UHRF1 drives the poor prognosis associated with RB loss in osteosarcoma

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ABSTRACT

Loss of function mutations at the retinoblastoma (*RB1*) gene are associated with increased mortality, metastasis and poor therapeutic outcome in several cancers, including osteosarcoma. However, the mechanism(s) through which *RB1* loss worsens clinical outcome remain to be elucidated. Ubiquitin-like with PHD and Ring Finger domains 1 (UHRF1) has been identified as a critical downstream effector of the RB/E2F signaling pathway that is overexpressed in various cancers. Here, we show that UHRF1 upregulation is critical in rendering osteosarcoma cells more aggressive. We confirmed that UHRF1 is transcriptionally regulated by the RB/E2F pathway and overexpressed in osteosarcoma. Using novel genetically engineered mouse models, we determined that *Uhrf1* loss dramatically reverses the effects of *Rb1* loss. Based on gain- and loss-of-function assays, we report that UHRF1 promotes cell proliferation, migration, invasion, and metastasis. Furthermore, transcriptome analyses revealed the involvement of urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) in UHRF1-mediated cell mobility. Our work presents a new mechanistic insight into *RB1* loss-associated poor prognosis, revealing UHRF1 as a critical driver of tumor promotion, progression, and metastasis in osteosarcoma. This study provides substantial support for targeting UHRF1 or its downstream effectors as novel therapeutic options to improve current treatment for osteosarcoma and other cancers with RB/E2F pathway inactivation.

 INTRODUCTION

Sarcomas are defined as malignancies that arise in tissues derived from the embryonic mesoderm such

as bone, cartilage, fat, muscle and the vascular system [1]. Among various kinds of sarcomas,

osteosarcoma (OS) is the most common primary cancer of bone and typically occurs in children and

young adults. As a highly metastatic cancer, 15-20% of osteosarcoma patients are diagnosed after the

cancer has already metastasized (typically to the lungs), which translates to 5-year survival rates of <40%

[2]. In comparison, patients without metastases have survival rates of 65-75%. Unfortunately,

pulmonary metastases occur in nearly half of all osteosarcoma patients [3]. OS survival rates have

plateaued since the introduction of adjuvant and neoadjuvant multiagent chemotherapy in the early

1980s [4]. The current treatment paradigm includes generic chemotherapeutic agents such as

methotrexate, cisplatin, and doxorubicin. Thus, there is a pressing clinical need to determine the factors

responsible for metastasis in osteosarcoma to facilitate development of new therapeutic strategies.

The most common genetic mutations found in OS are in tumor suppressors *TP53* and *RB1* [5, 6]. Loss-of-

function mutations of the *RB1* gene in OS are associated with poor therapeutic outcome as defined by

increased mortality, metastasis, and poor response to chemotherapy [7-11]. However, the mechanism(s)

through which RB loss leads to poor prognosis remains to be elucidated. RB has been implicated in

regulating most major epigenetic processes, including DNA methylation, histone modifications, and

microRNA regulation [12-16]. A previous study in retinoblastoma identified Ubiquitin-like, containing

PHD and RING finger domains 1 (UHRF1) as a key target gene downstream of the RB/E2F signaling

pathway that is abnormally upregulated following the loss of RB, and contributes to tumorigenesis [17].

UHRF1 is a multi-domain protein that exerts various functions that include, but are not limited to,

reading and writing of epigenetic codes, thus having the potential to significantly impact epigenome

upon deregulation. UHRF1 is most known for its role in maintaining DNA methylation throughout

replication by recruiting DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) to hemi-methylated DNA at the replication

fork. In recent years, many reports have emerged having observed the overexpression of UHRF1 in

different types of human cancers including lung, breast, bladder, colorectal cancer, and retinoblastoma

[17-21]. Thus, we hypothesized that loss of RB in OS contributes to tumor progression and increased

malignancy through deregulation of its downstream target UHRF1.

In this study, we identified UHRF1 as a key player in OS tumorigenesis, promoting proliferation,

migration, and metastasis. One of the most promising results was the induction of invasiveness by

UHRF1 overexpression mediated by the urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA). Inhibition of uPA

with a small-molecule inhibitor caused a robust decrease in OS migration and invasion. Loss of *Uhrf1* in

developmental OS mouse models drastically delayed tumor onset, decreased pulmonary metastasis, and

increased the life span of mice carrying *Rb1* mutations. These findings highlight the critical role of *Uhrf1*

as a driver of the poor prognosis associated with RB loss and presents UHRF1 and its downstream

targets as a novel therapeutic targets for OS.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Xenografts, mouse models and cell lines

The five orthotopic xenografts used in this study: SJOS001105 (PDX1), SJOS001112 (PDX2), SJOS001107

(PDX3), SJSO010930 (PDX4), and SJOS001121 (PDX5) were obtained from the Childhood Solid Tumor

Network [22]. Athymic nude (NU/J) mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratories. The *p53*^{lox} and

Rb1^{lox} conditional-knockout mice were obtained from the Mouse Models of Human Cancer Consortium

at the National Cancer Institute; the *Osx-cre* mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory. The

Uhrf1-conditional knockout mouse was generated from mice obtained from the European Mouse

Mutant Archive, backcrossed to flipasse (Flp) mice for removal of the neo-cassette (tm1c conversion),

and then backcrossed to C57BL/6N mice for Flp removal. Mice were monitored weekly for signs of OS.

Moribund status was defined as the point when tumors had reached 10% body weight or induced

paralysis in the mouse. The University of California Irvine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

approved all animal procedures.

OS cell lines 143B, SJSA-1, SaOS-2 and U-2 OS, as well as MSCs and HEK293T cells were acquired from

ATCC. 143B were cultured in MEM (Gibco), with 10% BCS, penicillin/streptomycin, and 0.015mg/ml BrdU.

SJSA-1 were cultured in RPMI (Gibco), with 10% BCS and penicillin/streptomycin. SaOS-2 were cultured

in McCoy's 5A (Gibco), with 10% BCS and penicillin/streptomycin. U-2 OS were cultured in McCoy's 5A

(Gibco), with 15% BCS and penicillin/streptomycin. MSCs were cultured in Alpha-MEM (Gibco), with 10%

FBS and penicillin/streptomycin, HEK293T cells were culture in high-glucose DMEM (Gibco), with 10%

BCS, penicillin/streptomycin and sodium pyruvate. Cells were passaged every 3 to 4 days or when they

reached 70-80% confluence. At the time of passage, cells were split to 20% confluence.

FDG-PET/microCT scan

Mice were fasted overnight. Mice were injected with 0.1-0.5 mCi of ^{18}F-FDG in sterile saline (~ 0.05 to

0.2 ml) intraperitoneally (i.p.) and allow to uptake the ^{18}F-FDG for 60 min prior to imaging. Animals were

anesthetized and laid in supine position on the scanner holder with continued anesthesia. Scanning data

was acquired in full list mode and sorted into a single frame, 3 dimensional sinogram, which was

rebinned using a Fourier rebinning algorithm. The images were reconstructed using 2-dimensional filter

back projection using a Hanning Filter with a Nyquist cut off at 0.5 and corrected for attenuation using

the Co-57 attenuation scan data. Analysis of PET was conducted using PMOD 3.0 and IRW software. The

PET data was co-registered to the CT template for drawing regions-of-interest (ROI). The ROI data was

converted to standard uptake value (SUV) of ^{18}F-FDG.

Western blotting

Cell pellets or tumor tissues were homogenized by pipetting or pellet pestle in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-

HCl, pH=8, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.5 % Sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 1 mM EDTA) supplemented

with protease inhibitor (cOmplete™, Mini, EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail, Roche). Samples were

allowed to lyse for 30 min on ice before centrifugation at 14000 RPM at 4° for 30 min. Protein

concentration was measured using BCA protein assay (Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit). 40μg of total

protein were resolved in 4-15% SDS-PAGE gel (Mini-PROTEAN TGX Gels (4-15%), Bio-rad), and

transferred onto PVDF membrane (Immobilon-P Membrane, PVDF, EMD Millipore) using semi-dry

transfer apparatus (Bio-rad). Ponceau S stain was used to validate successful transfer. Non-specific

binding was prevented by incubating the membrane in 3% non-fat dry milk in TBS-0.25% Tween (TBS-T)

for 1 hour at room temperature, shaking. Primary antibodies were diluted in 0.5% non-fat dry milk in

TBS-T as follows: 1:1000 anti-Uhrf1 (sc-373750, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), 1:1000 anti-Rb (9313T, Cell

Signaling). Membranes were incubated in primary antibody overnight, shaking, at 4°C. Membranes were

then rinsed 3 times with TBS-T on shaker and incubated with secondary antibody for 40min at room

temperature, shaking. Secondary antibodies were diluted in 0.5% non-fat dry milk in TBS-T as follows:

1:1000 peroxidase labeled anti-mouse IgG (PI-2000, Vector Laboratories), 1:1000 peroxidase labeled

anti-rabbit IgG (PI-1000, Vector Laboratories). Membranes were again rinsed 3 times with TBS-T on

shaker. Chemiluminescence were detected using SuperSignal™ West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate

(34077, Thermo Scientific). Relative band intensities were analyzed using ImageJ software.

In situ **hybridization**

Osteosarcoma tissue microarrays, containing 40 cases of osteosarcoma, duplicate cores per case, were

purchased from US Biomax, Inc (OS804c). 6 stage IA (T1N0M0), 16 stage IB (T2N0M0), 1 stage IIA

(T1N0M0), 16 stage IIB (T2N0M0) and 1 stage IVB (T2N1M0) tumors are represented in the array. Stage I

tumors are low grade and stage II and IV are high grade. The extent of the primary tumor (T) is classified

as intercompartmental (T1) or extracompartmental (T2). Tumors that have metastasized to nearby

lymph nodes are denoted by N1, but no distant organ metastases (M0) are represented in the array.

Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) slides were incubated at 60°C for 1hr for deparaffinization,

followed by two washes of xylene and two washes of 100% ethanol for dehydration, 5min each at RT,

before air-drying. RNAscope® technology was utilized for *in situ* hybridization. Assay was performed

following manufacturer's protocol. Human and mouse UHRF1-specific probes were customized by Bio-

Techne. RNAscope® Positive Control Probe- Hs-PPIB/Mm-PP1B and RNAscope® Negative Control Probe-

DapB were used. OpalTM 570 fluorophore was used at a 1:1000 dilution. Slides were mounted with

ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP assay)

ChIP assays were performed as previously described [23]. ChIP DNA was analyzed by qPCR with SYBR

Green (Bio-Rad) in ABI-7500 (Applied Biosystems) using the following primers. For motif 1 (M1), Forward:

5'-CCACATTCCCTCGCAGTATTTA-3'; Reverse 5'-CCCTGAACTCTTAAGTCCAAGTC-3'; for motifs 2 and 3 (M2,

M3), Forward: 5'-CACCCTCTTTCTCGCTTCC-3'; Reverse 5'-TGCCAGCTGCTCTGATTT-3'. The anti-E2F1

(3742; Cell Signaling) and rabbit IgG (sc-2027, Santa Cruz Biotechnologies) antibodies were used.

Real-time RT-PCR (qPCR)

Total RNA was isolated from cells or tumor tissues by homogenizing samples with TRIzol Reagent. RNA

was isolated through chloroform extraction. 1 μg of total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis with the

SuperScript™III First-strand synthesis system (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer's protocol at a

reaction volume of 20 μl. Quantitative PCR amplification was performed using 1 μl of reverse-

transcribed product in Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (4367659, Life Technologies). Primers were

designed using IDT Real-Time PCR tool (Integrated DNA Technologies). Reaction was carried out using

7500 Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosciences). Data were normalized to those obtained with

endogenous control 18S mRNA and analyzed using ΔΔCt method. Primer sequence for PCR amplification

are as follows: UHRF1 (sense: 5'-GCTGTTGATGTTTCTGGTGTC-3'; antisense: 5'-

TGCTGTCAGGAAGATGCTTG-3'), PLAU (sense: 5'-GAGCAGAGACACTAACGACTTC-3'; antisense: 5'-

CTCACACTTACACTCACAGCC-3'), SEMA3E (sense: 5'- CTGGCTCGAGACCCTTACTG-3' ; antisense: 5'-

CAAAGCATCCCCAACAAACT-3'), HAS2 (sense: 5'-TCCATGTTTTGACGTTTGCAG-3'; antisense: 5'-

AGCAGTGATATGTCTCCTTTGG-3'), LAMC2 (sense: 5'-CACCATACTCCTTGCTTCCTG-3'; antisense: 5'-

GTGCAGTTTGTCTTTCCATCC-3'), 18S (sense: 5'-GTAACCCGTTGAACCCCATT-3'; antisense: 5'-

CCATCCAATCGGTAGTAGCG-3').

Lentivirus production and transduction

Lentiviral particles were produced by co-transfecting the envelope plasmid pCMV-VSV-G (Addgene),

packaging plasmid pCMV-dR8.2 dvpr (Addgene), and lentiCRISPRv2 (Addgene) or plentiCRISPRv2 with

UHRF gRNA (gRNA sequence: TCAATGAGTACGTCGATGCT; GenScript) into HEK293T cells using calcium

phosphate transfection method. Supernatants containing lentiviral particles were harvested at 24 hours

and 48 hours post-transfection. Cell debris were cleared by centrifugation at 1600 × g for 10 min at 4°C.

Supernatants were then filtered through 0.45 μm PES filter (25-223, Genesee Scientific), and

concentrated by ultracentrifugation at 23000 RPM for 2 hours at 4°C. Lentiviral particles were

resuspended in ice-cold PBS and stored at -80°C. Transduction of target cells were achieved by exposing

cells to viral particles in serum –free condition for 6 hours. Puromycin selection was carried out at a

concentration of 2 µg/ml.

Clonogenic assay

4% agarose stock was prepared by mixing agarose with water and kept warm in 55°C heat bath.

Appropriate cell culture medium was used for subsequent dilution of the agarose stock. 6-well plates

were coated with 1ml of 0.75% agarose prior to seeding. Single cell suspension was mixed with agarose

to achieve a final agarose concentration of 0.36%, the mixture was then layered on top of the 0.75%

agarose coating (Seeding density 200 cells/cm^2). Cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 until cells in

control wells have formed sufficiently large colonies (>50 cells). Colonies were fixed with 10% methanol

for 15 min and stained with 5% Giemsa for 30 min for visualization.

Immunocytochemistry

Cell were seeded onto glass coverslips in a 24-well plate at a density of 25000 cells/well and allowed to

attach overnight. For EdU staining the Click-iT EdU cell proliferation kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was

used following manufacturer's instructions with 1 h pulse using a final 10 µM EdU solution in media. For

UHRF1 immunostaining, media was aspirated, and cells were fixed using 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde

overnight at 4°C. Slides washed with PBS twice and then incubated with primary antibody overnight at

4°C. Mouse anti-UHRF1 antibody (PA5-29884, Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used at 1:500 dilution.

Slides washed 3 times in PBS then incubated with an anti-rabbit secondary antibody (BA-1000, Vector

Laboratories) in 1:500 dilution with corresponding blocking buffer for 30 minutes at room temperature

in the dark. Slides were washed 3 times with PBS and incubated in 300 µl of Vectastain ABC kit (Vector

Laboratories) for 30 minutes at room temperature. Slides were washed 3 times in PBS and incubated

with tyramide Cy3 1:150 in amplification buffer (Perkin Elmer) for 10 minutes. After washing with PBS

for 3 times, DAPI was added (1:1000 dilution in PBS) for 5 minutes to stain the nuclei. Slides were

washed twice with PBS and mounted using gelvatol containing DABCO. Imaging was completed using

Life Technologies EVOS microscope. Cell scoring was performed by a blinded investigator.

Subcutaneous injection

Human OS cell lines were dissociated in 0.25% trypsin-EDTA, washed with PBS prior to counting. $2 \cdot 10^6$

cells were resuspended in 100 µl of PBS and injected subcutaneously into the flank region of mice.

Tumors were collected 3 weeks post injection. For cells that require doxycycline induction for the

expression CRISPR/Cas9, 2 mg/ml doxycycline hyclate supplemented water was administered *ad libitum*.

10 mg/ml of sucrose was added to doxycycline supplemented water to increase consumption.

RNA Sequencing

Total RNA was isolated using the RNA Micro Kit (Qiagen). Subsequently, 500 ng of total RNA was used to

create the RNA-seq library following the manufacturer's protocol from purification, mRNA

fragmentation through the adenylation of end-repaired cDNA fragments and cleanup (TruSeq Stranded

mRNA, Illumina). The collected sample was cleaned with AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) and

eluted in 20 µl of 10 mM Tris buffer, pH 8, 0.1% Tween 20. A paired-end 100-bp sequencing run was

performed on HiSeq 4000 yielding 348M PE reads with a final library concentration of 2 nM as

determined by qPCR (KAPA Biosystem).

Sequencing reads were aligned to the mouse or human reference genome (GRCm38 or GRCh38,

ENSEMBL v.92) using STAR (v2.5.2a) [24]. Each read pair was allowed a maximum number of

mismatches of 10. Each read was allowed a maximum number of multiple alignments of 3. Gene counts

for each sample were produced using HTSeq (v0.6.1p1) [25]. Read count normalization and differential

expression analysis were performed using DESeq2 (v1.22.2) in R (v3.5.2) [26]. Genes with low reads (sum

across samples < 10) were removed. Differentially expressed genes (DEG) were calculated by comparing

UHRF1 knockouts to matching controls, genes with base mean ≥ 10, Log2FoldChange ≥ 1 or ≤ -1, and

adjusted p value (Benjamini-Hockberg) ≤ 0.05 were called differentially expressed genes. 3D PCA plot

was generated using the R package plot3D (v1.1.1).

All sequencing data discussed in this publication have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression

Omnibus [27] and are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE144418

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE144418).

Scratch-wound assay

Cells were seeded the day before the scratch at a density of $1.1\times10^5/cm^2$ and grown to 100% confluency

in 6-well cell culture plates. Two hours before the scratch, cells were treated with 5 µg/ml of mitomycin

C (S8146, Sigma). At time 0, a 1000 µl tip was used to create a wound across the cell monolayer. The

cells were then placed back to the incubator for 8 hours at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Images of the wound at

the exact same field were taken at 0 and 8 h and analyzed using the ZEISS ZEN microscope software. A

total of 10 measurements in pixels were made per image. The pixels migrated was calculated as the

difference between the average width of the scratches before and after the incubation period. p-values

were calculated using two-tailed t-test. Amiloride was used at 150 µM, BC 11 hydrobromide at 16.5 µM,

both were supplemented in growth medium and given to the cells at the 0 h time point.

Transwell invasion assay

PET track-etched membrane with 8µm pore (353097, Corning) were inserted into 24-well cell culture

plate. Membranes were coated with Matrigel at a density of 25 µg/insert. 2×10^4 cells were seeded onto

the membrane in 100 µl of appropriate cell culture medium and placed into the incubator for 2 hours at

37°C with 5% CO_2 to allow cell attachment. After the cells have attached to the membrane, 100 µl of

medium were added to the inner chamber, amiloride and BC11 hydrobromide were supplemented at

this time at 300 µM and 32.8 µM, respectively, to reach a final concentration of 150 µM and 16.4 µM. If

doxycycline is required, 2 µg/ml doxycycline was prepared in 100 µl medium in order to reach a final

concentration of 1 µg/ml. 600 µl of appropriate cell culture medium supplemented with 100 ng/ml

fibroblast growth factor (FGF) were pipetted into the outer chamber. Cells were then placed back into

the incubator for no more than 16 hours at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Cell culture medium was aspirated, and

cotton swabs were used to scrape off non-migratory cells on the top side of the insert. The remaining

cells at the bottom side of the insert were then fixed and stained with a solution consists of 6%

glutaraldehyde and 0.5% crystal violet for 2 hours. Stains were washed out with tap water and the

inserts left to dry at room temperature. Images of 5 different fields within each insert were taken for

analysis by cell count.

Tail vein injection

Human OS cells lines were dissociated in 0.25% trypsin-EDTA, washed with PBS prior to counting. For the

experimental metastasis model, 2×10^6 cells were resuspended in 200 µl of PBS and injected

intravenously through the tail vein. Mice lungs were collected 3 weeks after injection, fixed in 4%

formaldehyde for histological analysis.

RESULTS

UHRF1 is overexpressed in mouse OS

The developmental mouse model of OS using Osterix-driven Cre-recombinase (Osx-cre) to facilitate

preosteoblast-specific loss of *Tp53* results in tumor formation with complete penetrance and gene

expression profiles, histology, and metastatic potential comparable to that of human OS [28, 29]. Loss of

Rb1 in addition to *Tp53* potentiates OS in these mice, strongly mimicking the behavior of the disease in

human. OS mice develop tumors with calcified interior and highly proliferative exterior, which can be

captured by microCT and FDG-PET scans, respectively (Figure 1A). Our previous work identified *UHRF1*

as a target that is overexpressed upon *RB1* inactivation and plays a significant role in the epigenetic

changes that drive tumor progression in retinoblastoma [17]. We found that UHRF1 is significantly

overexpressed in tumors arising from genetically engineered mouse models of OS. *In situ* hybridization

confirmed high levels of *UHRF1* mRNA in *Tp53* single conditional-knockout (cKO; *Osx-cre Tp53*$^{lox/lox}$) and

Tp53/Rb1 double conditional-knockout (DKO; *Osx-cre Tp53*$^{lox/lox}$ *Rb1*$^{lox/lox}$) OS tumors (Figure 1B). These

high *UHRF1* transcript levels resulted in overexpressed protein levels in both *Tp53* cKO and *Tp53/Rb1*

DKO OS tumors compared to mouse mesenchymal stem cells (mMSC; Figure 1C).

UHRF1 is a critical driver of the increased malignancy observed in *Rb1*-null OS

In order to study the role of UHRF1 in OS development *in vivo*, we first assessed whether loss of *Uhrf1* in

osteogenic progenitors affected normal bone development. Since *Uhrf1* knockout mice result in mid-

gestational lethality [30], we generated mice with preosteoblast-specific knockout of *Uhrf1* (*Osx-cre*

Uhrf1$^{lox/lox}$). Bone density analyses of the femur, tibia, and humerus exhibited no difference in Hounsfield

units (n=4) upon preosteoblastic loss of *Uhrf1* (Figures 1D-E). Thus, *Uhrf1* loss does not appear to affect

normal bone development, independent of gender (Figure 1E).

We subsequently generated a series of genetically engineered mice to facilitate *Uhrf1* knockout in two

different strains of OS genetic background mice, *Tp53* cKO and *Tp53/Rb1* DKO, resulting in *Tp53/Uhrf1*

DKO (*Osx-cre Tp53*^lox/lox *Uhrf1*^lox/lox) and *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* triple knockout (TKO; *Osx-cre Tp53*^lox/lox *Rb1*^lox/lox

Uhrf1^lox/lox). *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO and *Tp53/Rb1*/Uhrf1 TKO mice were compared to their corresponding

littermate controls (*Tp53* cKO and *Tp53/Rb1* DKO, respectively) for the assessment of the role of UHRF1

in promoting OS development and metastasis. All genotypes analyzed led to the development of OS in

mice, but with distinct survival rates and disease presentation. *In situ* hybridization performed on the OS

mouse tumors confirmed a significant reduction of *Uhrf1* in *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO and *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO

(Figure 1F). In line with previous reports, the loss of *Rb1* in *Tp53/Rb1* DKO mice resulted in a significantly

shorter median survival of 28.1 weeks (n=53) compared to 48.4 weeks in *Tp53* cKO mice (n=39,

p<0.0001; Figure 1G). Strikingly, genetic ablation of *Uhrf1* in *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO mice resulted in a

substantial increase in survival compared to *Tp53/Rb1* DKO mice, with a median survival of 46.9 weeks

(n=37; p<0.0001). The survival of *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO (46.9 weeks) at early time points was comparable

to that of *Tp53* cKO (48.4 weeks, p=0.0577, Gehan-Breslow-Wilcoxon test), suggesting that elevated

UHRF1 protein levels are critical for the poor prognosis associated with *Rb1* loss (Figure 1G). However, at

the late time points, the *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO and *Tp53* cKO survival curves become distinct from each

other (p=0.0126, Mantel-Cox test), suggesting that early UHRF1 overexpression is not the unique factor

contributing to *Rb1* loss-associated outcomes. Since three *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO mice had not acquired

tumors well beyond the average of the rest of their study group (> 69 weeks; Figure 1G), we performed

FDG-PET/microCT scans on them followed by autopsy. FDG-PET/microCT scans revealed no detectable

tumors (Supplemental Figure 1), which was further confirmed through autopsy. Most remarkable,

genetic ablation of *Uhrf1* also resulted in a significant reduction in pulmonary metastatic potential, with

only 10% occurrence rate of lung metastases in *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO compared to 40% observed in

Tp53/Rb1 DKO mice. In addition to the reduced rate in metastatic incidence, a lighter burden of

metastatic nodules was also observed in *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO mice (data not shown).

Since increased *Uhrf1* mRNA and protein levels are also detected in *Tp53* cKO mouse tumors (Figures

1B-C), we also examined the effect of *Uhrf1* loss in the survival of *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO compared to *Tp53*

cKO mice. We observed a significant increase in the median survival of *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO mice (71.4

weeks; n=39), compared to *Tp53* cKO (n=39; p=0.0007, Gehan-Breslow-Wilcoxon test), but not in overall

survival (p=0.1189, Mantel-Cox test; Figure 1H). Interestingly, we found that all *Tp53* cKO mice analyzed

with earlier morbidity (< 60 weeks) presented tumors with increased *Uhrf1* mRNA levels, suggesting

spontaneous *RB1* inactivation, while only a third of tumors analyzed from mice that reached moribund

status later in life (>60 weeks) displayed *Uhrf1* overexpression (data not shown). Furthermore,

pathology analysis of histological sections for tumors from the four OS mouse models analyzed linked

Uhrf1 loss with lower mitotic index and decreased anaplasia (Supplemental Figure 2 and Supplemental

Table 1).

Following the observation of the three *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO mice without detectable tumors, we sought

to determine if loss of *Uhrf1* contributed to delayed tumor promotion or decreased tumor progression.

To address this question, we performed periodic FDG-PET/microCT scans on *Tp53/Rb1* DKO and

Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1 TKO mice to determine the earliest age at which tumors could be detected (Figure 1I).

In *Tp53/Rb1* DKO mice, tumors were detected in average at 30.8 ± 2.9 weeks (n=4) while in

Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1 TKO mice, tumors were detected significantly later at 41.1 ± 6.6 weeks (n=4; p=0.0362;

Figure 1J). All test subjects reached humane end of study within 3 weeks of first tumor detection. These

data suggest that *Uhrf1* plays a pivotal role in OS tumor promotion following loss of *Rb1*.

UHRF1 is overexpressed in human OS

Following the observation of the critical role of UHRF1 overexpression contributing to the more

aggressive phenotype in OS mouse tumors, we next examined whether targeting UHRF1 would be

beneficial in human OS. Upon examination of The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) database, we found that

UHRF1 is significantly overexpressed in malignancies with frequently RB-pathway inactivation

presentation including sarcomas, breast invasive carcinomas, and lung adenocarcinomas; while tumors

where RB loss is infrequent in primary disease, such as prostate adenocarcinomas [31], show no

significant difference in *UHRF1* compared to control normal tissue (Figure 2A). *In situ* hybridization of a

human OS tissue array identified the presence of *UHRF1* mRNA in the 25 primary OS tumors examined

(Figure 2B). A larger proportion of samples expressing high *UHRF1* mRNA levels were classified as stage

II than stage I OS (Figure 2C), suggesting that UHRF1 expression increases in more aggressive tumors.

However, the limited number of stage III and stage IV samples available restricted our analysis of

metastatic cases. Given the interesting possibility of a role of UHRF1 in OS metastasis shown by our

mouse models, we analyzed *UHRF1* expression using a published RNA-Seq dataset of pretreatment

biopsies from 53 high-grade OS patients who did or did not develop metastasis within 5 years, compared

to normal mesenchymal stem cells (MSC), and osteoblasts [32]. The *UHRF1*expression levels found in

MSCs (log2 median = 9.055) were not significantly different than osteoblasts (log2 median = 8.510;

p=0.1495) nor tumors from patients that did not develop metastasis within 5 years from the time of

biopsy (log 2 median = 9.055; p=0.1123). However, tumors from patients who developed metastasis

within 5 years from the time of biopsy expressed significantly higher levels of *UHRF1* (log2 mean = 9.880;

p = 0.0015; Figure 2D).

The clinical data led us to examine UHRF1 mRNA and protein levels in 4 different human OS cell lines:

143B, SJSA-1, SaOS-2 (RB-null cell line), and U-2 OS, along with 5 patient-derived orthotopic xenografts

(PDX1-5). qPCR analysis of human OS cell lines and PDX showed a significant upregulation of *UHRF1*

mRNA levels in all samples except PDX2 when compared to human mesenchymal stem cells (MSC),

independent of whether they express RB protein or not (Figure 2E-F and Supplemental Figure 3A). At the

protein level, UHRF1 was highly overexpressed across all analyzed OS subjects compared to MSC

controls (Figure 2G-H).

UHRF1 is a direct target of the RB/E2F signaling pathway in the osteogenic lineage

A few studies have reported UHRF1 as a direct E2F1 transcriptional target [33, 34]. Following our

observations that UHRF1 is overexpressed in all OS samples analyzed, we aimed to confirm whether

UHRF1 is a direct E2F1 target in the osteogenic lineage. We performed chromatin immunoprecipitation

(ChIP) analysis in MSC and found E2F1 enrichment at E2F1 consensus binding motifs located within the

UHRF1 promoter (Supplemental Figure 3B). To confirm E2F1 drives *UHRF1* transcription in OS cells, we

knockdown of E2F1 using shRNA, which resulted in a modest decrease in UHRF1 protein levels in OS cell

lines (data not shown). Knockdown of E2F1 in combination with E2F3, but not in combination with E2F2,

significantly decreased UHRF1 protein levels (Supplemental Figure 3C and data not shown). We verified

that UHRF1 expression is transcriptionally regulated by the canonical RB/E2F pathway, by treating

human OS cell lines with the CDK4/6 inhibitor, palbociclib, to inhibit RB hyperphosphorylation and

thereby, limiting active E2F. qPCR analysis revealed significant decreases in *UHRF1* mRNA levels upon

palbociclib treatment, with the exception of the RB-null cell line, SaOS-2, which served as a negative

control (Supplemental Figure 3D). Palbociclib treatment also decreased UHRF1 protein levels in a dose-

dependent manner in RB-positive OS cells, as revealed by Western Blot analysis (Supplemental Figure

3E). In line with these results, we also observed an upregulation of *CDK4* and/or *CDK6* transcripts in RB-

wildtype OS cell lines and/or *INK4A* downregulation (Supplemental Figure 3H-I). Indeed, SJSA-1 is known

to have *CDK4* amplification and U2-OS to have *INK4A* deletion. Together, these data confirmed

transcriptional regulation of *UHRF1* by the RB/E2F pathway through direct transcriptional activation by

activator E2Fs, E2F1 and E2F3.

UHRF1 promotes human OS cell proliferation *in vitro* and *in vivo*

Emerging reports have linked UHRF1 overexpression in cancer with its ability to promote proliferation,

migration/invasion, or both [17, 35-40]. To study the role of UHRF1 overexpression in OS, we first

generated UHRF1-knockdown OS cell lines using shRNA; however, we discovered that UHRF1

knockdown cannot be sustained for more than two weeks, challenging the reproducibility of our results

over time (data not shown). To overcome this challenge, we generated lentiviral CRISPR vectors

encoding gRNA sequence complimentary to UHRF1 to facilitate UHRF1 gene knockout (KO) in OS cell

lines, as well as non-targeting vector control (VC). Single clones (n=3) were selected for SJSA-1 and 143B,

while the other cell lines remained as pools and were analyzed within 2-3 weeks after being generated.

Western blot analysis revealed successful UHRF1 KO in all four OS cell lines tested (Figure 3A). To assess

whether UHRF1 is required for OS cell proliferation, we first performed growth curve analysis, and found

that UHRF1 KO cells displayed longer doubling times compared to VC OS cells (Figure 3B). The decrease

in proliferation potential was further evidenced through clonogenic assays (Figure 3C). UHRF1 loss

decreased the OS cells' ability to give rise to colonies at a single cell level, as seen by a significant

reduction in both the number and the size of colonies in UHRF1 KO compared to VC cells; except for

SaOS-2, where we observed a decrease in number and size but the magnitude of the change did not

reach statistical significance (Figure 3D). To directly assess cell proliferation, we pulsed UHRF1 KO and

VC cells with EdU, a thymidine nucleoside analog, for 1 h, to label actively proliferating cells (Figure 3E).

We found that UHRF1 KO cells had reduced EdU incorporation, as seen by the significantly lower

percentage of EdU-positive cells when compared to VC, suggesting a slower rate of active DNA synthesis;

with the exception of U-2 OS, albeit a trend of decreased incorporation was still observed (Figure 3F).

UHRF1 depletion also has been reported to sensitize cancer cells to chemotherapeutic drugs [41, 42].

We evaluated whether UHRF1 loss in OS cells would alter their sensitivity to standard-of-care drugs,

doxorubicin, cisplatin and methotrexate. As observed from the dose-response curves generated using

the Cell TiterGlo viability assay, we found moderate reduction in drug sensitivity in UHRF1 KO cells in

comparison to VC, evidenced by mild increases in EC50. This holds true for both single agent treatment

and combination treatment (Supplemental Figure 4). Although diverging from previous reports, these

observations are consistent with the decreased proliferation rate seen in KO cells and the mechanism of

action of these drugs, which are more efficacious in reducing viability of cells with higher proliferation

rates.

To assess proliferative capacity in $vivo$, UHRF1 KO and VC OS cells were injected subcutaneously into

immune-deficient mice at either flank regions. UHRF1 KO cells gave rise to tumors with significantly

lighter burden when compared to VC. Tumors formed from UHRF1 KO cells reached an average size of

0.49 ± 0.37 cm^3 and an average weight of 0.70 ± 0.69 g compared to an average volume of 1.233 ± 0.75

cm^3 (p=0.02, n=10) and average weight of 1.62 ± 1.09 g (p=0.01, n=10) from tumors formed by VC cells.

To test the therapeutic potential of targeting UHRF1 in established tumors, we utilized a doxycycline-

inducible system to drive the expression of CRISPR gRNA against UHRF1. Inducible UHRF1 KO and VC OS

cells were subcutaneously injected and tumors were allowed to establish for one week, followed by the

induction of CRISPR/Cas-9 gRNAs using orally delivered doxycycline (Figure 3G). Tumor growth was

significantly reduced in UHRF1 KO tumors, with an average tumor volume of 0.356 ± 0.201 cm^3

compared to 1.455 ± 0.865 cm^3 in VC tumors (p=0.02; n=5; Figure 3H-I). The average tumor weight was

also reduced, with UHRF1 KO tumors averaging 0.46 ± 0.45 g compared to 1.80 ± 1.11 g in VC tumors

(p=0.01, n=5; Figure 3I). Western blot was performed to confirm the decrease in UHRF1 in UHRF1 KO

tumors (Figure 3K). UHRF1 KO tumors also presented phenotypic features of less aggressive tumors, as

seen by lessened vasculature and ulceration compared to tumors formed from VC cells (Figure 3J).

Taken together, both in $vitro$ and in $vivo$ data suggest that UHRF1 is critical for OS cell proliferation.

UHRF1 promotes human OS cell migration and invasion *in vitro* and *in vivo*

The high metastatic potential of OS is the main cause of mortality in patients. Given that our mouse models indicated a possible involvement of UHRF1 in OS metastasis, we sought to evaluate the role of UHRF1 in promoting cell migration, invasion, and metastasis. Scratch-wound assay was carried out to assess the migratory potential of UHRF1 KO OS cell lines (Figure 4A). We observed a significant decrease in the distance migrated in UHRF1 KO compared to VC OS cells for all cell lines studied, with an average of 56.8 ± 2.3% reduction in migration across the three cell lines (Figure 4B). In addition to the decrease in migratory potential, Transwell invasion assays revealed a significant reduction in the number of UHRF1 KO OS cells capable of mobilizing across Matrigel-coated inserts in all OS cell lines (Figures 4C-D).

Finally, to test whether the reduced migratory and invasive capacities *in vitro* translate into less metastatic potential *in vivo*, we injected SJSA-1 UHRF1 KO and VC cells into the tail vein of immune-deficient mice and assessed the rate of lung colonization 3-weeks post injection. We found that the lungs of mice injected with UHRF1 KO cells had a reduced number of metastatic nodules and a significantly reduced tumor nodule size when compared to the lungs of mice injected with VC cells (Figures 4E-G). We also observed a significant decrease in the burden of lung metastases when we injected inducible SJSA-1 UHRF1 KO into the tail-vein of mice fed with doxycycline, compared to VC cells (Figures 4H-J), as reflected by significant decrease of total lung weight (data not shown) and reduced number (I) and size (J) of metastatic nodules. This suggests that targeting UHRF1 would be an effective strategy to reduce metastases even when tumor cells have already undergone intravasation.

UHRF1 overexpression promotes human MSC cell migration and invasion

In order to conclusively associate UHRF1 overexpression with cell migration, we performed gain-of-

function studies using MSCs, the normal progenitor of the osteogenic tissue. For this, we generated a

doxycycline-inducible lentiviral vector system to drive UHRF1 overexpression (pCW57-UHRF1; Figure 5A)

and used the empty backbone vector as control (pCW57-VC). Western blot analysis was performed to

validate successful induction of UHRF1 overexpression upon doxycycline treatment in transduced MSCs

(Figure 5B). We observed that the rate of cell proliferation upon induction of UHRF1 overexpression in

MSCs was indistinguishable from doxycycline-induced VC (data not shown). Nonetheless, we found that

UHRF1 overexpression in MSCs significantly increased migratory potential as evidenced by the

significant increase in the distance migrated upon doxycycline induction in pCW57-UHRF1 cells

compared to pCW57-VC using scratch-wound assay (Figures 5C-D). Furthermore, induction of UHRF1

overexpression also led to a significant increase in the number of cells invaded across Matrigel-coated

Transwell membranes (Figures 5E-F).

UHRF1 affects the expression of genes involved in cell migration and invasion

UHRF1 is required for maintenance of DNA methylation during DNA replication through the recruitment

of DNMT1 [43]. However, UHRF1 ubiquitin ligase activity also targets DNMT1 for degradation, with some

studies reporting that UHRF1 overexpression results in decreased DNA methylation [44, 45]. To

determine the effects of UHRF1 loss on DNA methylation, chromatin structure, and transcription, we

analyzed global DNA methylation, chromatin accessibility, and transcriptome. We probed genomic DNA

isolated from UHRF1 KO and VC cell lines with an antibody against 5-methyl cytosine (5meC) to assess

global DNA methylation. We found genomic 5meC levels were decreased in UHRF1 KO compared to VC

across all but one OS cell lines examined (Supplemental Figure 5A).

We also analyzed changes in the chromatin landscape upon loss of UHRF1 by performing ATAC-seq in

143B, SJSA-1, and SaOS-2 UHRF1 KO compared to VC (Supplemental Figure 5B). Despite the role of

UHRF1 in heterochromatin maintenance and the decreased genomic levels in DNA methylation, we

identified only 16 chromatin regions with significant changes in chromatin accessibility across these 3

biological replicates (Supplemental Table 2). Within these changes, the majority were consistent with

the role of UHRF1 chromatin repression, with approximately 69% (11/16) resulting in opening of

chromatin upon UHRF1 loss.

In line with modest changes in chromatin accessibility, gene expression analysis using RNA-seq revealed

that the gene expression profile from UHRF1 KO cell lines present minor variability from VC cells, as

portrayed by the principal component analysis (PCA) plot (Figure 6A). We identified only a total of 272

differentially expressed genes (DEGs), with 191 upregulated genes and 81 downregulated genes in

UHRF1 KO compared to VC cells. The predominance of gene upregulation upon *UHRF1* loss is consistent

with the reduction in DNA methylation levels. Given the lack of chromatin accessibility changes

observed in ATAC-seq, changes in DNA methylation that may affect gene expression are likely affecting

transcription factor binding rather than chromatin relaxation at these promoter. Of particular interest,

gene ontology (GO) analysis for biological processes of these 272 DEGs showed an enrichment of genes

involved in regulation of cell migration and cellular adherence, as seen by the classification of the top 10

most significant GO terms (Figure 6B). We confirmed the changes in gene expression observed among

top 13 genes involved in regulation of cell migration (Figure 6C) through qPCR (Figure 6D and data not

shown).

Urokinase plasminogen activator contributes to OS migration downstream of UHRF1

Plasminogen activator, Urokinase (*PLAU*) was one of the genes identified through the transcriptome

analysis to be potentially involved in UHRF1-mediated cell migration. Significant decrease in the levels of

the *PLAU* transcript were observed in UHRF1 KO OS cells (Figure 6D), as well as the tumors they form

subcutaneously in immune-deficient mice, with an average 2.2-fold decrease when compared to tumors

formed from VC cells (p=0.038, Figure 6E). Thus, we tested whether treatment with amiloride, an

inhibitor for the urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) protein encoded by *PLAU*, could decrease

migratory potential and invasiveness of OS cells. Scratch-wound assays of amiloride treated OS cell lines

showed a significant decrease in migratory potential, with an average of 40.3 ± 11.9% decrease across all

OS cell lines examined (Figure 7A). Significant decrease of invasiveness, as determined by Transwell

invasion assay, is also observed upon amiloride treatment (Figure 7B-C), confirming uPA as an important

contributor of OS migratory potential. In line with our observations associating UHRF1 with uPA levels,

amiloride treatment was able to inhibit UHRF1-induced cell migration in MSCs (Figure 7D-E). BC 11

hydrobromide, a selective uPA inhibitor, was used to further verify the role of uPA in OS cell migration. A

23.2 ± 10.2% decrease in migration is seen across OS cell lines upon treatment (Figure 7F). Taken

together, we established a positive correlation between UHRF1 expression levels and migration/invasion

potential in the osteogenic lineage, with uPA as the potential conduit between the two.

DISCUSSION

Metastasis remains the most frequent fatal complication of OS. The lack of significant breakthroughs

beyond the scope of standard chemotherapeutics targeting highly proliferative underscores a pressing

clinical need for new therapeutic strategies for OS. For decades, genetic alterations at the *RB1* gene

have been associated with increased mortality, metastasis and poor response to chemotherapy in

osteosarcoma [7-11, 46, 47]. However, the precise mechanism through which this occurs remains to be

elucidated in order to develop better therapeutic strategies. In this study, we identified *UHRF1* as a

direct target of RB/E2F pathway. UHRF1 overexpression is directly correlated with increased OS

malignancy and metastatic disease in humans. Specifically, UHRF1 facilitates OS cell proliferative,

invasive, and metastatic capacity. Most importantly, we found that the decrease in survival associated

with loss-of-function mutations at the *Rb1* gene is critically mediated through the overexpression of

UHRF1.

Studies from retinoblastoma, a cancer initiated by biallelic inactivation of the *RB1* gene, defined a

central role of RB in epigenetic control and a key role of RB/E2F-regulated chromatin remodelers in

tumorigenesis [16, 17, 48]. Among these chromatin remodelers, UHRF1 was identified as a potential

critical regulator of tumor initiation and progression following RB-pathway deregulation that is

overexpressed in several cancers [17-21]. We confirmed *UHRF1* upregulation in human OS cell lines,

PDXs, and primary OS tissue. Further, UHRF1 protein overexpression is recapitulated in both *p53* cKO

and *Tp53*/*Rb1* DKO OS mouse model, validating the suitability of this mouse model for the study of OS.

Direct regulation of UHRF1 by the RB/E2F signaling pathway was described previously, though in limited

context [33, 34]. We established that *UHRF1* expression is transcriptionally regulated by the RB/E2F

signaling pathway in the osteogenic lineage. ChIP analysis revealed enrichment of E2F1 at putative

binding motifs within the promoter region of *UHRF1*. However, E2F1 knockdown was insufficient in

reducing UHRF1 expression. Rather, significant reduction of UHRF1 level was achieved only through

combined knockdown of E2F1 and E2F3, suggesting compensatory mechanisms between activator E2Fs

in regulating the transcription of downstream targets. As the RB/E2F signaling pathway is often

inactivated in cancer through mechanisms other than *RB1* loss-of-function mutations, the most common

being RB hyperphosphorylation through CDK4/6 activation or p16 inactivation [49-51], it is not

surprising that UHRF1 upregulation and overexpression in OS is not restricted to *RB1*-null cases. UHRF1

overexpression in *RB1*-wildtype OS cell lines can be explained by upregulation of *CDK4* and/or *CDK6*,

which leads to RB hyperphosphorylation, preventing the repression of E2F binding activities. Increased

CDK4/6 activity being the predominant mechanism of pathway inactivation in OS is further confirmed by

the down-regulation of *UHRF1* and dose-dependent decrease of UHRF1 upon treatment with palbociclib,

a known CDK4/6 inhibitor [52].

UHRF1 expression is positively correlated with cell proliferation and cell mobility in both normal and

malignant cells *in vitro* [17, 37-40]. Although it is clear that UHRF1 expression is linked to cellular

phenotypes that strongly associate with tumor malignancy, the link between UHRF1, OS tumor

progression, and its role in the poor prognosis associated with *RB1* loss has not been established. Our

results showed that UHRF1 KO decreases clonogenicity and tumor growth both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Independent from its role on proliferation, UHRF1 has a clear effect on the migratory potential of the

osteoblastic lineage as UHRF1 overexpression was sufficient to increase migration and invasion of

normal MSCs and targeting UHRF1 drastically reduced migration, invasion and metastatic capacity of OS

cell lines. It is important to note that although RB-null status has been clinically associated with poor

disease outlook, the RB-null cell line, SaOS-2, does not exhibit higher aggressiveness in comparison to

other cell lines. This could be explained by the limitation of utilizing cell lines, in which loss of clinical

representation is commonly seen. Our results also suggest that uPA is critical for this UHRF1-mediated

migration. uPA is a serine protease that has long been associated with tumor malignancy. Upon

conversion of plasminogen into plasmin, uPA triggers a proteolytic cascade that leads to the degradation

of extracellular matrix, an event necessary for angiogenesis and metastasis. Our findings are in line with

a previous study describing the uPA/uPAR axis as a metastatic driver in OS [53]. While our results

suggest that targeting UHRF1 might result in a more robust therapeutic outcome, the observation that

the UHRF1 induced cell migration can be reversed by treatment with uPA inhibitors like amiloride [54]

and BC11 hydrobromide, provides a therapeutic alternative that can be further explored immediately.

Our group is the first to model the critical role of UHRF1 in osteosarcomagenesis, with *Uhrf1* KO

resulting in a dramatic increase in overall survival and decrease in metastases, particularly in *Rb1*-null OS.

Indeed, median survival and rate of metastasis of *Tp53*/*Rb1*/*Uhrf1* TKO closely resembled that of *Tp53*

cKO mice, indicating that UHRF1 is a major driver of *Rb1* loss-associated malignancy. Interestingly, our

results also indicate that the increased survival in *Tp53*/*Rb1*/*Uhrf1* TKO mice is largely a result of delayed

tumor promotion, with negligible differences in tumor growth rates once the tumors have been

detected. This is quite distinct from our observations targeting UHRF1 in established tumor cells,

suggesting there might be compensatory pathways arising in the developmental tumor models. Further

studies on tumors arising from these developmental OS models might provide insight on potential

compensatory mechanisms of *Uhrf1* loss which may be relevant for predicting mechanisms of resistance

for future UHRF1-targeted therapeutics.

While targeting *Uhrf1* in developmental mouse models showed a distinct improvement in survival in

Rb1-null tumors over *Rb1*-wildtype, such distinctions were not observed in UHRF1 overexpressing

human OS cell lines. Both *RB1*-null and *RB1*-wildtype OS cell lines appear to equally benefit from

targeting UHRF1. It is possible that the timing of UHRF1 overexpression is crucial for the resulting poor

prognosis. Early *Rb1* loss would result in immediate UHRF1 overexpression which quickly promotes

tumorigenesis compared to tumors that eventually inactivate the RB/E2F pathway through alternative

mechanisms. Supporting this theory, *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO mice showed some improvement in survival

compared to the more aggressive *Tp53* cKO mice that showed RB/E2F pathway inactivation.

Alternatively, the RB/E2F complex is known not only for its role in direct transcriptional repression, but

also as epigenetic modifiers through the recruitment of chromatin remodelers [12-16]. Two UHRF1

domains, PHD and RING, contain LXCXE RB-binding motifs [55]. Our unpublished data shows UHRF1

preferentially binds to hyperphosphorylated RB. Thus, *RB1*-wildtype OS cells may preserve protein-

protein interactions and RB regulation on UHRF1. The possible loss of this layer of regulation in *RB1*-null

tumors could account for the drastic difference in clinical prognosis, supporting the view that the

inactivation of RB by phosphorylation is not functionally equivalent to the mutation of the *RB1* gene [56].

Unpublished data from our group strongly supports a critical role of UHRF1 in aiding RB-mediated

tumorigenesis, with loss of *Uhrf1* completely abrogating tumor formation in an *Rb1/p107* knockout

model of retinoblastoma and significantly increasing survival of a *Tp53/Rb1* model of small cell lung

cancer, similar to the observations presented for osteosarcoma in this study.

To summarize, our study provided multifaceted evidences both *in vitro* and *in vivo* supporting UHRF1

targeting as a novel therapeutic strategy in treating OS. The involvement of UHRF1 in OS cell

proliferation and its critical role in tumor promotion strongly outweighs the mild desensitization of OS to

standard care therapeutics. We showed that UHRF1 targeting holds great potential in overcoming the

highly metastatic characteristic of OS, the main reason why survival rate has remained stagnant in past

decades. We stand to be the first to model the effect of UHRF1 throughout development and showed

minimal on-target toxicity, as opposed to various chemotherapeutic agents known to affect bone

homeostasis [57]. Moreover, the degree to which UHRF1 loss reverted the increased malignancy upon

Rb1 loss suggests that the benefit of UHRF1 targeting could go beyond the scope of OS by improving

current treatment paradigms of other cancers harboring RB/E2F pathway inactivation.

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Figure 1. UHRF1 is a critical driver of the increased malignancy observed in *Rb1* null osteosarcoma

(A) Representative micro-CT (top) and micro-PET (bottom) scans of OS that arises in a mouse femur. (B) Representative fluorescent images of *in situ* hybridizations using RNAscope on tumors from genetically engineered OS mice using a probe against *Uhrf1* (red). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). *Uhrf1* expression is detected in *Tp53* cKO and *Tp53/Rb1* DKO mice. (C) Western blot detection of UHRF1 in tumors from genetically engineered *p53* cKO and *p53/Rb1* DKO OS mice, β-actin was used as loading control. (D) Micro-CT scan of hind limb from wildtype (w.t.) and preosteoblastic *Uhrf1* knockout (*Uhrf1* KO) mice (E) Bone density analysis of prime OS locations in Hounsfield units (HU). Each data point is mean ± s.d. of n=4 samples. (F) Representative fluorescent images of *in situ* hybridizations using RNAscope on tumors from genetically engineered OS mice using a probe against *Uhrf1* (red). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). *Uhrf1* expression is not detected in *Tp53/Uhrf1* DKO and *Tp53/Rb1/Uhrf1* TKO mice. (G-H) Kaplan-Meier curves showing the survival of osteosarcoma-prone mouse models. (G) Mice bearing *Rb1* mutations *Tp53/Rb1* DKO: *Osx-Cre; p53^{lox/lox}; Rb1^{lox/lox}* (red; n=53) have significantly shorter lifespan compared to *Tp53* cKO: *Osx-Cre; p53^{lox/lox}; Rb1^{lox/lox}* (blue; n=39). This survival time was significantly increased in *Tp53*/*Rb1*/*Uhrf1* TKO: *Osx-Cre; p53^{lox/lox}; Rb1^{lox/lox};Uhrf1^{lox/lox}* (purple; n=37) mice. † Three surviving mice were removed from study to confirm tumor absence. (H) *Tp53*/*Uhrf1* DKO: *Osx-Cre; p53^{lox/lox}; Uhrf1^{lox/lox}* (magenta; n=39) showed an overall survival comparable to *Tp53* cKO (blue; n=39). Mantel-Cox test were used for curve comparisons. ns=not significant, * $p < 0.05$, **** $p < 0.0001$. (I) Representative images from micro-CT (left) and micro-PET (right) scans used for determining the age at which tumors can be first detected (red arrow). (J) Age of mice (in weeks) at earliest tumor detection via micro-CT and PET scans. Solid line represents the average for *Tp53*/*Rb1* DKO (n=4) and *Tp53*/*Rb1*/*Uhrf1* TKO (n=3). *$p < 0.05$ by unpaired two-tailed *t* test.

Figure 2. UHRF1 is upregulated and overexpressed in human osteosarcoma

(A) The Cancer Genome Atlas data of RNA-Seq by expectation-maximization (RSEM) values from 263 human sarcoma (SARC) tumor samples compared to 2 normal tissue (17.9-fold), 1100 breast invasive carcinoma (BRCA) compared to 112 normal (13.5-fold), 517 lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) compared to 59 normal (13.7-fold) showing increased *UHRF1* expression in tumors with frequent RB pathway alterations but not in 498 prostate adenocarcinoma (PRAD) tumors compared 52 normal (1.84-fold) were RB pathway is normally unaltered. Tumor samples depicted in red compared to normal samples in blue. (B) Representative fluorescent images in 2X (top) and 20X (bottom) magnification of *in situ* hybridizations using RNAscope scored as low or high based on signal intensity for *UHRF1* mRNA. Scale bar = 100 μm. (C) Quantification of the percentage of low and high signal score acquired from RNAscope in stage IA, IB, and IIB OS. (D) RNA-seq analysis comparing *UHRF1* expression between mesenchymal stem cells (MSC), osteoblasts (OB), and high-grade OS biopsies from patients who did (5yr mets) or did not develop metastasis (No mets) within 5 years from diagnoses showing increased *UHRF1* expression in metastasis-prone tumors. (E-F) qPCR analysis of *UHRF1* mRNA in (E) human OS cell lines (143B, SJSA-1, SaOS-2 and U-2 OS) and (F) patient-derived xenografts (PDX1-5). All data are mean ± SD normalized to MSC (n=3). (G-H) Western blot detection of UHRF1 in (G) human OS cell lines, and (H) PDXs tumors, β-actin was used as loading control. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by unpaired two-tailed *t* test.

Figure 3. UHRF1 promotes human OS tumor growth *in vitro* and *in vivo*

(A) Western blot verification of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated UHRF1 knockout of human OS cell lines (KO) in

comparison to non-targeting vector control (VC). β-actin was used as loading control. (B) Growth curves

of UHRF1 knockout cells (KO, red) compared to control (VC, black), population doubling time indicated in

parentheses. (C) Representative images from clonogenic assay plates with 143B VC and UHRF1 KO. (D)

Histogram of colony counts from clonogenic assay. ns=not significant; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ by unpaired

two-tailed *t* test. (E) Representative images of cells labelled with Click-iT EdU (green) or immunostained

with UHRF1 (red). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). (F) Quantification of EdU signal from

immunocytochemistry probing UHRF1 and EdU in VC and UHRF1 KO human OS cell lines. ns=not

significant; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by unpaired two-tailed *t* test. (G) Cartoon representation for

doxycycline-inducible *in vivo* knockout for flank-injected osteosarcoma cell lines carrying a non-targeting

sgRNA (iCRISPR VC) or UHRF1 sgRNA (iCRISPR KO). (H-I) Quantification of the tumor (H) volume and (I)

weight for each of the replicates. * $p<0.05$ by paired two-tailed *t* test. (J) Images from tumors collected

from subcutaneous injection of iCRISPR VC (iVC, n=5) and iCRISPR KO (iKO, n=5) SJSA-1. (K) Western blot

verification of UHRF1 knockout in iKO compared to iVC for tumors shown in J. β-actin was used as

loading control. UHRF1 densitometry quantification normalized to the matching iVC, prior normalization

to β-actin.

A

VC   KO

0 h

8 h

B

Distance migrated (pixels)

**** **** ****

VC
KO

143B   SJSA-1   SaOS-2

C

VC   KO

D

Number of cells invaded

* ** *

VC
KO

143B   SJSA-1   SaOS-2

E

VC

KO

F

SJSA-1

Tumor nodules per lung

VC   KO

G

SJSA-1

Average tumor size (pixels 10³)

**

VC   KO

H

tail-vein injection   end-point

+doxy

21 days

iCRISPR VC or KO

I

SJSA-1

Tumor nodules per lung

iVO   iKO

J

SJSA-1

Average tumor size (pixels 10³)

iVO   iKO

Figure 4. UHRF1 promotes human OS cell migration and invasion *in vitro* and *in vivo*

(A) Representative image from scratch-wound assay comparing wound closure of non-targeting vector

control (VC) and UHRF1 KO (KO) cells over 8 h in SJSA-1 cells. White dashed lines represent wound edge.

(B) Quantification of distance (pixels) migrated in scratch-wound assays for each of the osteosarcoma

cell lines. Each data point is mean ± s.d. of ten measurements in triplicate samples. (C) Representative

images from Transwell assays with cells stained with crystal violet (purple) comparing levels of invasion

between VC and UHRF1 KO in SJSA-1 cells. (D) Quantification of number of cells invaded across the

Transwell membrane for each of the osteosarcoma cell lines. Each data point is mean ± s.d. of triplicate

samples. (E) Representative H&E staining from lung sections collected from mice injected intravenously

with VC or UHRF1 KO SJSA-1 cells. Pulmonary nodules were quantified by (F) the number of tumor

nodules found per lung and by (G) the average tumor size per lung. Solid line represents the average

from n=7 for VC and n=6 for KO. (H) Cartoon representation for doxycycline-inducible *in vivo* knockout

for tail-vein-injected osteosarcoma cell lines carrying a non-targeting sgRNA (iCRISPR VC; iVC) or UHRF1

sgRNA (iCRISPR KO; iKO) to assess lung metastases. (I-J) Pulmonary nodules were quantified by (I) the

number of tumor nodules found per lung and by (J) the average tumor size per lung. Solid line

represents the average from five replicates for each condition. For all graphs: ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001,

**** p < 0.0001 by unpaired two-tailed *t* test.

Figure 5. UHRF1 overexpression promotes human MSC cell migration and invasion

(A) Plasmid map of the doxycycline inducible UHRF1 overexpression system. Tet Response Element (TRE)

is activated by doxycycline binding to the reverse tetracycline-controlled transactivator (rTA), allowing

transcription of GFP and the pCW57-promoter driven human UHRF1 cDNA. (B) Western blot detection

of UHRF1 in MSCs transduced with vector control (pCW57-VC) or UHRF1 overexpression (pCW57-UHRF1)

plasmid, treated with DMSO (-) or doxycycline (+). (C) Scratch-wound assay in MSC culture comparing

wound closure of control (pCW57-VC) and UHRF1 overexpressed (pCW57-UHRF1) cells over 8 h span.

White dashed lines represent wound edge. (D) Histogram quantification of distance (pixels) migrated for

doxycycline non-induced (black) and induced (gray) pCW57-VC and pCW57-UHRF1. Each data point is

mean ± s.d. of ten measurements in triplicate samples. (E) Representative images from Transwell assays

with cells stained with crystal violet comparing levels of invasion between doxycycline non-induced and

induced pCW57-VC and pCW57-UHRF1 MSC. (F) Quantification of the number of cells invaded across the

Transswell membrane. Each data point is mean ± s.d. of triplicate samples. For all graphs: ns=not

significant, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, by unpaired two-tailed t test.

Figure 6. UHRF1 controls the expression of genes involved in cell migration and invasion

(A) Principle component analysis (PCA) plot generated from RNA-seq displaying gene expression profile

in VC and KO OS cells. (B) Gene ontology (GO) analysis for biological process of differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) identified through RNA-seq. (C) Heat map of top 13 genes involved in regulation of cell

migration, decreased (blue) or increased (red) in expression level upon UHRF1 loss. (D) qPCR analysis

confirming expression changes of migration related genes in individual cell lines upon UHRF1 loss, fold

change of mRNA level normalized to vector control (gray), compared with average fold change from

RNA-seq analysis (black). (E) qPCR analysis of *PLAU* mRNA levels in flank-implanted tumors from control

(VC) and UHRF1 KO (KO) SJSA-1 cell lines. * p<0.05 by paired two-tailed *t* test.

Figure 7. Urokinase plasminogen activator contributes to osteosarcoma migration

(A) Quantification of distance (pixels) migrated in scratch-wound assays for each of the osteosarcoma

cell lines treated with DMSO or 150 µM amiloride in SJSA-1, normalized to DMSO control. Each data

point is mean ± s.d. of ten measurements in triplicate samples. (B) Representative images from

Transwell assays with cells stained with crystal violet comparing levels of invasion between cells treated

with DMSO or 150 µM amiloride in SJSA-1. (C) Quantification of the number of cells invaded in Transwell

invasion assay for each of the osteosarcoma cell lines treated with DMSO or 150 µM amiloride. Each

data point is mean ± s.d. of triplicate samples. (D) Representative images from Transwell assays with

cells stained with crystal violet comparing levels of invasion between doxycycline induced pCW57-VC

and pCW57-UHRF1 MSC treated with DMSO or 150 µM amiloride. (E) Quantification of the number of

MSC invaded across the Transwell membrane from experiment shown in D. Each data point is mean ±

s.d. of triplicate samples. (F) Quantification of distance (pixels) migrated in scratch-wound assays for

each of the osteosarcoma cell lines treated with DMSO or 16.4 µM BC 11 hydrobromide in SJSA-1,

normalized to DMSO control. Each data point is mean ± s.d. of ten measurements in triplicate samples.

For all graphs: ns=not significant, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, by unpaired two-tailed *t* test. (G) Model of

UHRF1 oncogenic function in osteosarcoma. In the absence of RB or upon RB inactivation via

hyperphosphorylation, activator E2Fs drive *UHRF1* transcription. The resulting UHRF1 protein

overexpression stimulates proliferation and uPA overexpression, aiding to migration, invasion, and

metastasis. For osteosarcomas with CDK4/6 amplification, palbociclib treatment is an effective way to

reduce UHRF1 expression and result in decreased proliferation and migration. Downstream of UHRF1,

uPA inhibitors (e.g. amiloride, BC 11 hydrobromide) are attractive therapeutic options to decrease

migration and metastasis. For most osteosarcomas (with or without *RB1* mutations), the development

of UHRF1-targeted therapeutics might result in beneficial decrease in both tumor growth and

pulmonary metastases.