Title: Elevated Lactate in Acute Myeloid Leukemia Bone Marrow Microenvironment

Dysfunction, with a Dual Role of GPR81 in Macrophage Polarization and Leukemia Cell

Growth

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ABSTRACT

Interactions between acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and the hematopoietic bone marrow

microenvironment (BMME) are critical to leukemia progression and chemoresistance. We

measured elevated extracellular metabolites in the BMME of AML patients, including lactate.

Lactate has been implicated in solid tumors for inducing suppressive tumor-associated

macrophages, and correlates with poor prognosis. We describe a role of lactate in the

polarization of leukemia-associated macrophages (LAMs), using a murine model of blast crisis

chronic myelogenous leukemia (bcCML). Elevated lactate also diminished the function of

hematopoietic progenitors and stromal support *in vitro*. Mice genetically lacking the lactate

receptor GPR81 were used to demonstrate lactate-GPR81 signaling as a mechanism of both

the polarization of LAMs and the direct support of leukemia cells. We report

microenvironmental lactate as a critical driver of AML-induced BMME dysfunction and

leukemic progression, thus identifying GPR81 as an exciting and novel therapeutic target for

the treatment of this devastating disease.

INTRODUCTION

Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) is within the top ten cancer subtypes with the most

numerous deaths per year in the U.S. [SEER, NIH], with a ~90% mortality rate at five years past

diagnosis in the most affected age group of 65+ [1]. Cell-targeted chemotherapies initially reduce

leukemic burden; however, there are various adverse effects on hematopoietic tissues, and

relapse occurs in most patients [2, 3]. AML patients are often poor candidates for more effective

stem cell transplantation due to comorbidities [4]. With approximately 20,000 new cases in the

United States annually [SEER, NIH] and an increasing global incidence [5], there is a clear, unmet

need for safe and effective treatments.

Current treatments for AML are often ineffective due, in part, to dysfunction of the bone

marrow microenvironment (BMME). The BMME consists of all interactions among cells and

extracellular molecules within the bone marrow (BM). AML is a heterogeneous hematologic

malignancy initiated by genetic mutations in immature myeloid progenitor cells. Leukemic

myeloid-like blasts undergo an uncontrolled proliferation (clonal hematopoiesis) and

accumulate in the BM and other tissues [6]. Secondary to BMME aberrations are cytopenia and

eventual fatal infection, hemorrhage, or BM failure [7, 8]. To date, the molecular mechanisms of

the interactions between AML and the BMME in disease pathophysiology have not been fully
explored.

Signaling within the BMME directs blood cell precursors to be produced from
hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) [9]. When not circulating, HSCs reside at endosteal and
perivascular areas within the BM termed HSC "niches" where they receive signals from
specialized cells to remain quiescent, self-renew, or exit the niche to begin to differentiate into
hematopoietic progenitors [10, 11]. Multiple cell types have been implicated in the regulation of
HSCs including specialized subsets of mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) [12-14], osteoblasts
(OBs) [15-18], skeletal lineage cells [19], endothelial cells [20-22], macrophages [23], and T cells [24]. Niche
cells signal by cell-cell contact and secretion of numerous regulatory factors, including
extracellular cytokines and inflammatory molecules [13, 25-31]. Therefore, the BMME must maintain
cellular and extracellular composition for hematopoietic homeostasis. BMME alterations can
initiate or support leukemogenesis, and, reciprocally, leukemia results in an altered BMME [29,
32, 33]; the consequence is diminished production of blood and immune cell populations.
Furthermore, AML cells take refuge at the niche, leading to relapse when leukemia stem cell
(LSC) populations survive and repopulate after treatment [34, 35]. Therefore, a thorough
understanding of the microenvironment is needed to improve treatment.

Recent advances in the knowledge of the solid tumor microenvironment (TME) of
multiple cancer types have revealed the complexities of cancer progression, leading to
breakthrough therapeutic approaches such as immunotherapies. However, immunotherapies
have not yet been effective in clearing LSC populations in AML [36]. The TME has highly altered
levels of extracellular metabolites and cytokines that render immune cells ineffective while
supporting cancer cells [37-39]. Thus far, the contribution of the extracellular metabolic landscape
toward AML progression has not been well-defined. The altered extracellular metabolites in the
TME often are attributed to the amplified metabolic drive of cancer cells and the small area
between cells within the tumor architecture [40]. In contrast, the BMME has a less compact tumor
architecture, with ample vessel availability for nutrient and oxygen transfer throughout. Our
research aimed to determine if similar metabolic microenvironmental mechanisms of cancer
progression apply to leukemias.

A hallmark of cancer is the metabolic switch to constitutive aerobic glycolysis, known as
"the Warburg effect" [41], and leukemia cells are dependent on this type of metabolism for survival

[42]. As a by-product of glycolysis, lactate is secreted to the extracellular microenvironment [43].

Normally, lactate is converted back to pyruvate by lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) for further use

of pyruvate as a metabolic substrate [44]; however, 5-30-fold elevation of lactate levels have been

reported in solid tumors [45] and this elevation correlates with poor prognosis [46]. Lactate is

imported/exported cellularly through monocarboxylate transporters (MCT)-1 and -4 and can

signal through multiple pathways: as the extracellular ligand for the cell-surface G-protein-

coupled hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1 (GPR81/HCAR1), and intracellularly as metabolic

fuel or by activating transcription factor hypoxia-inducible factor-1 (HIF-1) [44, 47-49]. These

pathways primarily coordinate the axis between oxidative phosphorylation and glycolysis, and

shifts in metabolism can influence cell phenotype, for example, the activation phenotype of

macrophages [50]. Lactate-GPR81 signaling was found to reprogram glucometabolism in breast

cancer cells and directly contribute to the immune landscape in the TME [51]. Downstream of

GPR81 activation in cancer cells, pathways are upregulated for growth and survival, DNA repair

proteins, chemoresistance (ex. ABCB1 transporter), and MCT1/4 expression [52-54]. Moreover,

GPR81-lactate signaling has dual effects of inciting immune evasion by upregulating PD-L1 on

cancer cells while dysregulating antigen presentation on immune cells [55, 56].

Furthermore, immunosuppressive tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) correlate with

poor prognosis in multiple cancer types, with lactate signaling implicated as a mechanism of

polarization [57-61]. In the BMME, macrophages are integral to the HSC niche during normal

hematopoiesis and stress [62, 63], and they interact with MSCs to coordinate the circulation of

HSCs [14]. While recent studies show alternatively activated leukemia-associated macrophages

(LAMs) and suggest their influence on AML progression [64, 65], little is known about the functions

of LAMs and the mechanisms by which they are polarized to this phenotype. Therefore, we

hypothesized that metabolite-related alterations to macrophages, MSCs, or OBs likely disrupt

hematopoietic support, contributing to the pathologic loss of hematopoiesis observed in AML

progression. We also aimed to determine if, similar to solid tumors, lactate contributes to both

an alternative macrophage phenotype and direct support for malignant cells.

RESULTS

Extracellular Metabolite Levels are Elevated in Bone Marrow of AML Patients, Including Lactate

To profile the exometabolome of the AML bone marrow microenvironment (BMME), we performed metabolomics on extracellular fluid from bone marrow (BM) biopsies of AML patients at diagnosis, and healthy age- and sex-matched controls, by liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) (**Fig. 1A**) (See patient and control metrics in **Table S1**). This revealed a global elevation of extracellular metabolites in the AML BMME (**Fig. 1B**), where **Table 1** lists the metabolites with significantly altered levels (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). To study the consequences of elevated metabolites *in vivo*, we used a murine AML model of blast-crisis chronic myelogenous leukemia (bcCML), where gene translocation products common to myeloid leukemia (BCR-ABL) and (NUP98-HOXa9) are retrovirally inserted into hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs/LSKs) to create malignant myeloid progenitor cells, that, upon injection via tail vein, will engraft then accumulate rapidly in the BM, and irradiation is not necessary to precondition the BM [66]. In this model, leukemic cells can be distinguished from nonleukemic myeloid lineage cells, by the use of the leukemic genes conjugated to green fluorescent protein (GFP) and yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) (**Fig. 1C**). The BMME at late-stage bcCML (>50% leukemia cells in BM) also presented with elevated extracellular metabolites (**Fig. 1D**), where **Table S2** lists the compounds with the most significantly altered levels (identified in **Supplementary Fig. 1B**). The most highly altered metabolite in human AML was lactate, with an extracellular lactate concentration approximately three times higher (**Fig. 1E**). The relative increase of lactate in the bcCML model was comparable to the human BMME (**Fig. 1F** and **1G**), justifying the use of this model for our further studies on microenvironmental lactate in AML pathology.

Leukemia-Associated Macrophages are Alternatively Activated to a CD206^{hi}, Suppressive Phenotype

We asked if elevated lactate has a role in the activation/polarization of local macrophages to a pro-tumoral phenotype, as reported in solid tumors [57, 58, 60]. First, we determined whether macrophages in the bcCML BM are alternatively activated. A survey of well-described activation markers [CD38 and major histocompatibility complex class II (MHCII) = classic, pro-inflammatory [67, 68]; macrophage mannose receptor (CD206) and early growth response protein

2 (EGR2) = alternative, suppressive/resolution-phase [69, 70]] was performed on BM macrophages

(Ly-6C⁻, Ly-6G⁻, CD45⁺, F4-80⁺) of bcCML mice (leukemia-associated macrophages (LAMs))

and non-leukemic (NL) controls (**Fig. 2A**) (See **Supplementary Methods Table SM2** for

markers and gating strategies). The software "Simplified Presentation of Incredibly Complex

Evaluations" (SPICE 6.1) (NIH) was used to identify an increased subset of LAMs that

overexpressed both CD206 and MHCII compared to NL macrophages (**Fig. 2B**). When

assessing these markers globally on LAMs, we observed an increase in the frequency of

CD206^{hi} macrophages (**Fig. 2C**) and expression level on the CD206⁺ macrophages (**Fig. 2D**);

this was unique to non-leukemia-derived (GFP⁻) macrophages and was elevated throughout the

disease course (**Supplementary Fig. 2A**). This suggests CD206 as a potential marker to

distinguish LAMs from myeloid leukemia cells in humans, of which there is not currently a good

marker for. The global frequency of MHCII was generally lower in LAMs, and CD38 and EGR2

were unchanged (**Supplementary Fig. 2B-D**). Splenic macrophages had a slightly higher

frequency of CD206⁺ in bcCML, though the expression level on CD206⁺ macrophages and the

frequency of CD206^{hi} macrophages were unchanged (**Supplementary Fig. 2E-I**). The increase

in CD206 expression was detectable on BM LAMs by an early-stage disease (7-10% leukemic

cells in the BM) (**Supplementary Fig. 2J** and **2K**).

To examine the functional phenotype of LAMs, transcriptional profiling was performed by

bulk RNA sequencing (RNAseq) of BM macrophages sorted from bcCML (LAMs) or NL controls.

The LAM transcriptome was distinctly different from NL macrophages (**Fig. 2E** and **2F**, and

Supplementary Fig. 2L). The top significantly downregulated pathways identified included

neutrophil interactions and cell cycle control (**Supplementary Fig. 2M**), while the top

upregulated pathways included interactions with immune and hematopoietic cells

(**Supplementary Fig. 2N**). This data indicates that LAMs are alternatively activated and may

contribute to the immune-privileged and dysregulated hematopoietic BMME observed in AML.

Proteome profiling detected several cytokines expressed by LAMs *in vitro* that were not

secreted by NL macrophages (**Fig. 2G** and **Table 2**). These cytokines have previously been

implicated in solid tumors as promoting tumor growth and metastasis (CXCL5, MMP3,

proprotein convertase 9) [71-73], regulating hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) development and

homing/mobilization (CXCL12)[74], and inducing a suppressive immune environment in the tumor

(CXCL10, CCL6) [75, 76], further suggesting a role of LAMs in the regulation of the BMME to
promote leukemic progression and suppress immune responses.

To isolate the contribution of lactate to the LAM phenotype, we treated bone marrow-
derived macrophages (BMDMs) *in vitro* with physiologically relevant levels of lactate: BM
extracellular lactate concentrations are likely higher *in vivo* than the measured concentrations
of ~2-5 mmol/L because AML patient BM biopsy samples are unavoidably diluted by some
peripheral blood upon collection. Also, we postulate that areas exist near AML cell-dense
pockets that are higher in lactate concentration, as the BM is known to be spatially
heterogeneous for concentrations of similar molecules, and pH [77]. Therefore, 5-15 mmol/L of
lactate was added for experiment treatments. As positive controls, we used lipopolysaccharide
(LPS) as proinflammatory stimuli [67], or interleukins (IL)-4 and -13 (IL-4, IL-13), well-described
Th2 cytokines produced in the resolution of inflammation regularly used as stimuli for alternative
macrophage activation [78-80]. We observed an additive effect of polarization to a CD206^{hi}
phenotype when lactate was combined with IL-4 and IL-13 (**Fig. 2H** and **2I**). This indicates that
lactate promotes polarization when some stimuli are present. The phenotype reversed after the
removal of stimuli for 48 hours (**Supplementary Fig. 2O** and **2P**), indicating that the activation
state is reversible. To assay for the function of CD206^{hi} lactate-polarized BMDMs, we measured
transcript levels of Arginase 1 (Arg1): an enzyme involved in depleting L-arginase, the substrate
of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS/Nos2), which mediates the cytotoxic production of nitric
oxide by classically-activated macrophages [69, 81]. Polarized BMDMs displayed increased *Arg1*
transcripts (**Fig. 2J**), while *iNOS* transcripts were not elevated (**Supplementary Fig. 2Q**). These
findings taken together suggest that macrophages in AML are likely suppressive, and that
excess lactate sensitizes macrophages to become alternatively activated.

Elevated Lactate Negatively Regulates the Hematopoietic Bone Marrow
Microenvironment
Within the unique cancer microenvironment of the bone marrow in AML, we must consider how
excess lactate may affect hematopoiesis. As we have previously reported [82], the murine model
of bcCML presented *in vivo* with an increase in the percentage of phenotypic hematopoietic
stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs), also known as LSK cells, and multipotent progenitors
(MPP): megakaryocyte-biased MPP2, myeloid-biased MPP3, and lymphoid-primed MPP4

(**Supplementary Fig. 3A-F,** see **Supplementary Methods Table SM2** for markers and gating

strategies). Also as previously reported, MSCs were expanded within the leukemic bone [29], a

key cell type for the maintenance of HSPCs; this was nonspecific to MSC subsets known to be

important to HSC adhesion and self-renewal at the niche: PDGFRα/CD51 (PαV) or

PDGFRα$^+$Sca-1$^+$ (PαS) MSCs (**Supplementary Fig. 3G-I**) [83-85]. Still, mature blood cell

populations are lost by late-stage bcCML [82], showing a dysfunction in progenitor cell

maintenance and/or differentiation.

To determine if lactate reduces the hematopoietic potential of HSPCs, colony-forming

unit cell (CFU-C) assays [39, 40] were performed: HSPCs/LSKs from healthy mice were

cocultured *in vitro* with a stromal monolayer and added "LSK" cytokines to promote the

maintenance of stemness, and were treated experimentally. They are then passaged to

methylcellulose-based MethoCult media (StemCell Technologies M3434) where they will grow

as colonies (CFU-Cs) if they retain hematopoietic potential. The stromal monolayer is grown

from the adherent cells from whole BM, and is composed of both a small percentage of MSCs

(>1%, like the percentage seen in the bone *in vivo*), and macrophages (**Supplementary Fig.**

3J and **3K**). As we have previously reported that aged macrophages can alter the colony-

forming potential of HSPCs [85], we tested the addition of LAMs to the cocultures compared to

macrophages from NL mice (**Fig. 3A**). The HSPCs showed reduced CFU-Cs when cocultured

with LAMs (**Fig. 3B**), suggesting a difference in hematopoietic maintenance signals. To

determine if lactate has direct effects on HSPCs, CFU-C assays were performed on HSPCs

alone (without a stromal monolayer). When treated with 10-15 mmol/L of lactate, HSPCs lost

colony-forming potential after 48 or 72 hours (**Fig. 3C**). We asked if stromal cells could maintain

HSPCs in the presence of lactate, CFU-C assays with lactate treatment were repeated on

cocultures of HSPCs with a stromal monolayer, however, cocultures treated with lactate for 72

hours also showed reduced CFU-Cs (**Fig. 3E and 3F**), suggesting that stromal cells do not

protect HSPCs from elevated lactate.

Next, we asked how excess lactate alters key stromal HSC niche cell types: MSCs and

their bone-forming progeny, osteoblasts (OBs). Stromal cultures that were differentiated to OBs

in the presence of increased lactate produced fewer pre-OB and OB colonies (**Fig. 3F-H**). This

is consistent with a loss of functional OBs and bone volume that we have previously reported

as a pathophysiology of AML [38]. Without differentiation, lactate also reduced MSC colony-

forming ability to fibroblasts (CFU-F), a measure of MSC self-renewal potential, [36, 37] and

decreased cell number after two weeks in culture (**Fig. 3I-K**). These results highlight multiple

damaging effects of elevated lactate on critical components of hematopoiesis in the BM.

Lactate Signaling through GPR81 Contributes to the Suppressive Phenotype of Leukemia-Associated Macrophages

Lactate signals through multiple cellular pathways, therefore, we assessed which of these

pathways results in the observed lactate-mediated AML pathologies. To study this *in vivo*, we

considered the tools available: Genetic knockout of MCT1 is embryonically lethal [86], and while

MCT4 knockout mice are viable [87], MCT1 would be present which has a higher affinity for lactate

[88]. However, mice genetically lacking the lactate receptor GPR81 (*Gpr81*^{-/-} or GPR81KO) grow

to healthy adulthood, produce blood cells at a normal ratio (**Supplementary Fig. 4A-F**), have a

similar weight and BM cellular density as wt mice (**Supplementary Fig. 4G-J**), and GPR81 has

been implicated in the regulation of the cancer microenvironment in solid tumors. Therefore, we

used GPR81KO mice to investigate the role of lactate-GPR81 signaling. First, wild type (wt)

bcCML was initiated in GPR81KO mice to eliminate GPR81 signaling from all non-leukemic BM

cells (**Fig. 4A**). The metabolomics of the BM extracellular fluid presented with elevated

metabolites at similar levels to bcCML in wt mice (**Supplementary Fig. 4K**), which confirmed

that this may be useful to study GPR81 signaling in the BMME during bcCML.

We reinvestigated the polarization of LAMs observed during bcCML when initiated in the

GPR81KO BMME. The increased frequency of macrophages observed in bcCML was partially

reversed in GPR81KO mice (**Fig. 4B**). The LAMs in the GPR81KO BMME expressed lower

CD206 levels, nearer to macrophages of healthy NL control mice (**Fig. 4C** and **4D**), and the

frequency of MHCII[+] macrophages was higher (**Fig. 4E**). Other polarization markers were

increased or unchanged (**Supplementary Fig. 4L-P**). The GPR81KO mice displayed a similar

leukemic burden in the BM by the time of late-stage disease in wt mice, however, there was a

significant decrease in the frequency of leukemia cells in the peripheral blood and spleen

(**Supplementary Fig. 4Q-S**); this indicates a decrease in disease progression and/or a

reduction of peripheralization of leukemia cells.

Assays for BMDM polarization *in vitro* confirmed the contribution of GPR81 signaling as

a mechanism of LAM polarization; while they can be partially polarized, *Gpr81*^{-/-} BMDMs did not

upregulate CD206 as highly as wt BMDMs (**Fig. 4F** and **4G**) and had a reduced range of *Arg1*
expression (**Fig. 4H**). To assay an additional signaling mechanism of lactate, we used
syrosingopine as a dual inhibitor of MCT1/4 and observed a contribution of MCTs to polarization
(**Supplementary Fig. 4T-V**), showing that other cell-internal signaling mechanisms of lactate
also promote the alternative activation phenotype. Next, we checked expression levels of lactate
signaling-related receptors in response to lactate treatment. When wt BMDMs were polarized,
we observed an upregulation of *Mct1* mRNA expression (**Supplementary Fig. 4W** and **4X**),
while there was not a significant increase in transcription of *Gpr81*, or *Mct4* (**Supplementary**
Fig. 4Y and **4Z**). However, we did not observe significant transcriptional changes in the
expression of *Gpr81*, *Mct1*, *Mct4*, or *iNOS* upon the polarization of GPR81KO BMDMs
compared to wt BMDMs (**Supplementary Fig. 4AA**). Therefore, this suggests that, in
macrophages, GPR81 sensing of lactate induces upregulation of MCT1 for lactate
import/export.
322

GPR81-Lactate Signaling Has Modest Effects on the Hematopoietic BMME
Next, we investigated which hematopoietic populations are impacted by GPR81 signaling. The
frequencies of hematopoietic progenitor, MSC, osteoblastic cell, and mature blood cell
populations were generally unchanged when bcCML was initiated in GPR81KO mice compared
to wt (**Fig. 5 A-I** and **Supplementary Fig. 5A**). This data, together with the fact that
nonleukemic, adult *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* mice have appropriate ratios of mature blood cells, suggests that
GPR81 may be largely dispensable to hematopoiesis.
We assayed whether GPR81 signaling results in the observed lactate-mediated changes
to the colony-forming potential of HSPCs and MSCs. *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* HSPCs showed a trend towards
a reversal of CFU-C loss at 5-10 mmol/L lactate with or without a stromal monolayer, but
potentiality still was lost by 15 mmol/L (**Fig. 5J** and **5K**). Also, lactate-treated *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* MSCs still
displayed a loss of pre-OBs and fibroblastic colonies (**Fig. 5L** and **5M**). To note, we observed a
sex-dependent difference in CFU-F, where only MSCs from females were impacted by lactate
at 5-10 mmol/L (**Supplementary Fig. 5B** and **5C**). We then tested whether MCT1/4 signaling
is responsible for the losses at 15 mmol/L. First, treatment with syrosingopine at the 5 µM dose,
used for the macrophage polarization experiments, was lethal to the MSCs. Syrosingopine
treatments of 1 µM were not lethal, and caused a slight increase in CFU-F (**Supplemental Fig.**

5D). This demonstrates that MCT signaling is critical to MSC function; however, we note that
MCT inhibitors, if used therapeutically, may have effects on crucial MSC populations at lower
concentrations than to other cell types.

We assayed mRNA transcription levels of G*pr81* and *Mct1/4* by MSCs in response to
lactate treatment when GPR81 signaling is not present. *Gpr81*^{-/-} MSCs had a lower upregulation
of *Mct4* than wt MSCs, while *Mct1* and *Gpr81* expression were similar to wt (**Supplementary**
Fig. 5E-G). Therefore, in MSCs, GPR81 may act as a lactate-sensor to regulate MCT-mediated
import/export of lactate; we hypothesize that this method of regulating intracellular lactate
concentration thereby influences the metabolic pathway primarily used by the cell (namely,
oxidative phosphorylation or glycolysis), which are known to influence the osteoblastic
differentiation fate of MSCs [89]. Altogether, these data show that GPR81 signaling has a modest
impact on hematopoietic cell types and MSCs, therefore, it may be possible to therapeutically
target lactate signaling in the BMME through this receptor with minimal consequences on
hematopoiesis; However, this will not protect the colony-forming potential of HSPCs and MSCs
from high lactate concentrations in bone.

Lactate-GPR81 Signaling Drives Leukemia Cell Growth and Repopulation
We hypothesized that BMME lactate also directly affects AML cells, as other cancer types have
found GPR81 signaling to promote growth, chemoresistance, and metastasis [52-54, 56]. To
determine if lactate enhances leukemia cell growth, *Gpr81*^{-/-} bcCML cells were generated; these
were then used to initiate disease either in wt mice, or in GPR81KO mice (double-knockout
(DKO)) where GPR81 signaling is not present both on leukemic cells or in the BMME (**Fig. 6A**).
When GPR81KO bcCML cells were used, the leukemic burden was then largely reduced in the
BM, peripheral blood, and spleen of by the time point of late-stage disease in wt bcCML controls
(**Fig. 6B-D**). This may be attributed to the delayed rapid expansion of engrafted cells when
GPR81KO bcCML cells were used; leukemic burden was near zero at the time-point of early-
stage disease using wt bcCML cells (**Fig. 6E-H**). This led to an increased time to progression
to >50% leukemic cells in the BM in GPR81 DKO bcCML compared to wt (**Fig. 6I**). This data
suggests that leukemia cell GPR81 signaling impacts the rate of leukemia progression.

To verify the relevance of GPR81 signaling on human AML cells, analyses of publically
available databases were performed. First, 163 AML patient BM samples, from The Cancer

Genome Atlas (TCGA) Pan-Cancer Atlas database, were analyzed through cBioPortal for

Cancer Genomics (accessed at cbioportal.org) [90]. This dataset shows a rare subset of AML

patient samples with "altered"/high GPR81 (HCAR1) mRNA expression, and these patients

had a median survival time of 11 months less than those with "unaltered" HCAR1 (5.03 vs

16.08 months) (**Supplementary Fig. 6A**). No gene mutations or structural variants of HCAR1

were detected in AML subjects from TCGA datasets. This suggests that mutant HCAR1 is not

a contributor to AML transformation, but that dysregulation of HCAR1 expression may impact

prognosis. Analysis of another dataset of BM from 707 AML patients, BeatAML 2.0 (accessed

at vizome.org) [91], revealed that HCAR1 has a wider range of expression in tumor samples

than in healthy BM (**Supplementary Fig. 6B**), and correlates with disease state

(**Supplementary Fig. 6C**), where it is more dysregulated during initial diagnosis and relapse

than during remission. There are also trends towards higher HCAR1 expression when patients

had a lower survival time (**Supplementary Fig. 6D**). Together this expression data suggests

that GPR81/HCAR1 expression is more dysregulated in the BMME during AML, however, it is

not highly upregulated, and so suggests that the activity level of the receptor on the AML cells

may be more impactful than the change in expression level.

Finally, as residual leukemic stem cells (LSCs) after chemotherapy are the primary

reason for relapse in patients [34, 35], we determined the importance of GPR81 signaling to LSC

potential through serial passaging in methylcellulose-containing media. The *Gpr81*^{-/-} bcCML

cells produced fewer colonies on average at P0 and P1 and lost repopulating capacity by P2-

P3, while wt bcCML cells continue to repopulate colonies to at least P7, suggesting that GPR81

is critical to LSC capacity (**Fig. 6J** and **6K**, and **Supplementary Fig 6E**). Together, these data

display the importance of GPR81 signaling to the rapid growth and repopulation of leukemia

cells.

DISCUSSION

In this research, we observe elevated levels of metabolites in the BMME during AML,

defining excess lactate as a critical driver of AML-induced BMME dysfunction and leukemia

progression. We identified lactate-GPR81 signaling as contributing to disease phenotypes of

leukemia-associated macrophages (LAMs) and AML cells. Therefore, our results highlight the

potential of GPR81 as a novel therapeutic target for both the leukemic suppression of the
immune system and AML self-repopulation.

We report a global elevation of extracellular metabolites in the BMME during AML (**Fig.**
1). An amino acid-rich leukemic microenvironment was observed, in contrast to a nutrient and
amino-acid-starved tumor microenvironment reported in most solid cancers [37]. This
distinguishes the leukemic BMME as a unique cancer microenvironment in need of further
investigation. It will be useful to study how leukemia cells and BM cells utilize these metabolites,
as they may act as signaling molecules or metabolic fuels. Notably, as lactate production is a
hallmark of cancer, findings on the mechanisms of lactate signaling to the immune system and
hematopoietic cells within the BMME are potentially applicable to multiple malignancies with
BM involvement, including additional types of leukemia as well as bone metastases of solid
tumors.

We demonstrate that GPR81 signaling promotes the alternative CD206^{hi} phenotype
observed in LAMs (**Fig. 2** and **Fig. 4**), which has been previously reported as a marker of
suppressive TAMs [92]. Additionally, this research identifies CD206 as a novel marker of LAMs
that is unique to non-leukemia-derived macrophages. AML cells display many myeloid and
macrophage markers, making them previously difficult to isolate from macrophages in the
human setting; therefore, CD206 may be useful to distinguish LAMs from myeloid leukemia
cells in patients. Furthermore, CD206 has been recently suggested as a prognostic factor for
AML [93], and is induced on monocytes cocultured with AML blasts [69]; these findings alongside
our research suggest that polarization of LAMs is due to AML cell secretion of lactate, and may
explain why this marker correlates with prognosis. It will be important to determine how GPR81
signaling interplays with additional signaling pathways to induce macrophage activation, such
as low pH, which has been indicated in the cooperation of lactic acid signaling with GM-CSF in
the polarization of breast cancer tumor-associated macrophages [94].

LAMs have an altered transcriptome; the upregulated transcripts, as well as the cytokine
release profile, suggest that they are functionally interacting with immune populations such as
T cells, and secreting cytokines that have been attributed to immunosuppression, HSC
development/mobilization, and tumor growth/metastasis [73, 74] (**Fig. 2** and **Supplementary Fig.**
2). This suggests a role of LAMs in the immune-privileged BMME known to occur in AML [69],
which gives benefit to leukemia progression and is partially responsible for the difficulties in

applying immunotherapies. More research is needed to determine if these cytokines influence the BMME through similar mechanisms and cell types as has been found in solid tumors. Furthermore, alternatively activated macrophages have been reported to induce chemotaxis/differentiation of regulatory T cells (Tregs) which further the pro-tumor microenvironment [76, 95, 96], and are inhibitory to T cells that would recognize tumor antigens [97]. For example, in a breast cancer model, GPR81 signaling in the microenvironment suppressed MHCII^{hi} immune cells and tumor-infiltrating T-cells, and GPR81 on tumor cells induced their expression of PD-L1 inhibitory to antigen presentation [56]. Further research is needed to determine if upregulated GPR81 signaling, directly and/or through altered antigen presentation by macrophages, leads to such anti-lytic interactions between T cell populations and AML cells. The repolarization of macrophages away from a suppressive phenotype by inhibition of GPR81 may have potential in combination with current chemotherapies, or to increase the efficacy of immunotherapies, such as CAR-T cell therapy.

As AML progresses, cytopenia occurs as normal hematopoiesis is lost, secondary to alterations to the BMME, thereby leading to fatal complications of the disease. This lactate-high environment contributes to the loss of hematopoietic potential due to direct action on HSPCs, as well as through alternative polarization of macrophages (**Fig. 3**). Lactate also reduces hematopoietic support by critical HSC niche populations; stromal cells are impeded by higher levels of lactate, leading to loss of growth and differentiation to osteoblasts (**Fig. 3**). Others have found that lactate impedes osteogenic but not adipogenic differentiation of MSCs [98], suggesting a possible role of lactate in the increased adipocytic BM that contributes to a pro-tumoral BMME in AML [99].

Targeting lactate export through MCT inhibitors, and intracellular acidification, show promising results as a target for the therapeutic inhibition of AML cells [100, 101]; however, the implications for hematopoietic support populations within the BMME are unknown. The lethal sensitivity that MSCs displayed experimentally to MCT inhibitors in this research raises concern for targeting this pathway therapeutically. Furthermore, prior research in the field has attempted to target various components of metabolic processes, such as lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), for the treatment of AML cells but found that it also impaired normal hematopoiesis under stress [42]. This highlights the need for a therapeutic option that can selectively diminish the function of AML cells while having modest, or indeed, positive effects on the non-malignant hematopoietic

and BM support populations. The experimental removal of GPR81 described herein does not
negatively affect non-malignant populations, while partially rescuing the BMME (**Fig. 5**).

Relapse following chemotherapy is one of the greatest hurdles in treating AML. Our
results suggest that inhibition of GPR81 may be a viable strategy to prevent the repopulation of
AML cells following treatment; autocrine lactate signaling through GPR81 has been described
in solid tumors, and we find it as a critical receptor to bcCML cells for disease kinetics and
repopulating ability (**Fig. 6**). The signaling pathways downstream of GPR81 are numerous, and
multiple pathways have been investigated in cancer cell metabolism, DNA repair, and
chemoresistance [52-54]. Defining the signaling pathways downstream of GPR81 in AML and other
hematopoietic malignancies is promising for the identification of additional mechanisms to target
LSCs in the BM. Lastly, the development of a selective molecule to this receptor is strongly
supported by our findings, as there is currently no selective GPR81 antagonist available. In
conclusion, this research suggests that targeting GPR81 signaling in the BMME during AML
may be a selective and well-tolerated therapeutic option to prevent LSC repopulation and
rescue microenvironmental dysfunction.

METHODS

Human Bone Marrow Extracellular Fluid Collection
Deidentified bone marrow aspirates were collected from patients, and immediately centrifuged
to pellet cells. Following separation, the supernatant was stored at -80C until use.

Murine Strains and Disease Models
All murine experiments were performed using male and female wild type C57BL/6J mice or
Gpr81^{-/-} mice on the same background. Experiments were performed using the following
murine model of AML: A previously established model of blast crisis chronic myelogenous
leukemia (bcCML) [29, 66, 82], an acutely progressing malignancy resulting in the accumulation of
myeloid blasts in the BM. For more information on murine strains and disease model
generation, see **Supplementary Methods**.

Macrophage Polarization Experiments

Treatment groups were serum-starved for 6 hours before treatment (DMEM, anti-anti, and M-

CSF without htFBS), and treatment conditions (100 ng/mL lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from E.

coli O55:B5 (Sigma L6529), or 5 ng/mL of recombinant murine interleukin (IL) -4 and -13 (IL-4,

IL-13) (ILs) (PeproTech 214-14, 210-13), were added to the serum-free media. To remove

cells for flow analysis, 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (Gibco 25200056) was added for 5 min then cell

scrapers were used to dislodge cells. Additional syrosingopine (Sigma SML 1908

resuspended in DMSO) treatments were done at 5 μM. To determine if this polarization is

reversible, we treated BMDMs with the polarization stimuli for 24 hours, then changed to fresh

media and cultured for one week. Stromal monolayer polarization was done similarly to

BMDM polarization, with 5 ng/mL of ILs and 10 mmol/L of lactate.

Colony Forming Units (CFU-C) Assays for HSPC Potential

To plate cells for CFU-Cs, all cells were collected from the wells by collecting the media with

non-adherent cells in a 15 mL conical tube, and then using 0.25% trypsin-EDTA on the

adherent cells for five minutes then flushing the wells with fresh MEM α and adding it to the

tube. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation for five minutes at 900 x g. Then, cells were

resuspended in 0.5 mL of MEM α. From here, both 1:20 and 1:100 dilutions were made in 2.5

mL of media in separate Eppendorf tubes. Then, 0.2 mL of these dilutions were resuspended

each in 2.5 mL aliquots of MethoCult (StemCell Technologies M3434) methylcellulose-

containing media and immediately plated in duplicates of 1.2 mL into 35mm x 10mm sterile

suspension culture dishes (Corning 430588). These were placed inside a sterile 150 mm x 25

mm dish (NEST 715001), with one open dish of sterile dH_2O in the center to retain humidity

and prevent drying of the cultures. These were incubated for 10-14 days (5% CO_2; 37C), then

colonies were counted using a microscope. For a description of experimental conditions see

Supplementary Methods.

Leukemia Stem Cell (LSC) Assay

Doubly-transfected (GFP[+], YFP^{+}) bcCML cells were sorted by FACS from the wt or $Gpr81^{-/-}$

bcCML primary spleen cell frozen stocks. Cells were plated at passage 0 (P0) in MethoCult as

described in CFU-C assays. After 10-14 days, four well-established colonies were picked,

resuspended in 200 μl of media, and replated at two dilutions. This continued until colonies

did not appear, or the seventh passage (P7) was reached.

Rigor and Statistical Analysis

All human and mouse samples were age- and sex-matched to control samples. Experiments

were replicated at least three times. Sample size analyses have been performed on all

preliminary data to ensure that subsequent repetitions were appropriately powered. Statistical

analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 10 software.

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Tables

Table 1

Compound	t Stat	p Value	-log10(p)	FDR
lactate	5.86	2.66E-06	5.58	9.04E-05
serine	5.19	1.63E-05	4.79	0.00028
ribose-phosphate	4.37	0.00015	3.82	0.0016
citrulline	-4.29	0.00019	3.72	0.0016
DHAP	4.13	0.00029	3.54	0.0020
ornithine	3.84	0.00064	3.19	0.0037
phenylalanine	3.57	0.0013	2.88	0.0065
lysine	3.01	0.0054	2.26	0.023
glycine	2.88	0.0074	2.13	0.028

Table 1: Altered Extracellular Metabolites in Human AML Bone Marrow

Table 2

Cytokine	Reported Functions
CXCL10/IP-10	Immunosuppressive Tumor Microenvironment
LIX (CXCL5)	Tumor Growth and Metastasis
CCL12 (MCP-5)	HSC Regulation and Homing
CCL6/C10 (MRP-1)	Immunosuppressive Tumor Microenvironment
MMP3	Tumor Growth and Metastasis
Proprotein Convertase 9	Tumor Growth and Metastasis

Table 2: Cytokines Upregulated in LAM Cocultures and Reported Functions in the BM or Cancer Progression

Figure Legends

Fig. 1) Lactate is elevated in the bone marrow microenvironment (BMME) during acute myeloid leukemia (AML).

A, Graphical description of the process for metabolomic analysis of human AML vs. normal control BM extracellular fluid. **B,** Heatmap showing the relative abundance of detectable metabolites in human BM extracellular fluid of AML patients vs. controls (n = 5, in triplicates). **C,** Graphical depiction of the procedure for the generation of leukemic cells and initiation of bcCML, a murine AML model. **D,** Heatmap showing the relative abundance of detectable metabolites in murine bcCML vs. healthy BM extracellular fluid (n = 4, in triplicates). **E,** Absolute lactate concentration in AML and control human BM extracellular fluid (n = 5). **F** and **G,** Mass spectrometry (MS) peak intensity of lactate in murine (**F**) and human (**G**) BM extracellular fluid. Significance levels determined by unpaired t test for **E** is indicated as *, $P < 0.05$. Error bar indicates mean ± standard deviation (SD).

Fig. 2) Lactate contributes to the polarization of leukemia-associated macrophage (LAMs) to an alternatively activated phenotype.

A, Gating scheme for flow cytometric analysis of murine BM macrophages. **B,** Simplified Presentation of Incredibly Complex Evaluations (SPICE) analysis of LAM subpopulations from late-stage bcCML (55-70% GFP$^+$ cells in BM) (n = 5), red arrows indicate populations lost and black arrow indicate populations enriched in disease. **C** and **D,** Frequency of CD206^{hi} (**C**) and mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CD206 on CD206$^+$ (**D**) non-leukemic control macrophages (Ctrl), leukemia-associated macrophages (LAMs), or leukemic (GFP$^+$) macrophages (n = 7). **E-F,** Bulk RNA sequencing of LAMs vs. macrophages from nonleukemic (NL) controls: heatmap of differentially expressed genes (**E**) and principal component analysis (PCA) of the top 500 variable genes (**F**). **G,** Cytokine profiling by ELISA of cell culture supernatant from NL macrophages or LAMs cocultured on a BM stromal monolayer (n = 2), representative example, arrows shown indicating a qualitative difference. **H** and **I,** Bone marrow-derived macrophage (BMDM) expression of CD206, polarized *in vitro* by treatment with 10 mmol/L lactate, lipopolysaccharide (LPS) as proinflammatory stimuli, and/or IL-4 and IL-13 as suppressive stimuli, in serum-free media for 12 hours (**H**) (n = 6) or 1 week (**I**) (n = 3). **J,** Range of relative quantification (RQ) of Arginase 1 (*Arg1*) transcripts in BMDMs polarized by lactate (L) and/or

IL-4 and -13 (ILs), measured by RT-qPCR (n = 3, in duplicates). Significance levels determined by one-way ANOVA for **C, D, H,** and **I** are indicated as: *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$. Error bar indicates mean ± SD.

Fig. 3) Lactate drives loss of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell (HSPC) function and support.

A, Experimental procedure to assay for HSPC hematopoietic colony-forming potential, by colony-forming unit cell (CFU-C) assays: Murine HSPCs/LSKs are cocultured with a BM stromal monolayer and 60,000 added macrophages. **B,** CFU-Cs after coculture with LAMs or nonleukemic control (Ctrl) macrophages (n = 4). **C,** CFU-C of HSPCs alone, with or without added lactate for 48 hours (**C**) (n = 4). **D-E,** CFU-C assays of HSPCs and stromal monolayer cocultures for 72 hours with or without added lactate: CFU-Cs relative to the 0 mmol/L lactate control group (**D**) (n = 12-14) and graphic of experimental procedure (**E**). **F-H,** BM MSC differentiation to osteoblasts (OBs) with or without lactate treatment: relative area of colony-forming unit pre-osteoblastic (CFU-preOB) colonies visualized with alkaline phosphatase staining at day 14 (**F**) (n = 6), relative area of calcium deposition measured by silver nitrate staining at day 28 (**G**) (n = 6), representative image of Pre-OB colonies (**H**). **I-K,** Lactate treatment of MSCs grown in a non-differentiation culture media: representative image of colony-forming unit fibroblasts (CFU-F) (**I**) and relative number of colonies on day 10 (**J**) (n = 6), relative cell number of whole BM MSCs by day 14 (**K**) (n = 6). Significance levels determined by unpaired t test for **B** and by one-way ANOVA for **C**, **F-G**, and **J-K** are indicated as: *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$. Error bar indicates mean ± SD.

Fig. 4) GPR81 drives leukemia-associated macrophage (LAM) polarization.

A, Graphical depiction of the procedure for the initiation of wt bcCML in a *Gpr81*^{-/-} BMME **B,** Frequency of macrophages, out of live non-leukemic (GFP^{-}) cells, from the BM of wt bcCML initiated in wt or *Gpr81*^{-/-} (GPR81KO) mice, relative to nonleukemic (NL) controls of the same genetic background (n = 4-7). **C-E,** Marker expression on BM LAMs of wt bcCML initiated in wt or *Gpr81*^{-/-} (GPR81KO) mice, or NL controls: Frequency of CD206^{+} macrophages in the BM (**C**), expression of CD206 on CD206^{+} BM macrophages relative to relative to NL controls of the same genetic background (**D**), frequency of MHCII^{+} BM macrophages (**E**) (n = 4-11). **F,** MFI of

CD206 on CD206$^+$ wt or *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* BMDMs polarized by LPS, IL-4 and -13 (ILs), and/or 10 mmol/L lactate (n = 3). **G,** Frequency of CD206^{hi} wt or GPR81$^{-/-}$ BMDMs with or without polarization by ILs and lactate. **H,** Range of relative quantification (RQ) of *Arg1* expression by wt or GPR81KO BMDMs polarized by IL-4 and -13 (ILs) with or without lactate, measured by RT-qPCR (n = 3, in duplicates). Significance levels determined by one-way ANOVA for **B-G** are indicated as: ns, not significant; *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$. Error bar indicates mean ± SD.

Fig. 5) GPR81 signaling partially regulates HSPC function.

A-F, Hematopoietic progenitors' frequency in the BM of wt bcCML initiated in wt or GPR81KO mice, relative to the nonleukemic (NL) control of the same genetic background: hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs/LSK) (**A**), long-term hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) (**B**), short-term HSC (**C**), multipotent progenitor (MPP) subsets MPP2 (**D**) MPP3 (**E**) and MPP4 (**F**) (n = 4). **G-I,** Mesenchymal stem cell (MSC) populations in bone: MSCs (**G**), PααV MSCs (**H**), and PαS MSCs (**I**) (n = 4). **J-K,** CFU-Cs of wt or *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* (G$^-$) lactate-treated HSPCs alone (**J**) or with a stromal monolayer (**K**), relative to 0 mmol/L lactate (n = 4-8). **L-M,** CFU-preOB (**L**) and CFU-F (**M**) of wt or *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* MSCs with lactate treatment, relative to the 0 mmol/L lactate control of the same genetic background. Significance levels determined by one-way ANOVA for all are indicated as: ns, not significant; *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$. Error bar indicates mean ± SD.

Fig. 6) GPR81 signaling is a driver of leukemia cell growth and leukemia stem cell (LSC) self-renewal.

A, Graphical depiction of the procedure for the initiation of *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* (GPR81KO) bcCML cells in wt or GPR81KO mice (GPR81 DKO). **B-D,** Leukemic burden in the bone marrow (BM) (**B**), peripheral blood (**C**), and spleen (**D**), of wt or GPR81KO bcCML initiated in wt mice, by the timepoint of wt late-stage disease (n = 5). **E-G,** Leukemic burden in the BM (**E**), peripheral blood (**F**), and spleen (**G**) at the time of wt bcCML early-stage disease, initiated using wt or GPR81KO bcCML cells in wt or GPR81KO mice (n = 4). **H,** Leukemic burden in the BM over time of wt or GPR81KO bcCML (n = 5-7). **I,** Time to progression to late-stage disease in wt or GPR81 DKO bcCML (n = 5). **J-K,** LSC repopulation assays of wt vs. *Gpr81$^{-/-}$* bcCML cells: number of colonies

at each passage (**J**)**,** and probability of survival by passage (**K**) (n = 3, in duplicates). Significance levels determined by one-way ANOVA for **B-G,** unpaired t tests for **H**, and log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test for **I** and **K**, are indicated as: ns, not significant; *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$. Error bar indicates mean ± SD.

Fig. 1)

Fig. 2)

A) Bone Marrow Cells → Live (DAPI⁻) → Nonleukemic (GFP⁻) → Macrophages (CD45⁺, F4/80⁺, Ly-6C⁻, Ly-6G⁻) → Activation Markers

B) SPICE Analysis of Macrophages

Ctrl   LAMs

Population #	CD38	CD206	EGR2	Ly6c	Ly6g	MHCII
1	+	+	-	-	-	+
2	+	+	-	-	-	+
3	-	+	+	-	-	+
4	-	+	-	-	-	+
5	-	+	-	-	-	-
6	-	+	-	-	+	+
7	-	+	-	+	-	+
8	-	+	-	+	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	+
10	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	+	+
12	-	-	-	-	+	-
13	-	-	-	+	-	+
14	-	+	-	+	-	-
15	-	-	-	+	+	+
16	-	-	-	+	+	-

C) CD206ʰⁱ — Percent — Ctrl, LAMs, GFP+ — ***

D) CD206⁺ — Fold Change MFI — Ctrl, LAMs, GFP+ — ****

E) LAM vs NL Heatmap

F) PCA Plot- Top 500 Variable Genes — a LAM, a NL

G) Nonleukemic / LAMs

H) CD2... — Fold Change MFI — wt ctrl, wt LPS, wt lactate 10 mmol/L, wt IL-4 + IL-13, wt lactate + ILs — *, **, *

J) Arg1 — RQ vs Hours — wt BMDM ctrl, wt BMDM L, wt BMDM ILs, wt BMDM L+ILs

Fig. 3)

Fig. 4)

A) Inject 10,000 1° wt bcCML Spleen Cells

2° Non-irradiated **GPR81KO** Recipient Develops bcCML

B) % Macrophages

C) CD206+

D) CD206+

E) MHCII+

F) CD206+

G) CD206hi

H) Arg1

Fig. 5)

Fig. 6)

A)

Leukemic Genes
BCR-ABL-GFP
NUP98-HOXA9-YFP

Retroviral Transfection
of **GPR81KO** HSPCs

Liquid Nitrogen
Storage

Inject 10,000 Primary
bcCML Spleen Cells

1° Irradiated wt Recipient,
Harvest Spleen at 50%
GFP⁺ Cells in Blood

2° Non-irradiated
wt or GPR81KO
Recipient
Develops bcCML

B) Late-Stage BM

Percent Leukemic vs NL ctrl, wt bcCML, GPR81KO bcCML
ns; ****; ****

C) Late-Stage Blood

Percent Leukemic vs NL ctrl, wt bcCML, GPR81KO bcCML
ns; **; *

D) Late-Stage Spleen

Percent Leukemic vs NL ctrl, wt bcCML, GPR81KO bcCML
; **; **

E) Early-Stage BM

Percent Leukemic vs wt NL, GPR81KO NL, wt mice wt bcCML, GPR81KO mice wt bcCML, wt mice GPR81KO bcCML, GPR81 DKO
; **; ns

F) Early-Stage Blood

Percent Leukemic vs wt NL, GPR81KO NL, wt mice wt bcCML, GPR81KO mice wt bcCML, wt mice GPR81KO bcCML, GPR81 DKO
ns; ns; ns

G) Early-Stage Spleen

Percent Leukemic vs wt NL, GPR81KO NL, wt mice wt bcCML, GPR81KO mice wt bcCML, wt mice GPR81KO bcCML, GPR81 DKO
; *; ns

H) Leukemic Burden in BM

Percent vs Days Elapsed
wt bcCML
GPR81KO bcCML
; *

I) Time to Progression of bcCML

Probability of Survival vs Days Elapsed
wt
GPR81 DKO
*

J) LSC

Colonies vs Passage
wt bcCML
GPR81-/- bcCML

K) Survival: LSC

Probability of Survival vs Passage
wt bcCML
GPR81-/- bcCML
*