.mpg.de

## Further Education

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2017-2021	<b>PhD</b> under supervision of Habil. T. Wunderlich, PhD; MPI for Metabolism Research, Cologne Heinrich-Heine-University, Düsseldorf
2015-2016	<b>Master Study</b> 'Biochemistry', Fast Track Heinrich-Heine-Universität, Düsseldorf
2012-2015	<b>BSc</b> 'Biochemistry' (ECTS: A) Heinrich-Heine-Universität, Düsseldorf  'The Analysis of Interorgan Lipid Handling in Mouse Models with Tissue-Specific Overexpression of SREBP-1c' under supervision of Habil. Michael Roden, PhD; German Diabetes Center (DDZ), Düsseldorf

## Academic Fellowship

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2013-2016	Grant 'Deutschlandstipendium Chancen Nutzen'
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## Publications

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Cox, EM, El Behi, M, (submitted), **AKT activity orchestrates marginal zone B cell development in mouse and human**. *Journal of Experimental Medicine*.

Kohlhaas, V, Blakemore, SJ, Al-Maarri, M, (2020), **Active Akt signaling triggers CLL toward Richter transformation via overactivation of Notch1**. *Blood*. 137 (5):646–660.

Jelenik, T, Fjögel, U, Alvarez-Hernandez, E, (2018), **Insulin resistance and vulnerability to cardiac ischemia**, *Diabetes*. 67(12) 2695-2702

### ***Conferences, Seminar***

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2021	Lecturer ReSi Seminar, Cologne
2020	Cell Press – New Horizons in B Cell Biology Conference, Shanghai
2018	Global Health Conference ‚World Health Summit‘, invited by ‚Melinda & Bill Gates Foundation‘, Berlin

### ***Extracurricular Experience***

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Lecturer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-biomedical and biotechnological academies at the ‘Science College Overbach’ (since 2017)</li><li>-mathematics academies of the ‘Landesverband Mathematikwettbewerbe NRW e. V.’ (until 2016)</li><li>-scientific talk about ‚Non-destructive testing of materials‘, invited by the German Research Foundation (DFG) and ‚Ministerium für Familie, Kinder, Jugend, Kultur und Sport des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen‘ (2012)</li></ul>
Juror	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-,Jugend forscht‘ for biology and chemistry (since 2016)</li></ul>
Membership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>-STEM ambassador at ‚MINT Zukunft schaffen‘ (since 2016)</li><li>-Member of the GBM</li></ul>