

Integrated Cellular and Plasma Proteomics of Contrasting B-cell Cancers Reveals Common and Systemic Tumour Signatures

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Cellular and Plasma Proteomics of B-cell Tumours

Abbreviations

| | |
|---------|---|
| BL | Burkitt's lymphoma |
| CLL | Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia |
| DEP | Differentially expressed protein |
| E μ | μ Ig heavy chain enhancer |
| Ig | Immunoglobulin |
| iTRAQ | Isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantitation |
| Rs | Regulation score (mean of $\log_2(\text{ratios})/(\text{SD of } \log_2(\text{ratios}) + 1)$) |
| SEC | Size exclusion chromatography |
| SuPrE | Sub-proteome enrichment |
| TMT | Tandem mass tags |
| WT | Wildtype |

Abstract

Approximately 800,000 leukaemia and lymphoma cases are diagnosed worldwide each year. Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) and chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL), are examples of contrasting B-cell cancers; BL is a highly aggressive lymphoid tumour, frequently affecting children, whilst CLL typically presents as an indolent, slow-progressing leukaemia affecting the elderly. The B-cell-specific over-expression of oncogenes in E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* mice induce spontaneous malignancies modelling BL and CLL, respectively. Quantitative mass spectrometry proteomics and isobaric labelling were employed to examine the biology underpinning these contrasting B-cell tumours. Additionally, the plasma proteome was evaluated using sub-proteome enrichment to interrogate biomarker emergence and the systemic effects of tumour burden. Over 10,000 proteins were identified ($q < 0.01$) of which 8270 cellular and 2095 plasma proteins were fully profiled with over 30% of each proteome demonstrating significant differential abundance for either tumour. Amongst the over-expressed B-cell tumour proteins were 126 potential therapeutic targets, 104 cell-surface proteins and >30 significantly enriched canonical pathways. Both tumour models highlighted over-expressed signatures of ribosome biogenesis, translation, cell-cycle promotion and chromosome segregation. E μ -*myc* tumours specifically over-expressed several methylating enzymes and under-expressed many cytoskeletal components. E μ -*TCL1* tumours specifically over-expressed ER stress response proteins and signalling components in addition to both subunits of the interleukin-5 (IL5) receptor. IL-5 treatment promoted E μ -*TCL1* tumour proliferation, suggesting an amplification of IL5-induced AKT signalling by *TCL1*. Tumour plasma highlighted a striking tumour lysis signature, most prominent in E μ -*myc* plasma, whilst E μ -*TCL1* plasma contained dominant signatures of immune-response, inflammation, microenvironment interactions and displayed putative biomarkers of early-stage cancer. Integrated evaluation of tumour cell and plasma proteomics provided systemic insight not captured in isolation. This provided mechanistic insight into the biology behind the emergence of cancer biomarkers, suggesting that early- and late-stage cancers dominantly exhibit systemic and tumour lysis signatures, respectively. Overall, these findings provide a detailed characterisation of two contrasting B-cell tumour models, identifying common and specific profiles in both tumour cells and plasma.

Introduction

Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) and chronic lymphocytic leukaemia (CLL) represent the extremes of B cell cancers; BL is highly aggressive and frequently affects children, whilst CLL typically presents as an indolent, slow-progressing leukaemia in the elderly (1, 2).

BL is a hallmark *myc*-driven tumour; induced by chromosomal translocation of the transcription factor *myc* to immunoglobulin (Ig) enhancers (3). *Myc* influences approximately 15% of the genome, regulating processes such as cell proliferation, metabolism, adhesion, angiogenesis and de-differentiation (4-6). Such neoplastic-like traits make *myc* an aggressive oncogene, dysregulated or overexpressed in most cancers (7). Formal proof of its oncogenic properties were demonstrated when human *myc* was placed into the μ Ig heavy chain enhancer ($E\mu$) region of the mouse. These ' $E\mu$ -*myc*' mice produced high-penetrance lymphomas within around 100 days, recapitulating several molecular and pathological aspects of BL (3, 8-10).

In contrast, CLL is a relatively indolent B-cell cancer, presenting with a $CD5^+CD19^+$ leukaemia (11, 12). Up to 90% of CLL cases express *TCL1* – a protein involved in lymphocyte development (13-15). *TCL1* is suggested to promote cell survival and proliferation by amplification of AKT phosphorylation, induced by growth factor-, cytokine- and B-cell receptor-induced PI3K signalling (16, 17). The $E\mu$ -*TCL1* mouse, overexpressing *TCL1* in B-cells again through the μ enhancer, was developed as a potential model of CLL (18). $E\mu$ -*TCL1* mice recapitulate the expanded bone marrow, splenic and circulatory $CD5^+$ B-cell populations of CLL, detectable from around 3-5 months of age. The disease progresses to lethal splenomegaly and leukaemia at approximately 12 months (18, 19). Currently it is regarded as one of the most useful pre-clinical models of CLL (20, 21).

Together, these models provide the opportunity to study oncogenesis mediated by two contrasting oncogenes at opposing ends of the proliferative spectrum. $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours, like BL, are highly aggressive, have rapid onset and form lymphoid tumours, while $E\mu$ -*TCL1* mice, like CLL, present a relatively indolent and slow-developing leukaemia with secondary lymphoid organ involvement (3, 18).

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In addition to cellular characterisations of tumours, plasma analysis holds the potential to identify additional biological signatures arising during oncogenesis. In particular, extracellular fluids can provide insight into the tumour-host dialogue between the immune system and micro-environment and report on the metabolic and homeostatic aberrations that tumours display. Further, combining cellular and plasma characterisation can provide greater insight into the mechanisms by which any biomarkers of disease may be entering the circulation.

Liquid chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (LC-MS) proteomics currently provides the best means of establishing global differential protein expression profiles of cellular and plasma samples. These approaches are evolving rapidly and yielding ever-increasing proteome coverage (22, 23). Nonetheless plasma/serum proteomics still presents significant challenges due to the vast dynamic range of protein concentrations (24). While advances continue to be made with immunodepletion strategies (25-27), an alternative method termed, Sub-Proteome Enrichment by Size Exclusion Chromatography (SuPrE-SEC), offers an effective alternative. SuPrE-SEC uses size-dependent protein fractionation to deplete high-abundance proteins and enrich for low-abundance proteins. The resulting reduction of the protein concentration dynamic range facilitates a greater depth of LC-MS proteomics coverage (28, 29).

This investigation has applied multiplexed, LC-MS proteomics to the characterisation of plasma sub-proteomes and isolated B-cell material from E μ -*myc*, E μ -*TCL1* and WT mice. The resulting proteomes have been interrogated to identify common and tumour-specific signatures and to understand the combined cellular and extracellular characteristics of B-cell tumours.

Methods

Materials

Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIS), SDS, Na₂EDTA, NH₄Cl, NaHCO₃, sodium deoxycholate (DOC), guanidine hydrochloride, glycine, HPLC and LC-MS grade ACN and formic acid (FA) and 100 μ m cell sieves were purchased from Fisher Scientific. Tween20 (tween), sodium heparin, propidium iodide (PI), carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE), asparagine, 2-

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mercaptoethanol, octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol (IgePalCA⁶³⁰), triton x-100, protease inhibitors, ponceau S, acetic acid, methyl methanethiosulfonate (MMTS), tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP), triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB), DMSO, hydroxylamine and ammonium hydroxide (NH₄OH) were purchased from Sigma.

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), glutamine, pyruvate, penicillin and streptomycin were purchased from Life Technologies. Mouse B-cell isolation kits and magnetic cell sorting columns were purchased from Miltenyi Biotech, Germany. 23 gauge needles and 1 ml syringes were purchased from BD Biosciences, Interleukin 5 (IL5) recombinant protein from Peprotech, Immobilon 0.45 µm pore PVDF membrane from Millipore and non-fat milk from Marvel. 30x DTT and 3x red loading buffer were purchased for Cell Signalling Technologies. Enhanced chemiluminescence reagents, tandem mass tags (TMT) 10-plex isobaric labelling reagents and 2 kDa M_w cut-off Slide-A-Lyzer dialysis cassettes and proteomics grade lys-c were purchased from Thermo Scientific. Proteomics grade trypsin was purchased from Roche. Isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantitation (iTRAQ) 8-plex reagents were purchased from ABSciex. Antibodies are detailed in **Supplementary methods**.

Animals

Mice were bred and maintained in-house with procedures carried out in accordance with home office licences PPL30/2450 and 30/2970 and PIL30/9925. Female Eµ-*myc* [C57BL/6J-TgN(Igh*Myc*)22Bri/J] hemizygous and Eµ-*TCL1* [C57BL/6J-TgN(Igh*TCL1*)22Bri/J] hemizygous mice were used. The Eµ-*myc* and Eµ-*TCL1* transgenes were detected with PCR. Eµ-*myc* primers (annealing temperature; 55°C): 5'- CAG CTG GCG TAA TAG CGA AGA G -3' and 5'- CTG TGA CTG GTG AGT ACT CAA CC -3' ~900 bp product, Eµ-*TCL1* primers (annealing temperature; 58°C): 5'- GCC GAG TGC CCG ACA CTC -3' and 5'- CAT CTG GCA GCA GCT CGA -3' ~250 bp product. Eµ-*TCL1* mice were screened monthly for count and percentage of B220⁺ CD5⁺ B-cells in the blood, being considered terminal either with >80% leukaemic cells or palpated splenomegaly >3 cm. Eµ-*myc* mice were checked daily and were considered terminal, typically upon visible lymph node tumour presentation.

Experimental Design and Statistical Rationale

Sample pooling, detailed in **Figures 1C** and **S1**, was used to accommodate comparative experiments in single isobaric label sets. Tumourous spleens were collected from 4 E μ -*myc* and 4 E μ -*TCLI* mice with terminal tumour presentation. For non-tumour controls, 6 spleens, handled as two pools of 3 spleens, were collected from 6 week old and 200 day wildtype (WT) littermates and 6 week-old E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCLI* mice with no signs of tumour or splenomegaly (summarised in **Figure 1** and **S1**). Non-tumour pools were analysed with 6 samples per isobaric label, while tumour samples were analysed as biological replicate pools of two tumours.

For plasma, 6 samples were individually collected for each of the above tumour and non-tumour conditions, in parallel with B-cell isolation. In addition, 6 samples were isolated from E μ -*TCLI* mice at a pre-terminal '30%' stage, when 30% B220⁺ CD5⁺ cells were present in the blood. To minimise bias these were selected from a cohort of 14 E μ -*TCLI* mice, from every other mouse reaching the 30% threshold. Tumour and pre-terminal '30%' tumour plasma were also analysed as biological replicates, with 3 samples allocated to each label.

Each pair of tumour pools was compared with two WT sample pools, generating four ratios which could be evaluated for consistency and significance to ensure the reproducibility of quantitative results. Replicate ratios were analysed for consistency with an FDR-corrected t-test and considered significant with a p-value of <0.05. P-values were coupled with a measure of magnitude detailed in 'Quantitative and Statistical Analysis of MS Data', below.

B-cell Isolation

B-cells were isolated from single-cell suspensions using the mouse negative selection B-cell isolation kits and MACS columns according to the manufacturer's instructions, washed once at room temperature (RT) in red blood cell lysis buffer (155 mM NH₄CL, 10 mM NaHCO₃, 0.1 mM Na₂EDTA (pH 7.4) before 3 washes in PBS. B-cell isolation efficiency was assessed by flow cytometry immunostaining with CD19 and CD3, typically yielding >90% purity with less than 2% T-

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cell (CD3⁺) contamination (**Figure S1**). B-cell pellets were snap frozen and stored in liquid nitrogen prior to lysate preparation.

Plasma Isolation

To isolate plasma, maximise sample purity, minimise red blood cell lysis and accommodate for organ displacement from tumours, an adaption of bleeding from the inferior vena cava under terminal anaesthesia (30) was utilised. Using a 23 gauge needle, 700-1000 μ l of blood was collected for each animal into 50 μ g/ml sodium heparin in PBS. Blood was immediately placed on ice and centrifuged at 2000 g for 15 minutes at 4°C with plasma stored in liquid nitrogen. Samples were rejected if red blood cell lysis was visible by eye.

Plasma Sub-proteome Enrichment

20 μ l was taken from each of the 6 replicate plasma samples described above to give pools of 120 μ l. For tumour samples, two 120 μ l pools of 3 x 40 μ l were formed to provide biological replicates (summarised in **Figures 1** and **S1**).

SuPrE-SEC was adapted from that described previously (28). Each 120 μ l plasma pool was diluted with 380 μ l of 6 M guanidine hydrochloride in 10% methanol and separated by 3 KW804 SEC columns in series at 1.2 ml/min and 30°C. The low molecular weight sub-proteome was isolated during elution from 42-55 minutes (**Figure 1D**) and dialysed (2 kDa M_w cut-off) into ultrapure water (18.2M Ω cm⁻¹) with 5 exchanges into 5 litres. Protein was lyophilised and re-solubilised in 0.5 M TEAB with 0.05% SDS with 30 μ g digested and labelled for MS analysis as described below.

Sample Preparation for MS

Snap frozen cell pellets were lysed on ice by trituration with a 23 gauge needle in 0.5 M TEAB with 0.05% SDS. Disrupted cells were further sonicated and lysates cleared at 16,000 g for 10 minutes at 4°C. 100 μ g of cell lysate or 30 μ g of plasma sub-proteome was reduced with 50 mM TCEP and alkylated with 200 mM MMTS, before digestion overnight at RT with a 30:1 ratio of proteomics grade trypsin. Plasma proteins were additionally digested for a further 2 hours at 37°C

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with 100:1 proteomics grade Lys-c. Peptides were incubated with either iTRAQ 8-plex (B-cell peptides) or TMT 10-plex isobaric tags (plasma peptides) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were then lyophilised and labelled peptides serially reconstituted, for each proteome, in 100 μ l of 2% v/v ACN, 0.1% v/v NH_4OH .

Peptide Pre-fractionation

Peptides were resolved using high-pH (0.1% v/v NH_4OH) RP C8 chromatography (150 mm x 3 mm ID x 3.5 μ m particle, XBridge, Waters) at 300 μ l/min with a LC-20AD HPLC system (Shimadzu) maintained at 30°C, using the mobile phases (MP); A – 99.9% H_2O , 0.1% NH_4OH , B – 99.9% ACN, 0.1% NH_4OH . The two hour gradient was as follows; 0 minutes; 2% B, 10 minutes; 2% B, 75 minutes; 30% B, 105 minutes; 85% B, 120 minutes; 2% B. Fractions were collected in a peak-dependent manner and lyophilised.

Peptide Fraction Resolution and Characterisation by LC-MS/MS

Lyophilized peptide fractions were individually reconstituted in 2% ACN, 0.1% FA and ~500 ng of peptides loaded by a Dionex Ultimate 3000 (Thermo Scientific). Conditions used varied between the plasma and B-cell proteomes, detailed in supplementary methods. In summary, peptides were trapped by C18 and eluted over a reverse phase gradient, of which several lengths were used depending on the peptide fraction abundance and proteome. The total MS time for the iTRAQ-labelled B-cell proteome was ~200 hours, with the TMT-labelled plasma proteome analysed over ~250 hours.

Peptide elution was directly coupled to electrospray ionisation at 2.4 kV using a PicoTip nESI emitter (New Objective), and were characterised with an Orbitrap Elite Velos Pro mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). MS characterisation of eluting peptides was conducted between 350 and 1900 m/z at 120,000 mass resolution. The top 12 +2 and +3 precursor ions per MS scan (minimum intensity 1000) were characterised by tandem MS with high-energy collisional dissociation (HCD) (30,000 mass resolution (15,000 for the B-cell proteome), 1.2 Da isolation window, 40 keV normalised

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collision energy) and CID (ion trap MS, 2 Da isolation window, 35 keV). Additionally the DMSO ion at 401.922718 was used as a MS lockmass (31).

MS Data Processing

Target-decoy searching of raw spectra data was performed with Proteome Discoverer software version 1.4.1.14 (Thermo Scientific). Spectra were subject to a two stage search, both using SequestHT (version 1.1.1.11), with Percolator used to estimate FDR with a threshold of $q \leq 0.01$. The first allowed only a single missed cleavage, minimum peptide length of 7, precursor mass tolerance of 5 ppm, no variable modifications and searched against the mouse UniProt Swissprot database (downloaded 01/15), supplemented with the human sequences for myc and TCL1. The second search used only spectra with $q > 0.01$ from the first search, allowed 2 missed cleavages, minimum peptide length of 6, searched against the human/mouse UniProt trembl database (downloaded 01/15), precursor mass tolerance of 10 ppm and a maximum of 2 variable (1 equal) modifications of; TMT or iTRAQ (Y), oxidation (M), deamidation (N,Q) or phospho (S,T,Y). In both searches, fragment ion mass tolerances of 0.02 Da and 0.5 Da were used for HCD and CID spectra, respectively. Fixed modifications of Methythio (C), TMT or iTRAQ (K and N-terminus) were used. PhosphoRS was used to predict the probability of specific phosphorylated residues. Reporter ion intensities were extracted from non-redundant PSMs with a tolerance of 20 ppm. To reduce ratio compression, peptide spectrum match data for proteins ($q < 0.01$) were exported from Proteome Discoverer and submitted to Statistical Processing for Isobaric Quantitation Evaluation (SPIQuE) at spiquetool.com. This method weighted the contributions of each PSM quantitation to a protein's quantitation on the basis of PSM features (manuscript in preparation). For example, high-intensity peptides with low isolation interference were given a greater weighting factor. While the effects upon the ratios were minimal, the overall trend demonstrated efficient ratio decompression (**Supplementary methods**). An example of the effect on the ratio decompression to the human TCL1 protein, discretely expressed in E μ -TCL1 B-cells, is outlined in **Supplementary methods**.

The raw data and processed outputs have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium (32) via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD004608.

Quantitative and Statistical Analysis of MS Data

Log₂ (ratios) were generated describing each sample pool relative to the two WT controls. To define those proteins with the greatest fold change for each biological state, an FDR-corrected one sample t-test was performed and average values determined. To derive a single, robust measure, representative of both the magnitude and consistency of differential expression, a ratio was defined between that of the mean and the standard deviation of the 4 log₂ ratios, termed the regulation score (Rs = mean/(standard deviation +1)). For proteins with no, or inconsistent differential expression, the Rs tends towards 0. The Rs also correlated more strongly with the p-value for each set of ratios

Supplementary methods. In all instances, differentially expressed proteins (DEPs) were defined as those with an FDR-corrected p-value of <0.05 and an Rs threshold of >0.5 or <-0.5. While arbitrary, evaluation of this threshold demonstrated a minimum average fold change of 1.4, for which a fold change variation of just 6% was observed. This therefore fulfilled the power analysis principles described by Levin, 2011 (33), but on a case-by-case basis, by incorporating variation into each Rs via the SD as a denominator. The outliers for this threshold were additionally highlighted to demonstrate that consistent differential expression was still observed **Supplementary methods.** Other p-values were determined by a false discovery rate-corrected 1- or 2-sample, two tailed, t-test with no assumption of equal variance.

Bioinformatics Analyses

Proteins reaching the thresholds outlined above were submitted to either Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) or Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID). For DAVID analyses, the default settings were used for pathway and gene ontology (GO) term enrichment, with Benjamini-corrected p-values of <0.05 considered significant. For B-cell/tumour proteome enrichments, all quantified proteins were used as a background. For IPA analyses, default settings were used. Upstream regulator analysis was determined using all DEPs (Rs>0.5/<-0.5, p<0.05). Annotations of biomarkers and drug targets were conducted by IPA. Plasma protein deconvolution was conducted by removing any proteins annotated by IPA as predominantly cellular in addition to any proteins with more than 30 PSMs from the B-cell proteome.

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SDS-PAGE and Western Blotting

Cells were lysed in radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) cell lysis buffer (0.15 M NaCl, 1% v/v octylphenoxypolyethoxyethanol (IgePalCA630), 0.5% w/v sodium deoxycholate (DOC), 0.1% w/v sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 0.05 M TRIS (pH 8) and 1% v/v protease inhibitor) and as described previously (34). Lysate supernatant were isolated by centrifugation (16,000 g for 10 minutes at 4°C). Protein concentrations were determined by Bradford assay. Lysates were reduced in loading buffer with 2-mercaptoethanol at 95°C for 5 minutes. Lysates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF. Membranes were blocked in 5% (w/v) non-fat milk for 1 hour before probing with primary antibodies, as detailed in **Supplementary methods**. Expression was detected by incubation with a horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody using enhanced chemiluminescence reagents and a ChemiDoc-It imaging system (UVP). GAPDH or tubulin were used as loading controls. Relative quantification of protein band intensity was determined using Image J, normalised against loading controls and ratios to WT B-cell lysates were derived. For Eμ-*myc* tumour validations, lysate protein concentrations were determined by bicinchoninic acid assay (BCA), reduced with DDT and diluted in 3x loading buffer. Western blots were visualised with fluorescent antibodies and an Odyssey Imaging System (Li-cor) and quantified using Image Studio 2.0 (Li-cor).

Cell Culture

Cells derived from Eμ-*myc* or Eμ-*TCLI* tumours were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 2 mM glutamine, 1 mM pyruvate, 45 units/ml penicillin, 45 μl/ml streptomycin, 200 μM asparagine, 50 μM 2-mercaptoethanol and 10% FCS. Eμ-*myc* tumours were cultured a density of 5×10^7 cells/ml at 37°C in 10% CO₂. Eμ-*TCLI* cells were cultured at a density of 5×10^6 cells/ml at 37°C in 5% CO₂. Cells were cultured for 24 hours prior to treatment. Unless otherwise specified, IL5 was used at a concentration of 100 ng/ml. Serum starvation was conducted for 4 hours in the above media with 0.5% BSA replacing FCS.

Flow Cytometry

Cells were stained with either the manufacturer's recommended concentration, or 10 µg/ml, of antibody (**Supplementary methods**) for 30 minutes in the dark, washed and analysed by flow cytometry with a FACScan or FACScalibur (BD) (35, 36). Relative expression was determined using the geometric means. Cell cycle status was assessed by hypotonic PI (50 µg/ml PI, 0.1% w/v sodium citrate, 0.1% w/v triton x-100) incubated at 4°C for 15 minutes. PI fluorescence was measured by FL2 on linear scale at the lowest flow rate. Cell division was tracked by CFSE dilution of cells stained with a concentration of 5 µM for 15 minutes at room temperature.

Results

Quantitative proteomics of Eµ-*myc* and Eµ-*TCL1* tumours and plasma

To characterise the global proteome expression of Eµ-*myc* and Eµ-*TCL1* tumours, an 8-plex iTRAQ experiment was designed incorporating terminal tumour, pre-malignant and age-matched WT B-cells (**Figure 1**). Sample pooling in combination with biological replicates enabled the averaging of biological variability of several samples within a single isobaric tag experiment. Splenic tumour samples, due to a greater anticipated variability, were pooled in two pairs of two tumours from each model; derived from a total of 8 terminal mice (**Figure S1**). Non-tumour controls consisted of samples pooled from 6 animals. For plasma proteomics, controls were again characterised as pools of 6 samples, with 2 pools of 3 plasma samples for each tumour condition. Additionally, plasma from pre-terminal Eµ-*TCL1* tumours was analysed, derived from mice reaching a CD5⁺ B220⁺ leukaemia threshold of 30%, termed '30%' samples. To accommodate these additional samples, TMT 10-plex isobaric labels were used.

The tumours selected for proteomics analysis, detailed in **Figure S1A-F**, were representative of the range of characteristics observed for the model. The median terminal presentations, for example (**Figure S1A**), of 92 and 318 days for Eµ-*myc* and Eµ-*TCL1* tumours, respectively, agreed with earlier reports (3, 8, 18, 19).

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Splenic B-cells from tumours and controls were lysed, trypsin digested and assigned to the 8 isobaric labels of iTRAQ 8-plex (**Figure 1**) to provide relative protein expression quantitation. The labelled B-cell peptides were pooled and characterised by two-dimensional (2D) LC-MS identifying 9260 proteins ($q < 0.01$). 8270 proteins were relatively quantitated across all 8 sample pools. The depth of proteome coverage and quantitation is summarised in **Figure S1H**.

Plasma samples were subjected to an adapted form of SuPrE-SEC (28), reducing the dynamic range and facilitating deeper proteome coverage by the exclusion of the majority of high-abundant proteins (**Table S1, Figure S1G**). 2D LC-MS characterisation of the plasma sub-proteome provided relative quantitation for 2095 of the 2688 identified proteins ($q < 0.01$). Peptide spectrum matches (PSMs) to the higher- M_w protein albumin ($n=3835$, $M_w=68.7$ kDa), for example, were of far lower abundance than transthyretin ($n=7769$, $M_w=15.8$ kDa) or apolipoprotein A-II ($n=7129$, $M_w=11.3$ kDa). Given approximate plasma concentrations of 40mg/ml, 260 μ g/ml and 300 μ g/ml for these proteins (37), respectively, this represented around a 275-fold enrichment of low M_w proteins.

Reproducibility and validation of quantitative proteomics results

The relative quantitative proteomes demonstrated tumour-dependent hierarchical clustering identifying common trends of differential tumour expression compared to both WT controls (**Figure 2A**). Evaluation of the reproducibility between tumour sample pools by linear regression highlighted the strong correlation between the 5 pairs of independent biological replicates (**Figure 2B**). Additionally, an overlap of 1288 proteins were quantitated in both the B-cell and plasma proteomes.

Individual protein expression was considered for a number of candidates to confirm the successful characterisation and analysis of the quantitative proteome. The results highlighted the anticipated model-specific over-expression of the *myc* and *TCL1* human transgenes (**Figure 2C, S2A,B**), in addition to characteristic CD5 over-expression and B220 under-expression for E μ -*TCL1* tumours. Several DEPs were validated by antibody-based methods to further verify the relative quantitative accuracy of the proteomics; 10 for E μ -*myc* tumours and 7 for E μ -*TCL1* tumours (**Figure S2G,H**). The \log_2 ratios to WT of these validations were plotted alongside the quantitative proteomics

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results (**Figure 2D**). Additionally, previously reported DEPs in $E\mu$ -*myc* or $E\mu$ -*TCLI* tumours were compared to the proteomics results (**Figure S2D,F**). A correlation was also observed with a study describing relative mRNA expression in $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours (38) (**Figure S2J**). Overall, the quantitative proteomics correctly identified over- or under-expression for the vast majority of the 38 DEPs observed by antibody-based quantitations. This comparison also highlighted reporter ion ratio compression, a commonly reported feature of isobaric tag quantitation (39, 40). Anticipated plasma proteins, such as IgM over-abundance in $E\mu$ -*TCLI* tumours, was also observed (**Figure S2I**). These results therefore supported the overall reliability of the DEP observations and the characterisation and analysis by which they were generated.

Proteomic characterisation of B-cell tumour phenotypes

Proteins were considered DEPs when both tumour pools demonstrated a clear, consistent over- or under-expression to both 6-week and 200-day WT samples. Rather than an average of the four derived ratios for each tumour, potentially misrepresentative of variable findings, a ratio of average to standard deviation ($\text{mean}/(\text{SD}+1)$) was calculated, termed the regulation score (Rs). This provided a single value expressive of both magnitude and consistency for either, or both, tumours relative to WT B-cells. In combination with FDR-corrected p-values, the Rs allowed careful selection of the most confidently and consistently DEPs (detailed in **Supplementary methods**).

The range of significantly DEPs for each tumour were represented by volcano plot, comparing Rs to $-\log_{10}$ (p-values) (**Figure 3A, S3A**). This analysis highlighted the broad extent of DEP signatures observed in each tumour, with approximately 3000 and 1500 DEPs in $E\mu$ -*myc* and $E\mu$ -*TCLI* tumours, respectively. The 6 week $E\mu$ -*myc* and $E\mu$ -*TCLI* B-cells exhibited signatures broadly indistinguishable from terminal $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours and WT B-cells, respectively (**Figure S3B**). When compared to one another, a common signature became apparent between $E\mu$ -*myc* and $E\mu$ -*TCLI* tumours (**Figure 3B**) demonstrating that many of the $E\mu$ -*myc* tumour-over-expressed proteins were also over-expressed in $E\mu$ -*TCLI* tumours, but to a lesser magnitude. Approximately 700 and 200 proteins were considered over- and under-expressed in the tumours of both models, respectively (**Figure 3C**). Examples of the 10 most consistently DEPs from this common signature were

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highlighted (**Figure 3D**); and annotated as predicted cell surface markers with potential as immunotherapy targets; drug targets, annotated by IPA; and novel DEP with no previous published links with cancer (detailed further in **Figure S3C-G**). Amongst the DEP common to both tumours were, for instance signatures of cell cycle upregulation, such as the three kinesin proteins, KIF11, KIF20A and KIF23 and an overall trend of cell surface protein under-expression such as CD23, CR2, CD200, CD40, IgG receptor FCGRT, CD38, CD22 and IL21R. The most consistently over-expressed surface proteins, HMMR/CD168, has previously been associated with B-cell cancers (41, 42).

Bioinformatics reveals signatures common to contrasting B-cell tumours

While individual DEPs can suggest functional insight, approaches simultaneously considering all DEPs, potentially offer a broader understanding of biological mechanisms. Accordingly, topological, proteome-wide expression patterns were investigated by bioinformatics.

Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment was used to identify processes overrepresented by the DEPs observed in both tumours (**Figure 4A, Table S3**). Amongst the over-expressed proteins GO term enrichment identified strong signatures of mechanisms relating to cell growth and proliferation, including; 'ribosome biogenesis' (n=106, p=1.8x10⁻²⁷), 'translation' (n=135, p=1.2x10⁻¹⁶), 'chromosome segregation' (n=81, p=6.0x10⁻¹⁴) and 'cell cycle' (n=229, p=2.5x10⁻¹¹). Amongst the under-expressed proteins were trends of several immune function-related terms, such as lymphocyte activation (n=41, p=8.8x10⁻⁷), immunoglobulin mediated immune response (n=15, p=2.1x10⁻⁵) and BCR signalling (n=11, p=2.9x10⁻⁴). Additionally, several processes related to immune evasion, differentiation and growth inhibition were enriched.

To visualise these processes and highlight the proteins contributing to the enriched GO terms, networks were displayed descriptive of individual proteins and their inter-relationships, defined by STRING (43). **Figure 4B** demonstrates a network generated from proteins annotated with 'chromosome segregation' highlighting the scale and complexity of the dysregulation of this process seen in in both tumours. 'Ribosome biogenesis' was also illustrated in this way (**Figure 4C**), highlighting those over-expressed proteins responsible for the term's enrichment. A cluster of

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interacting ribosome proteins was identified, alongside several assembly regulators. Several canonical pathways, including ribosome-, translation-, and cell cycle-related pathways demonstrated significant enrichment in both tumours (**Figure S4A**). A network detailing all under-expressed proteins revealed a highly inter-related series of interactions highlighting major histocompatibility complex proteins, interferon response proteins and B-cell-related signalling molecules (**Figure 4D**).

To simultaneously analyse both proteome-wide over- and under-expression, upstream regulators were evaluated using IPA. Upstream regulator activity was inferred by the comparison of anticipated downstream expression profiles of proteins with those expression profiles derived by quantitative proteomics for both tumours (**Table S3, Figure S4B-E**). Protein functionality was then inferred from a combination of the resulting upstream regulator activation z-scores – a value proportional to overall predicted activation (44) – and the proteomics-determined differential abundance (**Figure 4E**). Several regulators not quantitated by proteomics, including miRNA were also inferred to be activated or inactivated (**Figure S4C,E**).

Myc over-expression and inferred activation ($R_s=1.11$, $z=8.09$, $p=6.6 \times 10^{-26}$), alongside other proliferative drivers and oncogenes (eg. E2F3, MYCN, RABL6 ($R_s>0.5$, $z>4$)) described several key, functional regulators influencing the neoplastic B-cell phenotype (**Figure 5I, Table S3**). The combined over-expression and inferred inactivation of TP53 ($R_s=0.97$, $z=-3.76$, $p=1.6 \times 10^{-34}$) and retinoblastoma 1 (RB1) ($R_s=0.59$, $z=-2.86$, $p=2.3 \times 10^{-21}$), represented an anticipated evasion of tumour suppressor pathways. Interestingly, RB1-like 1 (RBL1) ($R_s=0.92$, $z=-4.47$, $p=2.2 \times 10^{-16}$), a lesser-established tumour suppressor, had greater over-expression and inferred inhibition than its better-studied family member.

It was additionally possible to compare differential protein phosphorylation to infer activation or inhibition (**Figure S4F-H**). HDAC2 over-expression in E μ -myc tumours, for instance, was accompanied by a signature of downstream inactivation (**Figure S4B**) and a decreased phosphorylation of S394 (**Figure S4H**), a modification previously associated with the activation of HDAC2 (**45**). Similarly, in E μ -TCL1 tumours, RBL1 over-expression was accompanied by apparent inactivation and decreased T385 phosphorylation. Differential phosphorylation of BCR signalling

pathway components demonstrated an increased phosphorylation of downstream proteins such as NF- κ B, OCT2 and ETS1 (**Figure S4J**).

Characteristics specific to E μ -myc B-cell tumours

While the common tumour signature in both models was strong, several tumour-specific differences were also apparent, particularly in the more aggressive E μ -myc tumours. To evaluate tumour-specific expression, proteins were filtered to include those which exhibited significant over- or under-expression in one tumour model ($R_s > 0.5 / < -0.5$, $p < 0.05$) but not the other ($R_s > 0.25 / > -0.25$). This identified 572 and 537 proteins with specific over- or under-expression in E μ -myc tumours, respectively. The 10 most over- and under-expressed proteins in addition to cell surface proteins were illustrated to highlight examples of this specific differential expression pattern in E μ -myc tumours (**Figure 5A**).

The over- and under-expressed proteins specific to E μ -myc tumours were evaluated, as for Figure 4A, for GO term enrichment (**Figure 5B, S3**). The majority of GO terms observed for both tumours were also observed for the E μ -myc-specific proteins, further highlighting trends of increased proliferation and growth of cells. Exceptions included trends of epigenetic-related processes and under-expressed cytoskeletal processes.

Most notably specific to over-expressed E μ -myc tumour proteins was the enrichment of the term 'methylation' ($n=50$, $p=0.03$). A network was formed from these 50 proteins (**Figure 5C**), highlighting over-expressed methylation enzymes relating to gene expression; both epigenetically (histone methylation, $n=18$) and post-transcriptionally (RNA methylation, $n=10$). CpG methylation appeared widely dysregulated with 2/3 methylation (DNMT1, DNMT3B) and 2/3 demethylation (TET2, TET3) enzymes over-expressed.

E μ -myc tumours demonstrated a broad downregulation of processes relating to the cytoskeleton, for example, 'actin cytoskeleton organisation' ($n=49$, $p=1.2 \times 10^{-6}$), as illustrated in a network (**Figure 5D**). This highlighted the under-expression of 6 actin-related protein 2/3 complex subunits (ARPC) and 3 coronin proteins. Three inter-related proteins from this network, coronin 1a

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(COR1A), lymphocyte cytosolic protein 1 (LCP1) and actin regulatory protein CAPG, were evaluated for relative expression in E μ -myc tumours, relative to non-tumour B-cells by Western blot (**Figure 5E**). In each instance, under-expression was observed in line with that of the quantitative proteomics findings (compared in Figure 2D). Additionally, myc over-expression was evaluated alongside two further cytoskeleton-related proteins; a broadly functioning regulator of cytoskeletal activity, myosin-9 (MYH9) and a cytoskeletal-membrane junction protein, moesin (MOE) again demonstrating anticipated differential expression.

Characteristics specific to E μ -*TCL1* B-cell tumours

Protein expression specific to E μ -*TCL1* tumours was also evaluated, with the top 10 DEPs and membrane proteins presented (**Figure 6A**). As validation this highlighted the discrete expression of human *TCL1* (**Figure S2A**) in E μ -*TCL1*-derived B-cell samples. GO term enrichment identified upregulated processes relating to intracellular compartments, such as ER stress, vesicular transport and glycosylation. Extracellular interactions, including signalling, locomotion and adhesion appeared as the strongest under-expressed process in E μ -*TCL1* tumours. A network formed from E μ -*TCL1*-specific over-expressed proteins (**Figure 6C**) highlighted clusters of associated proteins contributing to enriched GO terms, such as ER and golgi proteins. Several signalling proteins were also specifically over-expressed, such as phosphatidylinositol kinases and phosphatases. Associated with these signalling proteins were the alpha and beta subunits of the interleukin 5 receptor (IL5R α and IL5R β), also apparent amongst the top 10 membrane proteins highlighted in **Figure 6A**.

Interleukin 5 receptor is over-expressed by E μ -*TCL1* B-cell tumours

The over-expression of the IL5R was first evaluated by plotting the individual iTRAQ ratios for each unique peptide matching IL5R α and IL5R β (**Figure 6D, S5A-E**). For both IL5R subunits a clear, specific over-expression was apparent. Furthermore, the signature for IL5 activity was apparent through various bioinformatics analyses, including IPA regulator analyses (**Figure S4C, S5F**). A signature additionally became apparent in E μ -*TCL1* terminal and pre-terminal plasma indicative of an

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IL5-induced proliferation signature, as well as plasma signatures of quantitated proteins and inferred regulators potentially upstream of IL5 induction (**Figure S5G-I**).

Given the strength of this evidence, the surface expression of IL5R α , the subunit specific to IL5 recognition, was evaluated by flow cytometry for terminal and pre-tumour E μ -*TCL1* B-cells, relative to WT B-cells (**Figure 6E, S5J-K**). While IL5R α expression was observed across a wide distribution for WT B-cells, for pre-tumour E μ -*TCL1* B-cells, the emerging CD5⁺ population was observed with high IL5R α expression. The E μ -*TCL1* tumour cells exhibited the same CD5⁺IL5R α ⁺ expression as the emerging pre-tumour E μ -*TCL1* B-cell population.

Interleukin 5 drives proliferation in E μ -*TCL1* B-cell tumours via AKT

The observation of substantial over-expression of both IL5R α and IL5R β , strongly suggested a functional role for the IL5R and IL5 in driving E μ -*TCL1* tumours. To investigate and functionally validate the IL5R over-expression, terminal tumours from E μ -*TCL1* mice were treated with 0, 10 and 100 ng/ml of IL5 for 48 hours *in vitro*. Firstly, cell density indicated a dose-dependent expansion induced by IL5 (**Figure 7A**). CFSE labelling confirmed that cells were proliferating in a dose-dependent manner with as many as 70% of cells being post-mitotic after 48h of 100 ng/ml IL5 treatment (**Figure 7B**). Furthermore, evaluation of cell cycle phases by hypotonic PI staining demonstrated that almost three times as many cells (14.5%) were in S/G₂/M phase after 100 ng/ml IL5 treatment, compared with no treatment (4.9%) (**Figure 7C**).

Given the proposed role of *TCL1* in amplifying AKT signalling (16, 17), AKT activation by IL5 was investigated (**Figure 7D**). Serum starvation and the subsequent addition of IL5 induced AKT phosphorylation in a dose-dependent manner at doses of greater than 5 ng/ml. Downstream signalling was also apparent, with dose-dependent phosphorylation of the S6 ribosomal protein and S6 kinase, indicative of mTOR activation.

Plasma proteomics reveals signatures of tumour lysis and immune response

To investigate the overall plasma proteome signature, those proteins quantified commonly or discretely within the B-cell and plasma proteomes (**Table S2**) were dissected based on canonical

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protein localisations (**Figure 8A**). The vast majority (82%) of the 1288 proteins observed as common to both proteomes, were annotated with a canonical cellular localisation, compared to just 40% of proteins identified discretely in the plasma proteome. Furthermore, evaluation of the relative abundances in terminal tumour plasma revealed a striking signature of over-abundant cell-derived proteins (**Figure 8B**). The tumour origin of this plasma signature was additionally indicated by GO term enrichment (**Figure 8C**), with highly similar trends to that of the B-cell tumours (**Figure 4A**), and an inter-proteome correlation between the approximate protein abundances (**Figure S6A**). Additionally proteins were highlighted with biomarker applications (**Figure S6H**), specific tumour plasma signatures (**Figure S6J-P**), differentially abundance relative to approximate relative plasma concentrations (**Figure S6Q**), over- and under-abundance in both the tumour and plasma proteomes (**Figure S6R**) and with potential as biomarkers derived from functional tumour regulators (**Figure S6S-T**).

To explore differential protein abundance resulting from the extrinsic response to the tumour, the plasma proteome was subject to deconvolution, removing proteins with a clear cellular origin. The remaining proteins, termed the 'lysis-free' plasma proteome (**Table S2, Figure S6F**), provided a signature descriptive of an immune response. Terms including 'defence response' ($n=16$, $p=4.0 \times 10^{-5}$) and 'extrinsic apoptotic signalling pathway via death domain receptors' ($n=6$, $p=1.4 \times 10^{-4}$) were identified as enriched amongst these over-abundant 'lysis-free' plasma proteins (**Figure 8C**). To detail this lysis-free signature further, a network was generated from all over-abundant lysis-free plasma proteins (**Figure 8D**). Protein clusters included chemotaxis regulators Ccl2, Ccl9 and Ccl21a, wound and inflammation response proteins, fibrinogens α , β and γ and the hyaluronan-binding, inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor proteins, ITIH1-ITIH4.

Comparison between the terminal plasma signatures for each tumour model highlighted the dominance of this tumour lysis signature in E μ -myc tumours, while E μ -TCL1 terminal plasma contained a dominant signature of extracellular proteins (**Figure 8B**). In both cases these signatures were observed for the opposing tumour, but to a lesser extent. GO term enrichment for over-abundant plasma proteins specific to E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 terminal tumours illustrated model-specific

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signatures of tumour lysis and extracellular proteins, respectively. E μ -*myc* tumour plasma specific GO terms had a strong resemblance to that of the B-cell tumours, highlighting cellular processes similar to both the tumours and the common plasma signature (**Figure 4A and 8C**). Over-abundant plasma proteins specific to terminal E μ -*TCL1* tumours enriched for several GO terms related to immune processes, such as ‘immune response’ (n=17, p=1.5x10⁻⁴) and ‘lymphocyte activation’ (n=12, p=4.8x10⁻⁴).

Finally, consideration was given to proteins emerging in the pre-terminal ‘30%’ E μ -*TCL1* plasma (**Figure 8F**). Plasma proteins demonstrating a correlation between over-abundance and tumourigenesis were plotted, highlighting the extracellular immune-response proteins haptoglobin (Hp) and ITIH1, both also observed in the lysis free signature. Several additional proteins demonstrating over-abundance in pre-terminal ‘30%’ E μ -*TCL1* plasma are detailed in **Figure S6I**.

Discussion

B-cell tumours have been intensively investigated by genomics and transcriptomics in recent years, advancing clinical and biological understanding (46-49). Such information, is however sometimes limited, especially in a functional context, due to the weak correlations observed between mRNA and protein expression (50, 51). A comparison between our proteomics data and a former E μ -*myc* tumour mRNA expression dataset (**Figure S2J**) highlighted an example of this, demonstrating an anticipated but limited correlation (52). Furthermore, genomics and transcriptomics are limited in capturing organism-wide tumour biology from acellular samples such as plasma.

This study aimed to combine and implement recent advances in quantitative MS proteomics to comprehensively characterise the tumours and plasma of contrasting mouse B-cell cancer models; E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1*. By comparing tumours driven by contrasting oncogenes, with differing phenotypes and rates of progression, any apparent common signatures could suggest the most conserved and essential B-cell cancer mechanisms. Model-specific signatures could provide insight into the molecular basis of the discrete cancer phenotypes and oncogenes, potentially of relevance to BL and CLL. Simultaneous plasma characterisation offered potential insight into tumour-host dialogue, systemic cancer impacts and biology of biomarker emergence. Furthermore, greater

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understanding of these models offers an opportunity to appreciate their strengths and weaknesses in pre-clinical applications.

Overall, isobaric-labelled LC-MS proteomics of B-cell and plasma samples (**Figure 1**) provided biologically reproducible (**Figure 2A, B**), high-depth (**Figure S1H**) and representative (**Figure S1**) characterisations of the E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* tumour models. The accuracy of the quantitative results was validated by anticipated transgene expression (**Figure 2C**), Western blotting and flow cytometry (**Figures 2D, S2G,H**) alongside comparisons to previously published protein expressions (**Figure S2D,F**) and mRNA expression data (**Figure S2J**). Interestingly, a brief analysis revealed that those proteins over-expressed without corresponding mRNA over-expression were enriched with proteins annotated with the term ‘translation’.

A common B-cell tumour signature in divergent models

The expression correlation between the contrasting E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* tumours (**Figure 3**) was indicative of a common B-cell tumour signature which was proportional to aggression. Indeed, this signature strongly highlighted canonical tumour characteristics such as up-regulated cell proliferation and growth (**Figure 4**). Furthermore, frequent observations of these over-expressed proteins in several human cancers (**Figure S3C**) highlighted potential relevance to non-B-cell cancers. This was particularly noteworthy, given the many clinically relevant cell surface proteins and drug targets characterised (**Figure 3E, S3F,G**). HMMR/CD168, for instance, has previously been considered as an immunotherapy target in B-cell cancers (41, 53). Similarly, amino acid and zinc transporter over-expression could offer targets of metabolic inhibition or immunotherapy. The observation of proteins, and even putative proteins, in this common B-cell tumour signature with no prior links to cancer offers several new hypotheses (**Figure S3E**). DDX49 and MAK16, for instance, are poorly characterised proteins over-expressed in all 4 tumour pools, and could be inferred to have a role in ribosome biogenesis, given their homology, orthologous functions and the prevalence of ribosome biogenesis upregulation in both tumours.

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Down-regulation of immune functions were indicative of the loss of B-cell characteristics, not essential and potentially even inhibitory towards tumour development. Constitutive Ig synthesis, for instance, would provide a negative selective pressure on resource-limited tumour cells. MHC component under-expression suggested a clear mechanism of immune evasion, such as that described previously (54, 55).

Model specific signatures of E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* tumours

E μ -*myc*- and E μ -*TCL1*-specific DEPs (**Figures 5-6**) highlighted distinct expression patterns responsible for the contrast in tumour phenotypes; such as the vast protein dysregulation and proliferation produced by the aggressive and pleiotropic nature of *myc*. The contrast between these models was also apparent prior to tumourigenesis (**Figure S3B**), with little to no tumour signature in 6-week E μ -*TCL1* B-cells, whilst E μ -*myc* 6-week old B-cells were almost indistinguishable from terminal tumours. Although none of these 6-week E μ -*myc* mice presented with splenomegaly, metastases or ill health, it remains possible that tumour development was present at an early stage in one or more of the mice. E μ -*myc*-specific DNA and histone methylation dysregulation (**Figures 5B,C**) suggests dynamic epigenomic instability as a basis of *myc*-induced tumour characteristics, previously observed in B-cell lymphomas (56, 57). This potentially drives accelerated trait acquisition via non-mutational evolution (58).

Broad under-expression of actin cytoskeletal organising components was potentially indicative of defects to normal B-cell migration and adhesion (**Figure 5D**), identifying a possible mechanism promoting lymph node metastases; frequently observed for E μ -*myc* tumours. These proteins may also have been under-expressed as a result of redundant immune-related functions such as those described in **Figure 4D**. Of the three inter-connected actin cytoskeletal organising proteins validated with under-expression (**Figure 5E**), all three demonstrated both immune and cytoskeletal function. Cor1A promotes F-actin disassembly and cell motility (59) and mutations have been shown to impair lymphocyte function (60, 61). LCP1 regulates actin bundling and B-cell development (62, 63), while LCP1 knock out impaired B-cell migration (64). CAPG caps actin filaments with CAPG^{-/-} mice exhibiting immune defects (65). Given observations of the pro-metastatic nature of these

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proteins in non-lymphocyte tumours (66, 67), this indicated metastasis may be a more passive event for E μ -*myc* tumours. Over-expression of adhesion components such as integrin beta 1 may have facilitated this. Non-canonical cytoskeletal component AHNAK, a titin-related and cancer-associated cytoskeletal protein, shown to be essential for migration and invasion (68); was over-expressed in E μ -*myc* tumours, potentially highlighting an alternative metastatic pathway. Additionally other cytoskeletal components such as those directing chromosome segregation were over-expressed. Validation of two further under-expressed proteins extended the observation of cytoskeletal dysregulation, with moesin and myosin-9 annotated with roles in leukocyte migration. Together these observations suggest a trend for further investigation.

The E μ -*TCLI*-specific features, such as ER stress response and aberrant glycosylation upregulation (**Figure 6B-C**) have previously been observed (69). The proteomics may therefore offer some specific novel examples of contributing proteins. Furthermore, integrin- α 2 under-expression, transmembrane protein processing, post-translational modification, transport and membrane lipid composition offer several potential mechanisms by which circulatory, leukaemic cells formation may be promoted in E μ -*TCLI* tumours.

Minimal BCR pathway under-expression, relative to E μ -*myc* tumours, indicates a role for antigen-receptor signalling, observed previously (70), in E μ -*TCLI* tumours (**Figure S5J**). This highlights potential examples of negative regulation or redundant functions for tumour growth and survival eg. BCL6, FOXO1 and CD45. Upregulated phosphorylations, such as PI3Ks and FOXO1, specifically in E μ -*TCLI* tumours may also illustrate tumour mechanisms (**Figure 5F-J, Table S4**).

Interleukin 5 receptor over-expression and signalling in E μ -*TCLI* tumours

Signalling dysregulation (**Figure 6C**) and increased expression and phosphorylation of PI3Ks (**Figure S4J**) suggested the presence of strong receptor signalling underlying E μ -*TCLI* tumourigenesis. IL5R over-expression (**Figure 6A,C-E, S5**) strongly implied a role for the IL5:IL5R signalling pathway in E μ -*TCLI* tumours. While not previously described in E μ -*TCLI* mice, other

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mouse CLL-like B-cell tumours have demonstrated IL5 sensitivity (71-74), in addition to a CLL-like leukaemia arising in mice with constitutive over-expression of IL5 (75).

The dose-dependent proliferation of E μ -*TCL1* tumour cells upon IL5 treatment (**Figure 7A-C**) provided additional, functional validation of IL5R over-expression. IL5R signalling has been suggested to induce activation of Lyn, JAK2, Syk, BTK, NF- κ B and PI3K (76-78). Given the suggested role of AKT amplification by *TCL1*, PI3K signalling was a likely candidate for the effectuation of the IL5 response. Indeed, the PI3K catalytic subunit type 2 beta (PIK3C2B), alongside other PI3K isoforms, appeared as the most over-expressed of the IL5R downstream signalling molecules. Dose-dependent AKT phosphorylation upon IL5 treatment confirmed a role for the PI3K pathway, highlighting *TCL1* as a potential factor in the amplification of IL5R signalling (**Figure 7D-E**).

The observation of IL5RA expression by the expanded CD5⁺ peritoneal and splenic B-cell populations in young E μ -*TCL1* mice (**Figure S5J**) strongly suggests a precursor cell population with characteristics of B-1 B-cells. Given the induction of B-cell proliferation observed with IL5 (79, 80) and that IL5^{-/-} mice are deficient for CD5⁺ B-1 B-cells (81), IL5R signalling emerges as a probable component driving E μ -*TCL1* tumourigenesis from CD5⁺ IL5RA⁺ B-1 B-cells.

The role for IL5 in B-cells, and B-cell tumours, appears to not be conserved between species (80, 82) highlighting a limitation in the recapitulation of human CLL with previous reports suggesting IL5 induces spontaneous apoptosis in these cells (83). However, the similarities of IL5R signalling in E μ -*TCL1* tumours with IL4 signalling in CLL, suggest continued potential for E μ -*TCL1* mice in modelling many aspects of the human disease.

Plasma proteomics and systemic tumour signatures

The >250-fold, depletion of high-abundant proteins by SuPrE-SEC and the identification of a wide range of tumour and systemic proteins (**Table S2, Figure 8, S6**) suggested the low M_w sub-proteome provided an effective approach to plasma analysis. The capture of the degradome and

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peptidome, portions of plasma containing fragmented proteins and potential biomarkers, contributed to the success of this method (84-86).

The over-abundance of tumour-derived proteins in terminal plasma strongly suggested tumour lysis as a dominant mechanism (**Figures 8A-D, S6A,D-E**), a process described in aggressive therapies and lymphoma (87-89). Lysis product over-abundance correlated with tumour aggression and higher rates of cell death, most clearly in E μ -*myc* tumours. A correlation between total protein abundance in the B-cell proteome and over-abundance in the plasma was observed, regardless of tumour over-expression (**Figure S6G-I**). Several of these proteins were annotated biomarkers (**Figure S6H**) highlighting tumour-lysis products in late-stage, aggressive tumours, as the dominant biomarker signature. It is likely that exosomes and apoptotic blebs also contribute to this signature.

The systemic immune response signature observed for terminal E μ -*TCL1* plasma suggested that slower tumour development elicited a greater inflammatory response, perhaps due to gradual accumulation, chronic inflammation and a loss of immune regulation (**Figures 8E**). An anti-tumour immune signature emerged for both models, when deconvoluted to give the ‘tumour lysis-free’ plasma proteome, which suggested several potential systemic biomarkers (**Figure 8C,D**).

The contrasting signatures of tumour lysis and immune response in E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* terminal plasma respectively, was reflective of the vastly differing rates of tumour development. However, in both models the signatures were observed, to a lesser extent, in the opposing tumour.

Several systemic signatures were also observed upon integration of the B-cell tumour and plasma proteomes. Over-abundance of the carriers of the extracellular matrix component hyaluronan ITIH1-4 (**Figure 8E**), substantial tumour over-expression of CD168 (HMMR, hyaluronan-mediated motility receptor) (**Figure 3D**) and links between hyaluronan, inflammation and tumour growth (90) suggest hyaluronan as a component of the B-cell tumour microenvironment. Given their high concentrations in plasma (**Table S1, Figure S6Q**) (37), ITIH proteins hold potential as biomarkers of B-cell tumours and aberrant hyaluronan metabolism and transport. Fibronectin (FN1), recognised in the promotion of cancers (91), was observed as marginally over-abundant and inferred to be

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functional (**Figure S6S**). Given the over-expression of FN1-binding integrin $\beta 1$ on tumours, this may represent another microenvironment signature of pro-oncogenic interactions with B-cell tumours.

Functional biomarker analysis for over-abundant plasma proteins with inferred functionality in tumours highlighted S100A6, a previously proposed biomarker (92, 93), and EIF4G1 (**Figure S6T**) suggesting candidates for non-invasive testing directly related to tumour function.

Pre-terminal E μ -*TCL1* plasma additionally offered several interesting findings, describing a more clinically-relevant time point in tumourigenesis when a leukaemia is present, but is otherwise asymptomatic. The observation of overabundant pre-terminal '30%' E μ -*TCL1* plasma proteins common to the terminal signature (**Figure 8E, S6I,O,P,R**) suggested the characterisation of progressive, early biomarkers of B-cell tumours. Components of the tumour lysis-free signature describing a systemic immune response were more prevalent, such as Hp and ITIH1. Proteins correlating with tumour progression, traceable to tumour lysis were, however, also present to some extent, suggesting that both lysis and immune signatures offer a source of biomarkers at earlier stages of tumour development. The more detailed evaluation of the multiple stages of tumour progression, of these and other tumour models, could therefore offer considerable insight into the dynamics of biomarker emergence, better informing biomarker discovery and application.

Concluding remarks

In conclusion, this study has detailed the protein expression changes present across highly contrasting B-cell tumours, highlighting dominant features of proliferation and growth. E μ -*myc* tumours demonstrated a specific trend of epigenomic instability and cytoskeletal component under-expression, while E μ -*TCL1* tumours specifically exhibited ER stress, dysregulated signalling, and IL5-driven proliferation. Many specific targets of kinase inhibitors, nucleoside analogues and immunotherapy emerged for each tumour type. Plasma proteomics indicated lysis products as a major late-stage tumour biomarker signature, dominantly in the more aggressive E μ -*myc* tumours, while E μ -*TCL1* tumour plasma had a dominant signature of an anti-tumour immune response. Integration of plasma and B-cell proteomics data, alongside tumour lysis, highlighted IL5R, HMMR/CD168, ITIH

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proteins, FN1, S100A6 and EIF4G1 as candidates for further investigation. These findings reinforce that aggressive, targeted, chemotherapy and immunostimulatory antibodies promise effective means of treating Eμ-*myc* and Eμ-*TCL1* tumours, respectively with the results offer exciting possibilities when combined and integrated with additional ‘omics and functional data. Finally, these findings suggest that global, integrative evaluation of tumours can provide systemic insight into tumour biology not captured by the evaluation of cells or plasma in isolation.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization: HEJ, PAT, SDG, MSC. Methodology: HEJ. Validation: HEJ, MJC. Formal analysis: HEJ. Investigation: HEJ. Resources: HEJ, MD, KLC, AM, SDG. Writing – Original draft: HEJ, MSC. Writing – Review & Editing: HEJ, MSC, MJC, SDG, PAT. Visualisation: HEJ. Supervision: MSC, PAT, SDG. Funding Acquisition: MSC, PAT, HEJ.

Conflict of Interest Disclosure

MSC is a retained consultant for Bioinvent and has performed educational and advisory roles for Baxalta. He has received research funding from Roche, Gilead and GSK. PAT is cofounder of Karus Therapeutics, a NED for the Aptamer Group and has performed educational and advisory roles for Abcam, BioRelate, ReactaBiotech and Waters amongst others. He is also Adjunct Professor,

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Figure legends

Figure 1. E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 model proteomic characterisation workflow. B-cells and plasma were isolated from splenocytes and blood, respectively, derived from terminal and pre-terminal E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 mice and WT controls (**Figure S1C**). Pooling was used to accommodate all samples within single isobaric-labelled experiments for B-cell (iTRAQ 8-plex) and plasma (TMT 10-plex) proteomics. Pools of 2, 3 or 6 samples were used for tumours, tumours plasma and pre-tumour controls, respectively. For all tumour samples, biological replicate pools were analysed. Plasma pools, totalling 120 μ l per pool, were subjected to size exclusion chromatography (SEC) to isolate the low molecular weight sub-proteome (**Figure S1G**). B-cells were isolated by negative selection and were lysed, quantified and then 50 μ g of protein pooled from replicates of each condition. Plasma and B-cell proteins were subjected to reducing conditions, cysteine alkylation, trypsin proteolysis and isobaric labelling and pooling of the generated peptides. The labelled peptides for each proteome were resolved by two-dimensional liquid chromatography and quantitatively characterised by mass spectrometry (MS). The MS data were then subject to target-decoy analysis and reporter ion quantitation to generate two quantitative proteomes.

Figure 2. Analysis and validation of the quality of quantitative proteomics data. **A.** Hierarchical clustering of all 8270 and 2095 fully profiled protein \log_2 (ratios) relative to the 6 week WT control (in addition to the 200 day WT control for tumour samples) using Cluster 3.0 and Euclidian distance to represent the topological similarities and differences for each sample. A Venn diagram highlights proteins identified in both proteomes. **B.** Linear regression highlighting the reproducibility of the \log_2 (ratios) relative to WT 6 week samples of the biological replicates analysed for each tumourous condition. **C.** Relative quantitative proteomics-derived fold changes of transgene-derived protein expression and characteristic E μ -TCL1 phenotypes, relative to WT B-cells. **D.** A summary of 17 Western blot and flow cytometry validations of E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 tumour protein expressions relative to WT B-cell controls, plotted alongside the proteomics-derived expression changes (as \log_2 (ratios)). These values relate to the validations detailed in **Figure S2G,H**.

Figure 3. Differential protein expression in E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 B-cell tumours. **A.** Volcano plots highlighting reproducible, significant differential protein expression in each B-cell tumour on the basis of the regulation score (Rs) and FDR-corrected p-values (one sample t-test). The Rs was calculated from the mean and standard deviation (SD) of the 4 \log_2 (ratios) of tumour protein expression relative to both WT controls ($R_s = \text{mean}/(\text{SD}+1)$). The number of proteins considered significantly ($p < 0.05$) over-expressed ($R_s > 0.5$) or under-expressed ($R_s < -0.5$) is detailed. **B.** A linear regression between the protein expression observed in E μ -myc and E μ -TCL1 B-cell tumours, both relative to WT B-cells. **C.** Venn diagrams highlighting proteins considered over- and under-expressed

common to both $E\mu$ -*myc* and $E\mu$ -*TCL1* B-cell tumours. **D.** Heat maps of individual \log_2 (ratios to WT), for examples of proteins differentially expressed commonly in both tumours. The top 10 proteins falling into the following categories are presented; significantly over-expressed in both tumours with high confidence (>3 unique peptides and unique quantitations), cell surface expression, proteins annotated by ingenuity pathway analysis as drug targets, proteins for which no specific links to any type of cancer have previously been made, based on PubMed searching and proteins significantly under-expressed in both tumours.

Figure 4. Bioinformatic interrogation of commonly differentially expressed B-cell tumour proteins. **A.** Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis for proteins over- and under-expressed in both tumours, visualised using Revigo (94) and summarised based on parent GO terms and Revigo-defined semantic space. **B-D.** StringDB networks highlighting interactions and relationships for proteins **B.** over-expressed in both tumours annotated with the term ‘chromosome segregation’ (GO:0007059) (n=81), **C.** over-expressed in both tumours annotated as ‘ribosome biogenesis’ (GO:0042254) (n=106), and **D.** those proteins under-expressed in both tumours relating to terms descriptive of immune regulation. **E.** Upstream regulator activation z-scores inferred by IPA for all consistently differentially expressed B-cell tumour proteins, plotted against tumour protein expression, relative to WT B-cells. A positive z-score indicates a signature of protein activation.

Figure 5. $E\mu$ -*myc*-specific tumour characteristics. **A.** Heat maps of individual \log_2 (ratios to WT), for the top 10 proteins specifically over- and under-expressed in $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours ($R_s < 0.25 / > -0.25$ for $E\mu$ -*TCL1* tumours). Additionally the top 10 proteins with cell surface expression are shown. **B.** Upstream regulator activation z-scores (as Figure 4) for over- and under-expressed $E\mu$ -*myc* tumour proteins. **C.** GO term enrichment analysis for differential expression specific to $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours ($R_s_{E\mu\text{-myc}} > 0.5 / < -0.5$, $p < 0.05$, $R_s_{E\mu\text{-TCL1}} < 0.25 / > -0.25$) as described in Figure 4. **D-E.** StringDB networks derived from $E\mu$ -*myc*-specific differentially expressed proteins annotated with **D.** ‘methylation’ (GO:0032259) (n=50), and **E.** ‘actin cytoskeleton organisation’ (GO:0030036) (n=49). **F.** Western blot evaluation of the three ‘actin cytoskeleton organisation’-annotated proteins, coronin 1a (COR1A), lymphocyte cytosolic protein 1 (LCP1) and actin regulatory protein CAPG, expression in $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours, relative to non-tumour B-cells. Two additional cytoskeletal proteins, myosin-9 (MYH9) and moesin (MOE) are also evaluated alongside *myc*.

Figure 6. $E\mu$ -*TCL1*-specific tumour characteristics. **A.** Heat maps for proteins and surface proteins specific to $E\mu$ -*TCL1* tumours ($R_s < 0.25 / > -0.25$ for $E\mu$ -*myc* tumours). **B.** Upstream regulator activation z-scores (as Figure 4) for over- and under-expressed $E\mu$ -*TCL1* tumour proteins. **C.** GO term enrichment analysis for differential expression specific to $E\mu$ -*TCL1* tumours ($R_s_{E\mu\text{-TCL1}} > 0.5 / < -0.5$, $p < 0.05$, $R_s_{E\mu\text{-myc}} < 0.25 / > -0.25$). **D.** A StringDB network derived from $E\mu$ -*TCL1*-specific differentially

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expressed proteins demonstrating interaction scores of >0.7 highlighting processes in protein clusters. (ER; endoplasmic reticulum). **E.** Individual iTRAQ quantifications (as \log_2 (ratios to WT)) for the peptides uniquely matching to IL5RA and its receptor partner CSF2RB (IL5RB). **F.** Flow cytometry evaluation of IL5 receptor alpha subunit (IL5R α) expression on two E μ -*TCL1* tumours, compared to splenic B cells pooled and isolated from three 2 month old WT and E μ -*TCL1* mice.

Figure 7. IL5 drives E μ -*TCL1* tumour proliferation. **A.** Tumour cells from three spleens of terminal E μ -*TCL1* mice were cultured at an initial density of 5×10^6 cells/ml and treated with IL5. Cell density was measured after 48h. **B.** Cell division analysis measured by CFSE staining of terminal E μ -*TCL1* tumours treated *in vitro* with 0, 10 or 100 ng/ml IL5 for 48 hours. **C.** IL5-treated E μ -*TCL1* tumours (48h) were stained with hypotonic propidium iodide and DNA content measured with flow cytometry to determine the proportion of cells entering mitosis. **D.** Serum starved (4h) E μ -*TCL1* tumour cells were evaluated for IL5 treatment dose response after 30 minutes by Western blotting for the phosphorylation of AKT, GSK3, ERK, SRC, S6 and S6K. **E.** Serum starved (4h) E μ -*TCL1* tumour cells were treated with IL5 in the presence of either TGX-221 (a specific PI3K β inhibitor) or DMSO, and the phosphorylation of AKT measured by Western blotting. **F.** E μ -*TCL1* tumour cells were incubated for 48h with or without IL5 in the presence of either TGX-221 (5 μ M) or DMSO and the percentage of non-viable cells measured by Annexin V/PI. **G.** Summary of potential signal transduction pathway components, overlaid with E μ -*TCL1* tumour proteomics quantifications, highlighting PIK3C2B as a mechanism of IL5-induced AKT phosphorylation, amplified by *TCL1* and inhibited by the PI3K β -specific inhibitor TGX-221.

Figure 8. Model-dominant plasma signatures of E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* tumours. **A.** Inter-proteome comparison detailing the canonical cellular localisations, annotated by Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA), of proteins commonly or discretely quantified in plasma or B-cells. **B.** The relative plasma protein abundances to WT plasma for terminal E μ -*myc* and E μ -*TCL1* tumours, highlighting those proteins annotated as intracellular (cytosolic/nuclear proteins) and extracellular. **C.** GO term enrichment for plasma proteins over-abundant in both tumours, considering all plasma proteins and additionally analysing only those extracellular proteins not traceable to the B-cell tumour proteome, termed the 'tumour lysis-free' plasma. **D.** StringDB networks highlighting interactions and relationships for proteins over-abundant in the 'tumour lysis-free' plasma for both tumours. **E.** GO term enrichment for plasma proteins over-abundant specific to each tumour ($R_s > 0.5$ and $p < 0.05$, $R_{s \text{ other tumour}} < 0.5$). **F.** Proteins demonstrating progressive increases in abundance correlating with tumourigenesis in E μ -*TCL1* mice.

Supplementary data

Supplementary methods

Figure S1. Proteomic sample characteristics. Details of the mice from which B-cell and plasma samples were derived. Plasma SuPRE-SEC traces. (Relating to **Figure 1**)

Figure S2. Western blot, flow cytometry and literature-derived validation and the characterisation of myc and TCL1 transgene products. (Relating to **Figure 2**)

Figure S3. Detailed results describing tumour protein differential expression (Relating to **Figure 3**)

Figure S4. Bioinformatics analyses detailing enriched pathways, upstream regulators, phosphopeptides and B-cell receptor signalling (Relating to **Figures 4-6**)

Figure S5. IL5R α expression and IL5 signalling in E μ -TCL1 mice (Relating to **Figure 7**)

Figure S6. Plasma proteome analysis details and results (Relating to **Figure 8**)

Table S1. Full quantitative B-cell and plasma proteomes

Table S2. Comparative and 'lysis-free' proteomes

Table S3. Bioinformatics analyses; gene ontology enrichment analysis and upstream regulator analysis of both and individual tumours

Table S4. Phosphorylated peptides; demonstrating relative expression relative to WT phosphopeptide expression and parent protein expression in tumours