In Vivo RNAi Screening Identifies a Leukemia-Specific Dependence on Integrin Beta 3 Signaling


SUMMARY

We used an in vivo small hairpin RNA (shRNA) screening approach to identify genes that are essential for MLL-AF9 acute myeloid leukemia (AML). We found that Integrin Beta 3 (Itgb3) is essential for murine leukemia cells in vivo and for human leukemia cells in xenotransplantation studies. In leukemia cells, Itgb3 knockdown impaired homing, downregulated LSC transcriptional programs, and induced differentiation via the intracellular kinase Syk. In contrast, loss of Itgb3 in normal hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells did not affect engraftment, reconstitution, or differentiation. Finally, using an Itgb3 knockout mouse model, we confirmed that Itgb3 is dispensable for normal hematopoiesis but is required for leukemogenesis. Our results establish the significance of the Itgb3 signaling pathway as a potential therapeutic target in AML.

Significance

Effective therapy for acute myeloid leukemia (AML) requires the elimination of leukemia cells residing in the bone marrow, a microenvironment that supports the survival of both normal and malignant hematopoietic cells. In a series of in vivo RNAi screens, we identified molecules that are essential for leukemia cells in vivo, including integrin beta 3 (Itgb3); its heterodimeric partner, integrin alpha v (Itgav); and downstream signaling molecules. We found Syk phosphorylation to be an essential mediator of Itgb3 activity in AML. Loss of Itgb3 or Syk induced differentiation and decreased expression of leukemia stem cell gene-expression signatures. In contrast, genetic inactivation of Itgb3 did not impair normal hematopoiesis, highlighting the potential of targeting Itgb3 signaling to treat AML.
INTRODUCTION

Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) is characterized by increased proliferation and impaired differentiation of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs). With current treatments, the 5-year overall survival in adult AML is less than 20% and has improved only modestly in the past 30 years (Maynadie et al., 2011). The development of novel therapies with greater efficacy and decreased toxicity requires the identification of specific dependencies in leukemia cells that are absent in normal HSPCs in vivo (Gilliland et al., 2004).

Leukemia stem cells (LSCs) are a self-renewing subpopulation that is capable of initiating the disease upon transplantation into healthy recipients (Lapidot et al., 1994). LSCs reside in an in vivo microenvironment, as do normal HSPCs (Scadden, 2007). Increasing evidence indicates that the niche for malignant cells can influence disease initiation (Raaijmakers et al., 2010), lineage decisions (Wei et al., 2008), cellular localization, and response to chemotherapy (Ishikawa et al., 2007). Successful strategies to target the interaction of LSCs with the microenvironment using both small molecules (Parameswaran et al., 2011; Zeng et al., 2009) and biologics (Chao et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2006) have been reported.

Monotypic cell culture lines used in some traditional high-throughput drug-discovery efforts may not reflect the primary disease from which they were derived (Drexler et al., 2000; Sharma et al., 2010) and thus may not be useful for probing important interactions between primary leukemia cells and the hematopoietic niche or identifying which of these interactions are selectively required for leukemia cells relative to normal HSPCs. Indeed, a number of “nontraditional” screens have identified important modulators of disease biology (Guzman et al., 2005; North et al., 2007; Yeh et al., 2009).

Pooled in vivo RNAi screens offer a strategy for identifying novel therapeutic targets for leukemia in their physiologic microenvironment. In this approach, primary leukemia cells that are enriched for stem cell activity and are capable of generating leukemia in mice are infected with a pool of lentiviruses expressing small hairpin RNAs (shRNAs). Transduced cells are transplanted into recipient mice, where they engraft and grow in the host microenvironment. The quantitative representation of each shRNA in the pool of cells prior to transplantation and at subsequent time points can be determined by using massively parallel sequencing, highlighting genes that are essential for malignant cells (Luo et al., 2008; Mendes-Pereira et al., 2011).

We employed this approach to find therapeutic targets in primary murine and human AML cells using the MLL-AF9 mouse model of human leukemia. A number of MLL translocations, including MLL-AF9 and MLL-ENL, have been shown in mouse models to transform committed hematopoietic progenitors (Cozzio et al., 2003; Krivtsov et al., 2006). We performed a series of in vivo shRNA screens to identify genes that are selectively essential for leukemia cells compared with normal HSPCs, and to explore downstream signaling molecules.

RESULTS

Pooled In Vivo shRNA Screening of Primary Murine Leukemia

To achieve a robust pooled in vivo shRNA screen in primary AML cells, we sought to use a model with labeled leukemia cells, an established cell-surface marker phenotype of LSCs, a short latency, and a high penetrance. To this end, we introduced the MLL-AF9 oncogene via retroviral transduction into flow-sorted granulocyte-monocyte progenitor cells (GMPs) from Actin-dsRed transgenic mice, enabling rapid identification of leukemic cells within wild-type tissue. Previous studies have shown that expression of MLL-AF9 in normal GMPs is sufficient to create an aggressive, transplantable myeloid leukemia with functionally defined LSCs that display an immunophenotype similar to that of normal GMPs (Linb, Sca-1, c-Kit+, FcγRIIb, and CD34b) (Krivtsov et al., 2006). We further enriched for stem cell activity by serially transplanting the leukemias through secondary, tertiary, and quaternary recipients, generating fluorescently labeled leukemias with 100% penetrance (Figure S1A available online). We noted predictable and reproducible engraftment of leukemia cells in the bone marrow and spleen of recipient mice after transplant (Figure S1B).

We performed a primary screen using a pool of lentiviruses, each of which expressed one of 1,352 shRNAs, targeting 268 genes plus 66 control shRNAs that are not homologous to the sequence of any murine genes (Figure 1A). The targets include known and candidate cancer-associated genes and genes that were discovered in previous unbiased RNAi screens (Table S1). Sorted leukemia cells (Figure 1B) from quaternary transplant MLL-AF9-dsRed mice were transduced with the lentiviral shRNA pool and transplanted into sublethally irradiated recipients. In addition, an aliquot of leukemia cells was plated onto OP9 stromal cells, a well-established murine, bone-marrow-derived stromal cell line that is capable of supporting primary HSPCs for many weeks in vitro in the absence of cytokine supplementation (Nakano et al., 1994). Using massively parallel sequencing of PCR-amplified shRNA sequences from genomic DNA, we quantified the relative representation of each shRNA in the infected leukemia cells immediately after infection, and in cells harvested 2 weeks later from the bone marrow, spleen, and in vitro culture. We selected 60 candidate genes targeted by at least two shRNAs that were most highly depleted over 2 weeks (candidate genes that are required for leukemia cells), and 15 genes targeted by at least two shRNAs that were most increased over 2 weeks in vivo or in vitro.

We systematically retested all 75 candidate genes in an in vivo validation screen (Figure 1C), achieving 20-fold higher coverage of leukemia cells per shRNA than in the primary screen and high interreplicate reproducibility (Figures 1D and S1C–S1G). The relative representation of each shRNA after 2 weeks in the bone marrow and spleen were highly correlated (R² = 0.85; Figure 1C), demonstrating the reproducibility of the screen and the biological similarity of leukemia cells in these organs. The top hits demonstrate that the shRNA screen highlights biologically relevant molecules (Figure 1E). Consistent with the recently reported requirement of β-catenin in MLL-AF9 LSCs (Wang et al., 2010; Yeung et al., 2010), all three shRNAs targeting β-catenin were depleted by >20-fold (Figure 1F), and shRNAs targeting Apc, a negative regulator of β-catenin activity, were enriched in

46 Cancer Cell 24, 45–58, July 8, 2013 ©2013 Elsevier Inc.
leukemia cells after 2 weeks (Figures 1G and S1H). At least two shRNAs per gene were depleted for additional genes known to be required for MLL-AF9 leukemia (Me2c and Ccna1) (Ekberg et al., 2005; Krivtsov et al., 2006; Liao et al., 2001), genes universally required for cell survival (Ube2j2 and Utp18) (Luo et al., 2008), genes reported to be essential in other AML models (Hmgb3) (Petit et al., 2010; Somervaille et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2005), and Myb, a gene that is important for LSC and HSPC survival (Lieu and Reddy, 2009; Somervaille et al., 2009). The performance of shRNAs targeting these genes demonstrates that our in vivo screen is capable of detecting the activity of genes with biological relevance for MLL-AF9 leukemia cells.

**Integrin Beta 3 Is Essential for Leukemia Cells**

The top three hits from the validation screen were two positive controls with established importance in MLL-AF9 leukemia, nectin, osteopontin, and bone sialoprotein, raising the possibility that Itgb3 plays a role in the interaction of leukemia cells with the microenvironment (Seiffert, 1996; Stier et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2009). The previously reported Itgb3 germline knockout mouse has normal peripheral blood counts, aside from platelet defects resulting from disruption of the Itgb3/Itga2b (GPIIb/IIIa) receptor (Hodivala-Dilke et al., 1999), and the conditional knockout animal has no hematopoietic defect in the primary recipient and a mild defect in reconstitution in the secondary recipient (Umemoto et al., 2012). Additionally, Glanzmann’s thrombasthenia is a human disorder of impaired platelet activation that results from mutations in either ITGB3 or ITGA2B, which together form the GPIIb/IIIa receptor on platelets (Nurden et al., 2011). Critically, aside from the platelet activation defect, patients with biallelic ITGB3 mutations do not have a bone-marrow failure phenotype, highlighting the potential

**Ctnnb1 and Hmgb3** (Somervaille et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010), and Itgb3, encoding Integrin Beta 3. In all cases, three independent shRNAs were depleted by >20-fold over 2 weeks (Figures 1F and 1H; Table S2). Integrins mediate many cellular processes and interact with multiple components of the bone marrow, including fibronectin, vitro

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**Figure 1. Pooled In Vivo shRNA Screening of Primary Leukemic Cells Identifies Itgb3 as a Mediator of Leukemia Progression**

(A) The primary screen (green) was performed using LSCs isolated from quaternary transplant leukemia. The in vivo arm was performed in five replicate mice, and the in vitro arm was performed on the OP9 stromal cell line in six replicates. The primary screen hits were retested in five separate subpools with five replicates per mouse in the validation screen (red). T0 is the time point 24 hr after infection.

(B) Primary LSCs (Hoechstlo dsRed+ c-Kithi CD34+) driven by the MLL-AF9 oncogene used for screening were isolated from the bone marrow of moribund quaternary transplant leukemic mice. (C) A scatterplot of the change in shRNA representation in the validation screen after in vivo growth shows high concordance between the bone marrow and spleen compared with input. For genes highlighted in blue, at least two shRNAs were depleted by 20-fold in either the bone marrow or spleen.

(D) In a heatmap depiction of the validation screen, individual shRNAs (rows) in each replicate (columns) are shown in deep red for the highest number of reads and in blue for low numbers of reads.

(E) Multiple shRNAs targeting positive control genes were depleted by 20-fold in the validation screen.

(F–H) The prevalence of test shRNAs (colored lines) and control shRNAs (gray lines) over time in the validation screen is shown for Ctnnb1 (F), Apc (G), and Itgb3 (H).

See also Figure S1 and Tables S1 and S2.
dispensability of ITGB3 in long-term hematopoietic stem cell maintenance and function.

We first confirmed the functional effects of Itgb3 and Ctnnb1 shRNAs. We verified that primary murine leukemia cells express Itgb3, and that all three shRNAs targeting Itgb3 and Ctnnb1 effectively decreased expression of their target gene (Figures 2A, S2A, and S2B). To track the shRNA-carrying leukemia cells by flow cytometry, we inserted the Ctnnb1, Itgb3, and control (shLuc) shRNAs into a lentiviral vector that coexpresses GFP. We transduced leukemia cells with these shRNA-lentiviruses expressing GFP, transplanted them into sublethally irradiated recipients, and followed the proportion of GFP+ leukemia cells expressing GFP, transplanted them into sublethally irradiated recipients over 2 weeks in the presence of Itgb3 but not control shRNAs (p < 0.05, significance determined by two-way ANOVA analysis).

We also found that after 7 days of growth in vivo, leukemia cells carrying Itgb3 shRNAs continued to have decreased cell-surface expression of Itgb3 (Figure S2F).

Of note, despite homing and engrafting in the bone marrow at day 6, the disease burden of leukemia cells carrying Itgb3 shRNAs progressively declined over time, reflecting the continued activity of the shRNAs in cells in the niche. To evaluate the possibility that the observed phenotype was due solely to impaired homing of the cells to the bone marrow, we assessed the activity of the Itgb3 shRNAs in an ex vivo assay. Primary leukemia cells were harvested, infected with Itgb3 or control shRNAs, and then grown in isolation with murine IL-3 or in coculture with OP9 cells, murine bone-marrow stromal cells that were previously shown to support ex vivo growth of HSPCs (Nakano et al., 1994) and to be capable of supporting primary leukemia cells in the absence of cytokine supplementation. Regardless of the culturing condition used, the leukemia cells carrying Itgb3 shRNAs were depleted over time, reflecting the fact that these shRNAs can act in a homing-independent fashion (Figure S2G). Importantly, we did not observe any appreciable effect of lentiviral infection on cell-surface Itgb3 expression (Figure S2H).

Because any individual shRNA might produce off-target effects that influence the observed phenotypes, we confirmed the specificity of the Itgb3 shRNAs. We designed an Itgb3 complementary DNA (cDNA: Itgb3 Rescue) with at least six silent mutations at each of the shRNA-binding sites and inserted the cDNA into the pMSCV-IRES-GFP (pMIG) retroviral backbone. Expression of pMIG-Itgb3 Rescue resulted in high cell expression of Itgb3 on primary leukemia cells in vivo and did not significantly alter the growth characteristics of the leukemia cells after 2 weeks in either the bone marrow or spleen (Figures S2I and S2J). In Ba/F3 cells, introduction of pMIG-Itgb3 Rescue resulted in high levels of Itgb3 expression that was maintained despite expression of Itgb3 shRNAs (Figure S2K). Leukemia cells were serially transduced with pMIG-Itgb3 Rescue and either Itgb3 or control shRNAs coexpressing the puromycin resistance gene, selected in puromycin for 2 days, and transplanted into recipient mice (Figure S2L). GFP+ cells carrying the Itgb3 Rescue vector increased
Itgb3 shRNAs, but not in the leukemias expressing a control shRNA over 2 weeks in vivo (Figure 2D), reflecting the ability of Itgb3Rescue to abrogate the effects of the Itgb3 shRNAs. Confirming our prior results, the lack of GFP+ cell expansion in the Itgb3Rescue plus shLuc control demonstrates that Itgb3Rescue alone does not change the growth properties of the leukemia cells.

We next sought to determine whether knockdown of Itgb3 would confer a survival advantage to recipient mice. Sublethally irradiated recipient mice were transplanted with 50,000 leukemia cells, all of which expressed Itgb3 shRNAs, in contrast to the GFP-tracking experiment in which only a subset of cells expressed GFP (Figure S2C). Mice that were transplanted with leukemia cells expressing Itgb3 shRNAs lived significantly longer than control mice (Figure 2E). These experiments demonstrate that Itgb3 shRNAs effectively impair leukemia growth in vivo.

The Heterodimer Itgb3/Itgav Is Required for Leukemia Cell Survival

Because Itgb3 heterodimerizes with Itgav in myeloid cells (Savill et al., 1990), we hypothesized that knockdown of Itgav would phenocopy knockdown of Itgb3, providing further evidence of the function of Itgb3 in leukemia. We first confirmed the coexpression of Itgav and Itgb3 on leukemia cells in our model by flow cytometry (Figures 3A and S3A). Consistent with the known interaction of Itgb3 and Itgav, knockdown of Itgb3 with shRNA Itgb3-20 decreased Itgav cell-surface expression after 7 days in vivo (Figure 3B). Furthermore, using our GFP-tracking approach, we found that leukemia cells expressing either of two shRNAs that suppress Itgav (Figure 3C) were depleted from the bone marrow and spleen after 2 weeks of growth in vivo relative to a control shRNA, demonstrating that Itgav, like Itgb3, is required for leukemia cells (Figures 3D and S3B).

ITGB3 Is a Target in Human Leukemia

To establish the relevance of ITGB3 for human disease, we examined the expression and functional importance of ITGB3 in human AML. Using flow cytometry, we found examples of ITGB3/ITGAV expression on primary human samples of both MLL-rearranged and non-MLL-rearranged AML (Figure S3C). Next, we assessed the functional importance of human ITGB3 in M9 cells, leukemia cells derived from umbilical cord blood cells transduced with the MLL-ENL oncogene (Barabé et al.,

Figure 3. The Itgb3/Itgav Heterodimer Is Required for Murine and Human Leukemia Growth In Vivo

(A and B) Cell-surface expression of Itgav on unmanipulated primary murine leukemia cells (A) or primary cells infected with Itgb3-20 or control shRNAs after 7 days in vivo (B) was determined by flow cytometry.

(C and D) Itgav shRNAs decrease Itgav transcript levels (C) and decrease leukemia cell growth after 2 weeks in vivo as assessed by the percentage of GFP+ cells (D).

(E) Two ITGB3 shRNAs were strongly depleted from M9 cells in the bone marrow (blue) and spleen (red) after 3 weeks of growth in NSG mice.

(F) ITG3 shRNAs impair the in vivo growth of both cytogenetically normal (green) and MLL-rearranged (red) primary human AML cells as assessed by shRNA representation in the bone marrow and spleen of NSG recipient mice after 6 (MLL-rearranged) or 8 (normal cytogenetics) weeks. **p < 0.01. Error bars represent ±SEM. See also Figure S3.
2007). M9 cells can either be passaged in vitro or transplanted into immunodeficient mice, resulting in leukemia. We generated a pool of lentiviral shRNAs targeting the human counterparts of the genes that scored in our murine screen. Following transduction with the pooled lentivirus, M9 cells were transplanted into immunodeficient NOD-SCID/IL2Rγ−/− (NSG) recipient mice and harvested after 21 days. The representation of shRNAs in the bone and spleen was assessed by massively parallel sequencing. As with the murine screens, the data were highly reproducible between replicates and between the bone marrow and spleen (Figure S3D). Both of the validated ITGB3 shRNAs tested were depleted by 20-fold in the spleens and bone marrow of mice transplanted with M9 cells relative to control shRNAs, replicating the results from our murine screen in human cells with an independent set of shRNAs (Figure 3E).

To evaluate the functional relevance of ITGB3 for primary human disease, we performed xenotransplantation studies with primary human AML samples expressing ITGB3 or control shRNAs. We examined two primary AML samples: one from a patient with cytogenetically normal AML and one from a patient with MLL-rearranged AML. We transduced a pool of lentiviruses with human ITGB3 and control shRNAs into the primary leukemia cells. After 24 hr, half of the cells were harvested for processing and half were transplanted into immunodeficient NSG mice. We monitored the mice for engraftment and progression of disease by peripheral blood hCD45 analysis. Bone marrow and spleens were harvested 6 weeks after transplant for the MLL-rearranged AML and 8 weeks for the cytogenetically normal AML. The representation of shRNAs was assessed by massively parallel sequencing. We found that two independent ITGB3 shRNAs, both of which effectively decrease ITGB3 expression, impaired primary leukemia cell growth of both samples by at least 10-fold in the bone marrow and spleens of recipient mice (Figures 3F and S3E). In aggregate, these findings demonstrate that, at least for a subset of primary human leukemia, ITGB3 is expressed on the cell surface and is functionally essential in vivo.

**Knockdown of Itgb3 Does Not Impair Normal HSPC Function In Vivo**

The therapeutic opportunity for targeting Itgb3 in leukemia depends on the selective importance of Itgb3 for leukemia cells relative to normal HSPCs. In wild-type mice, we found Itgb3 expression on stem, progenitor, and mature myeloid cells. Expression was higher in stem cells (Lin−/− Sca-1−/− c-Kit+ CD48−/− – LSK CD48−) compared with progenitor cells (LSK CD48+; Figures 4A and S4A). Among progenitor cells, expression was highest in GMPs, which share the immunophenotype of the LSC population in the MLL-AF9 model (Figure 4B; Kritsvotz et al., 2006). Mature myeloid cells (Mac1+ Gr1−) had higher expression than immature myeloid cells (Mac1− Gr1−; Figure S4B).

We examined the functional effect of acute Itgb3 loss by transducing murine LSK cells with Itgb3 or control shRNAs (Figures 4C and S4C) and transplanting the cells into lethally irradiated recipients. Because the infection efficiency was not 100%, only a portion of the LSKs expressed the shRNAs (and thus were GFP−); therefore, the experimental setup represents a competitive transplant in which, within each mouse, the LSKs carrying an shRNA competed against the LSK that did not carry an shRNA. We found no significant difference between normal cells expressing Itgb3 or control shRNAs, based on the percentage of GFP+ peripheral blood cells over 24 weeks. This finding stands in striking contrast to the profound in vivo growth inhibition mediated by the same Itgb3 shRNA in leukemia cells (Figures 2C and 2E). We also performed peripheral blood lineage analysis at 24 weeks to determine whether the Itgb3 shRNA had any effect on differentiation. We found there was no significant difference in the levels of T, B, or myeloid cells between the two groups (Figure 4D), suggesting that Itgb3 knockdown does not impair HSPC differentiation in the transplant model.

**Itgb3 Knockdown Impairs Leukemia Cell Homing and Induces Differentiation**

Given the role of integrins in multiple cellular processes, including proliferation and homing, we sought to determine the mechanism of leukemia cell depletion following Itgb3 knockdown. First, using Hoechst staining, we found no differences in the cell-cycle states of primary leukemia cells expressing Itgb3-17, Itgb3-20, or control shRNAs after 4 days (Figure SS5A). We next examined whether decreased expression of Itgb3 alters primary leukemia cell homing. Primary leukemia cells were infected with Itgb3 or control shRNAs, transplanted into sublethally irradiated recipients, and harvested from the long bones of mice after 16 hr. We found no difference in the representation of shRNA-carrying leukemia cells between the two groups (Figure SS5B), implying that Itgb3 knockdown does not cause a gross defect in bone-marrow localization after transplant. Next, we used live in vivo imaging of the murine calvarial bone marrow (Fujisaki et al., 2011) to investigate the possibility that, despite the ability of cells to travel to the bone marrow after Itgb3 knockdown, there may be a defect in homing to the endosteum. Leukemia cells that were transduced with either Itgb3-20 or control shRNAs were isolated, stained with DiD (a membrane-bound fluorescent dye), and transplanted into lethally irradiated recipient mice. After 24 hr, identical volumes of calvarial bone marrow were imaged using intravitral two-photon confocal microscopy. Compared with leukemia cells transduced with control shRNA, significantly fewer leukemic cells transduced with the Itgb3-20 shRNA were anchored near the endosteal surface (Figures 5A and 5C), demonstrating that Itgb3 contributes to homing of leukemia cells in vivo.

We next examined the effect of Itgb3 knockdown by gene-expression profiling. Strikingly, four of the top 20 most upregulated probe sets in the Itgb3 knockdown samples encoded myeloperoxidase and lysozyme, two highly specific markers for myeloid maturation (Figure 5B). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) (Subramanian et al., 2005) confirmed that, compared with a control shRNA, the Itgb3 knockdown samples had significantly higher expression of a series of published myeloid differentiation signatures (Hahn et al., 2009; Kritsvotz et al., 2006; Novershtern et al., 2011) and lower expression of a series of LSC signatures (Gal et al., 2006; Somervaille et al., 2009; Figure 5C; Table S3).

In agreement with the GSEA results, compared with a control shRNA, leukemia cells expressing Itgb3 shRNAs had significantly lower levels of c-Kit (Figures 5D and S5D), a cell-surface protein that marks populations most enriched for LSCs (Kritsvotz et al., 2006). Furthermore, histopathological analysis of cellular morphology following Itgb3 knockdown revealed darker nuclei,
decreased nuclear/cytoplasmic ratios, and increased monocytic morphologic changes, consistent with myeloid differentiation (Figure 5E). In contrast to the myeloid differentiation and LSC signatures, Itgb3 knockdown did not alter three previously published β-catenin gene signatures (Bild et al., 2006; Liberzon et al., 2011; Onder et al., 2008; Figure S5E).
Figure 5. Itgb3 Knockdown in Primary Leukemia Cells Impairs Homing and Induces Differentiation

(A) Leukemia cells carrying Itgb3 shRNAs do not home to the bone marrow as efficiently as those carrying control shRNAs, as evidenced by in vivo two-photon microscopic analysis of recipient mice calvaria. Shown is the mean number of leukemic cells per mouse calvaria 24 hr after transplantation (n = 3).

(B) Heatmap depiction of genes with increased (red) and decreased (blue) expression in primary leukemia cells infected with Itgb3 relative to controls. MPO, myeloperoxidase; LYZ, lysozyme.

(C) GSEA shows increased expression of a myeloid differentiation signature (Krivtsov et al., 2006) (top) and decreased expression of an LSC signature (Somervaille et al., 2009) (bottom) in leukemia cells with Itgb3 knockdown relative to controls.
We then examined the activity of human ITGB3 shRNAs in two human AML cell lines, HL-60 and U937, which are canonical models of differentiation therapy in AML. After confirming expression of ITGB3 and activity of ITGB3 shRNAs in both cell types (Figure 5F), we found that ITGB3 knockdown induced morphological evidence of differentiation (Figure 5G) and increased expression of a gene-expression signature of myeloid differentiation. This was comparable to the effects of all-trans-retinoic acid (ATRA), detected by multiplexed ligation-mediated amplification and detection of amplicons on fluorescent beads as previously described (Hahn et al., 2009; Figures 5H and S5F). Both ITGB3 shRNAs also dramatically increased cell-surface expression of the mature myeloid markers CD14 and CD11b in HL-60 and U937 cells (Figures S1E and S5G), consistent with myeloid differentiation.

Identification of Mediators of Itgb3 Signaling in Leukemia

Having established that itgb3 knockdown selectively targets leukemia cells, impairs homing, and induces differentiation, we sought to determine whether mediators of itgb3 signaling are also essential for MLL-AF9 transformed cells. Itgb3 signaling has been studied in platelets and other cell types, but not in leukemia (Kasirer-Friede et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2009). We sought to identify critical mediators of itgb3 signaling in our primary mouse model using a comprehensive functional approach. We therefore systematically analyzed known pathway members with an additional pooled in vivo shRNA screen (Figures 6A and S6A) focused on 19 genes (97 shRNAs), with seven control shRNAs to maximize the sensitivity of the in vivo readout. As expected, all of the shRNAs targeting itgb3 were powerfully depleted over 2 weeks. In addition, the screen highlighted multiple key mediators of itgb3 signaling that are also essential for leukemia cells in vivo (Figures 6B and S6B). At least two validated shRNAs were depleted by >10-fold over 2 weeks in vivo for the Syk, Vav1, Rac2, Rhoa, and CD47 genes. Interestingly, nearly all of these hits have been implicated in hematologic malignancies, but their activity has not previously been linked to integrin signaling in this context.

We focused on Syk for three reasons. First, it is directly downstream of itgb3 in megakaryocytes and thus may be directly related to itgb3 function in leukemia cells. Second, data from germline and conditional knockout animals suggest that in hematopoiesis, although Syk is potentially important for the function of select differentiated cells, it may be dispensable for stem cell function (Cornall et al., 2000; Mocsa et al., 2002; Wex et al., 2011). Finally, multiple large-scale phase II clinical trials of the small-molecule Syk inhibitor R406, the active metabolite of the soluble orally available SYK inhibitor fostamatinib (Braselmann et al., 2006), in idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura and rheumatoid arthritis did not result in significant neutropenia among the treatment groups (Bajpai, 2009; Podolanczuk et al., 2009; Weinblatt et al., 2008). Thus, Syk may, in part, explain the selectivity of itgb3 inhibition on leukemia cells.

We demonstrated that individual, validated Syk shRNAs in GFP-expressing vectors impair leukemia growth in our model in vivo (Figures 6C, 6D, and S6D). To examine whether Syk is an essential mediator of itgb3 activity, we tested whether TEL-SYK, a constitutively active form of Syk (Kanie et al., 2004), could rescue the effect of itgb3 knockdown. Primary murine leukemia cells were serially transduced with pMIG-TEL-SYK and either itgb3-20 or control shRNAs (carrying the puromycin resistance gene). Transduced cells were selected with puromycin for 2 days, yielding cells that uniformly express the shRNA. A subset of this cell population also expresses TEL-SYK. Cells were then transplanted into sublethally irradiated recipients (Figure S6E). After 2 weeks, the proportion of GFP+ (TEL-SYK+) leukemia cells was significantly higher in the leukemias coexpressing the itgb3 shRNA compared with leukemias coexpressing the control shRNA (Figure 6D). Importantly, as evidenced by the absence of GFP+ cell expansion in the TEL-SYK plus shLuc control, TEL-SYK alone did not change the growth properties of the leukemia cells in vivo. This result reflects the ability of TEL-SYK fusion to rescue the inhibitory effects of itgb3 knockdown.

To further confirm the role of Syk in our model, we generated a gene-expression signature comprised of genes that are upregulated in human leukemia cell lines after treatment with the Syk inhibitor R406. Using GSEA, we found that, compared with a control shRNA, primary leukemia cells carrying the itgb3 shRNAs significantly increased expression of the R406 treatment signature (Figure 6E). We then tested the activity of R406 on leukemia cells from our model using a coculture assay. OP9 mouse bone-marrow stromal cells were plated in a clear-bottomed, 384-well plate, and 24 hr later primary leukemia cells were added to the stromal layer. After 24 hr, R406 or XK469, a topoisomerase II inhibitor and positive control for cell death (Kakodkar et al., 2011), were added to the coculture in six doses. After 6 days, the plates were imaged and dsRed cells were counted. Mirroring the expected results with XK649, R406 inhibited leukemia cell growth in a dose-dependent fashion (Figure 6F).

Next, we examined the biochemical connection between ITGB3 and SYK. To establish the connection in the context of the MLL-AF9 translocation, we used the Mono-Mac-6 and MOLM-13 cell lines, both of which carry the MLL-AF9 translocation (Matsuo et al., 1997; Ziegler-Heitbrock et al., 1988). The cell lines were transduced with two human ITGB3 shRNAs, selected in puromycin, and assessed for levels of phosphorylated SYK (p-SYK). In both cell lines, knockdown of ITGB3 resulted in a significant reduction of p-SYK as measured by intracellular phospho-flow (Figures 6G, 6H, 6F, and 6G). Western blot
analysis confirmed that knockdown of ITGB3 reduced levels of p-SYK without changing overall SYK levels in both cell types (Figures 6 I and S6H). To extend the results beyond MLL-AF9, we transduced SKM1 cells, originally isolated from a patient with myelomonocytic leukemia (Nakagawa and Matozaki, 1995), with \textit{ITGB3} shRNAs. Western blot analysis again revealed that both \textit{ITGB3} shRNAs caused a powerful decrease in p-SYK levels without changing the overall SYK levels (Figure S6 I), demonstrating that ITGB3 directly impacts SYK activation in leukemia cells.

Germline Loss of \textit{Itgb3} Selectively Impairs Leukemogenesis

Finally, to confirm the selective role of \textit{Itgb3} in leukemia cells relative to normal HSPCs, we examined a definitive genetic model with homozygous germline inactivation of \textit{Itgb3}. In agreement with the normal peripheral counts previously reported for the \textit{Itgb3} knockout mouse (Hodivala-Dilke et al., 1999), we found that there was no difference in the absolute number or percentage of hematopoietic progenitors in the bone marrow of \textit{Itgb3}-/- and \textit{Itgb3}+/+ groups (Figures 7A, 7A, and S7B). Next, we sought to characterize the effect of germline \textit{Itgb3} loss on HSPCs using long-term competitive reconstitution assays. One million bone marrow cells from either \textit{Itgb3}+/+ or littermate control \textit{Itgb3}+/+ mice (CD45.2) were transplanted along with one million wild-type competitor bone-marrow cells (CD45.1) into lethally irradiated recipient mice (Figure S7 C). We assessed the chimerism of the hematopoietic compartment over 22 weeks by comparing CD45.1, CD45.1/2, and CD45.2 levels in the peripheral blood. There was no difference in the levels of chimerism between \textit{Itgb3}+/+ and \textit{Itgb3}+/+ bone marrow (Figure 7 B), indicating that germline loss of \textit{Itgb3} does not impair the ability of normal HSPCs to home, engraft, or grow in a long-term in vivo transplantation assay. Finally, we analyzed the distribution of differentiated cells in recipient mice that received either \textit{Itgb3}-/- or \textit{Itgb3}+/+ bone marrow, and found that peripheral blood lineage analysis at 22 weeks showed no difference in the levels of myeloid (Mac1+', Gr1+'), T cell (CD3+), or B cell (B220+) levels.
between the two groups (Figure 7C). Thus, loss of Itgb3 by germ-line deletion or by shRNA knockdown does not impair normal HSPC engraftment, reconstitution, or differentiation.

Given the dramatic growth-inhibitory effect of Itgb3 shRNAs on leukemia cells in vivo, we examined the effect of expressing the MLL-AF9 fusion gene in Itgb3−/− cells. We hypothesized that if Itgb3 is required for leukemia growth, there should be an impairment in the leukemia formation of bone marrow from Itgb3−/− mice carrying MLL-AF9. We tested this directly in an in vivo leukemogenesis latency experiment. c-Kit+ bone-marrow cells from either Itgb3−/− or littermate control Itgb3+/+ mice were transduced with pMSCV-MLL-AF9-IRES-GFP retrovirus and transplanted into lethally irradiated wild-type recipient mice (Figure S7D). We found that mice transplanted with transduced Itgb3−/− bone marrow lived significantly longer than those transplanted with the transduced Itgb3+/+ bone marrow (Figure 7D). The striking differences observed between malignant and normal hematopoiesis using both RNAi and germline knockout studies demonstrate the selective importance of Itgb3 in leukemia and its potential as a therapeutic target.

**DISCUSSION**

Integrins play a role in multiple cellular processes relevant to cancer, including homing, adhesion, motility, proliferation, and apoptosis (Desgrosellier and Cheresh, 2010; Guo and Giancotti, 2004). Using a series of in vivo genetic screens, we identified Itgb3 as a gene that is selectively functionally essential for murine and human leukemia cells relative to normal HSPCs. Loss of Itgb3 in leukemia cells by both RNAi and germline deletion impaired leukemia cell growth but had no effect on normal HSPCs in vivo. Leukemia cells carrying an Itgb3 shRNA were depleted by >50-fold in <2 weeks, whereas normal HSPCs carrying the same shRNA were unaffected after 24 weeks. Leukemia cells from both the M9 leukemia model and primary leukemia samples carrying ITGB3 shRNAs also exhibited impaired growth in vivo. Moreover, we found leukemia cells to be dependent on Itgav, the heterodimeric partner of Itgb3; Syk, a kinase downstream of Itgb3; and genes encoding other interacting proteins or downstream signaling molecules. Knockdown of Itgb3 impaired homing of primary leukemia cells and induced myeloid differentiation in our murine model and in two human leukemia cell line models, in addition to causing decreased levels of p-SYK in MLL and non-MLL contexts. In contrast, genetic loss of Itgb3 in normal hematopoietic cells did not impair stem or progenitor cell function or differentiation in the primary transplant model, highlighting a potential mechanism by which Itgb3 inhibition selectively impairs leukemia cell growth.

We identified multiple members of the Itgb3 signaling pathway that are also essential for leukemia, including Syk, Vav1, Rac2, Rhoa, Ptk2b, Pak6, and CD47. Knockdown of Syk or small-molecule Syk inhibition impaired leukemia cell growth, activated SYK rescued the effects of Itgb3 knockdown, and ITGB3 down-regulation decreased p-SYK levels. Of note, small-molecule SYK inhibitors have shown activity against AML in xenotransplant models, again highlighting the biological and therapeutic connection between Itgb3 and Syk (Hahn et al., 2009).

The identification of Itgb3 highlights the utility of in vivo genetic screens for discovering potential therapeutic targets in a physiologic microenvironment. In addition, we employed pooled in vivo shRNA screens to genetically dissect human cancer cells.
in a xenotransplantation model and systematically examine the members of a biological pathway. The screens are quantitative, using massively parallel sequencing with thousands of reads per shRNA, and are highly robust, with the same shRNAs scoring across replicates, tissues (bone marrow and spleen), and different pooled screens.

Our findings highlight a critical axis for the biology and treatment of AML. The identification of the leukemia-selective dependence on \textit{Itgb3}, confirmation of ITGB3’s importance in human disease, molecular dissection of \textit{Itgb3} signaling, and elucidation of the cellular programs influenced by \textit{Itgb3} highlights the significance of this pathway for therapeutic interventions. Our studies also provide a paradigm for incorporating physiologically relevant screening strategies to further drive biological and drug-discovery efforts for this and other highly aggressive malignancies.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Lentiviral and Retroviral Production, Infection, and Screening**

Lentivirally expressed shRNAs in the pLKO.1 backbone vector were obtained from the RNAi Consortium at the Broad Institute. Production of lentiviral supernatants was performed as previously described (Luo et al., 2008). Pooled lentivirus for screening was generated either by pooling equal amounts of the lentiviral backbone vector DNA prior to lentiviral production or by pooling titrated virus for each individual shRNA to ensure equal representation of each shRNA. In the murine validation screen, each subpool of 55 shRNAs was introduced into one million cells, yielding an average of \(~4,500\) cells infected with each shRNA. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for further details regarding the DNA harvesting and sequencing for shRNA representation, and a list of shRNAs used in follow-up studies.

**Mouse Maintenance and Murine Studies**

All mouse experiments were conducted under IUCAC-approved animal protocols at Children’s Hospital Boston. The mouse strains used in this study included C57BL/6 (Taconic), C57BL/6 Actin-dsRed (Jackson Laboratory), and NOD-SCID/IL2Rg−/− (NSG; Jackson Laboratory). Recipient mice were either sublethally or lethally irradiated (1 \times 5.5\ GY [550 rads] or 2 \times 5.5\ GY [550 rads], respectively) prior to tail vein transplantation, as noted in the text. Transplanted cells were resuspended in 300 \(\mu\)L Hank’s balanced salt solution (Lonza) and loaded in 27.5 gauge syringes (Becton Dickinson). To generate leukemia cells, primary GMPs (Lin−, Sca-1, c-Kit+, Fc\?RII hi, and CD34−) were purified from C57BL/6 Actin-dsRed mouse spleens using flow cytometry, transduced with pMSCV-MLL-AF9-Neo, and transplanted into lethally irradiated C57BL/6 recipients as previously described (Krivtsov et al., 2006). After disease onset, cells were harvested from the spleens and transplanted into sublethally irradiated secondary recipients. Transplantation of bulk splenocytes from leukemic secondary mice was subsequently repeated twice to generate leukemia cells from quaternary transplantation. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details of the isolation and infection of normal leukemia cells for screening and follow-up studies.

For the \textit{Itgb3} knockout studies, c-Kit+ cells from \textit{Itgb3}−/− littermate control \textit{Itgb3}+/− mice were harvested and transplanted into wild-type recipients with helper bone marrow as described in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures. Chimerism analysis was performed using the CD45.1/2 system.

**Human Primary Cell Analysis and shRNA Screen**

All human studies were performed with informed consent and approval from the University of Rochester institutional review board. The human shRNA M9 screens in M9 cells (Barabé et al., 2007) and cryopreserved AML samples were performed in sublethally irradiated NSG mice in five replicates. Sample isolation was performed in a manner analogous to that used for the murine studies. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details of the culturing, infection, and harvesting protocols.

**Cell Cycle, Homing, and Differentiation**

Cell-cycle analysis of primary leukemia cells was performed 3 days after lentiviral infection using Hoechst 33342 dye. For the in vivo homing analysis, cells were isolated 16 hr after transplant from the bone marrow and compared with input, or analyzed after 24 hr using in vivo two-photon microscopy as previously described (Fujisaki et al., 2011); see Supplemental Experimental Procedures for more information. Differentiation analysis of murine leukemia, HL-60, and U937 was done with Giemsa-Wright staining and flow cytometry using c-Kit, CD11, and CD14 antibodies.

**Gene-Expression Studies**

RNA was isolated using either Trizol or an RNeasy kit (Qiagen) and cDNA was synthesized with SuperScript III (Invitrogen). Gene-expression analysis was performed on either the MouseWG-6 v2.0 Expression BeadChip (Illumina) or HT HG-U133A arrays. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details of sample preparation.

**Data Analysis and Statistics**

Kaplan-Meier analysis was performed using Prism 5 (GraphPad) software. In all figures, the mean and SEM are shown. For the shRNA screens, the raw sequencing data were normalized to the total number of reads for each replicate. The fold change was calculated as the ratio of normalized reads between two time points, divided by the ratio of read counts of control shRNAs between the same time points. A gene was considered a hit in the primary screen, ITGB3 targeting screen, and M9 screen if two shRNAs had a fold change of \(>10\). For the validation screen, a depletion of 20-fold and enrichment of 2-fold were used.

**ACCESSION NUMBERS**

The Gene Expression Omnibus accession numbers for the gene expression data reported in this paper are GSE46302 and GSE46307.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, seven figures, and three tables and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ccr.2013.05.004.

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