A 'one-two punch' therapy strategy to target chemoresistance in ER+ breast cancer

Feng Chi[1], Jiayi Liu[2], Samuel W. Brady[3], Patrick A. Cosgrove[1], Aritro Nath[1], Jasmine A. McQuerry[1, 3 4], Sumana Majumdar[1], Philip J. Moos[4], Jeffrey T. Chang[2], Michael Kahn[5], Andrea H.Bild[1*]

[1] Department of Medical Oncology & Therapeutics Research, City of Hope National Medical Center, 1500 East Duarte Road, Duarte, CA 91010, USA.

[2] Department of Integrative Biology and Pharmacology, School of Medicine, School of Biomedical Informatics, UT Health Sciences Center at Houston, Houston, TX 77030, USA.

3 Department of Oncological Sciences, School of Medicine, University of Utah, 2000 Circle of Hope Drive, Salt Lake City, UT 84112, USA.

[4] Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, College of Pharmacy, University of Utah, 30 South 2000 East, Salt Lake City, UT 84112, USA.

[5] Department of Molecular Medicine, City of Hope National Medical Center, 1500 East Duarte Road, Duarte, CA 91010, USA.

*Corresponding Authors: Andrea Bild, Ph.D.

Professor

Department of Medical Oncology and Therapeutics

City of Hope Comprehensive Cancer Institute

1218 S Fifth Ave, Monrovia, CA 91016

Email: abild@coh.org

Short Title: A 'one-two punch' therapy strategy to halt resistance

Abstract

Cancer cell phenotypes evolve during a tumor's treatment. In some cases, tumor cells acquire cancer stem

cell-like (CSL) traits such as resistance to chemotherapy and diminished differentiation; therefore,

targeting these cells may be therapeutically beneficial. In this study, we show that in progressive estrogen

receptor positive (ER+) metastatic breast cancer patients, resistant tumor subclones that emerge following

chemotherapy have increased CSL abundance. Further, in vitro organoid growth of ER+ patient cancer

cells also shows that chemotherapy treatment leads to increased abundance of ALDH+/CD44+ CSL cells.

Chemotherapy induced CSL abundance is blocked by treatment with an HDAC inhibitor, belinostat.

Further, belinostat treatment diminished both mammosphere formation and size following chemotherapy,

also indicating a decrease in progenitor CSL traits. Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis with patient

samples showed that HDAC targets and MYC signaling were promoted by chemotherapy and inhibited

upon belinostat treatment. These findings indicate that HDAC inhibition can block chemotherapy-induced

drug resistant phenotypes with 'one-two punch' strategy in refractory breast cancer cells.

Keywords: CSL, ALDH, CD44, chemotherapy, single-cell RNA-seq, HDAC, belinostat, MYC,

chemoresistance

Introdution

Breast cancer is the most frequently diagnosed and second leading cause of cancer-related deaths

in women (1). Chemotherapy kills cancer cells by inducing apoptosis through DNA damage and/or

mitotic division inhibition (2). Chemotherapeutics are often standard of care in clinical oncology because

of their effectiveness in reducing tumor burden and improving survival (3). Nevertheless, some patients

will recur with metastatic progression, which has a 90% of cancer mortality (4), resulting in a 23% 5-year

survival rate for these breast cancer patients (1).

Tumors are composed of heterogeneous populations of cells, thought to have a hierarchical

organization driven by cancer stem cells (CSCs). CSCs are a small therapy-resistant sub-population of

cells within tumors that possess the capacity of self-renewal and are capable of promoting a refractory

state in patients following drug treatment (5). These CSCs can initiate a new primary tumor, bear an

inherent resistance to chemotherapeutic drugs, and contribute to recurrent disease (6). Breast CSCs

(BCSCs) exhibit a CD44 high/CD24 low phenotype with high ALDH1 expression (ALDH1+) (7). Tumor

cells can also acquire stem cell like characteristics, such as expression of progenitor markers and drug

resistance. These cells may represent a de-differentiated state similar to CSCs and reflect a more primitive

tumor cell progenitor (8).

Based on the mechanisms of action, chemotherapies could be divided into at least three major

groups: antimetabolites; genotoxic agents (eg. doxorubicin serving as alkylating agent, which inhibits

DNA topoisomerase II and induces DNA damage and apoptosis; carboplatin serving as intercalating

agent, which binds in the grooves in the DNA helix and interfering with polymerase activity during

replication/transcription); and mitotic spindle inhibitors (eg. paclitaxel, which disrupts mitosis by

affecting the formation/function of spindle microtubule fibers required for chromosome alignment) (9).

Some resistance mechanisms have been described for these chemotherapies. For example,

chemoresistance can be acquired by altered membrane transport through ABCB1 (P-gp or MDR1) for

doxorubicin and paclitaxel (9), and enhanced DNA repair through increased level of excision repair cross-

complementing protein (ERCC1) for carboplatin (10). Current chemotherapeutic regimens target the bulk

of the tumor cells and may benefit from also targeting resistant cells, such as cancer stem cells (CSC) or

cancer cells that have stem-like traits such as drug resistance or de-differentiated states (11). Failure to

eliminate these cells can lead to drug resistance, subsequent recurrence and metastasis (12), suggesting

that targeting these populations may be necessary to improve outcomes (5, 13). Multiple strategies have

been proposed to combat CSCs; however, clinical implementation has remained elusive (7, 14). A

strategy combining conventional cytotoxic chemotherapy and anti-CSC compounds could increase

efficacy in reducing the risk of breast cancer relapse and metastasis (7). The drug-tolerant phenotype

within a small subpopulation of cancer cells have been found transiently acquired and reversible, which

could be selectively ablated by chromatin-modifying agents, such as HDAC inhibitor, suggesting a

potential therapeutic opportunity with 'one-two punch' strategy (15).

Single-cell sequencing techniques have been leveraged to identify resistant cancer evolution upon

chemotherapy treatment (16-19). Previously, we performed whole-genome sequencing (WGS) and single-

cell RNA-Seq (scRNA-Seq) on four patients' matched pre-treatment (chemo-sensitive) and post-

treatment (chemo-resistant) samples to investigate the mechanisms of acquired chemotherapy resistance

in breast cancer. Three of four patients demonstrated increased post-treatment stem cell-like and

mesenchymal properties, which may have promoted acquired drug resistance in these patients (19). Based

on this data, we sought to understand how multiple different chemotherapies impact CSL state and

determine therapy approaches to prevent emergence of CSL cells. Here, we find that chemotherapies with

different mechanisms of action can select for subclones with primitive traits through transcriptional

changes. Belinostat, an HDAC inhibitor, was found to prevent this selection and reverse CSL therapy

resistance signaling, such as signaling in MYC and dedifferentiation pathways.

In total, this research provides the following unique findings: 1) a novel one-two, chemo-

belinostat combination therapy strategy to target chemo-treatment acquired stemness, 2) the ability of

belinostat to serve as a common anti-CSL inhibitor following multiple chemotherapies, 3) the specificity

of HDAC inhibitors to target the stemness phenotypic shift and not just a change in tumor cell viability

and/or apoptosis, 4) the use of patient tumor samples to validate that stemness enrichment in subclonal

populations of patients is linked to their survival during chemotherapy, and 5) an understanding of the

transcriptional changes in single tumor cells upon CSL phenotype reversal. Taken together, these findings

could help to build a new strategy consisting of sequential chemotherapy and HDAC inhibitor

combination treatment to combat refractory breast cancer.

Results

Resistant subclones are enriched in CSL cells

To test how chemotherapy selects for resistant cell traits, we studied CSL characteristics in tumor

subclones prior to treatment using four breast cancer patients using copy-number variations (CNV) from

WGS (19). Importantly, while challenging, these studies leverage actual patient tumor phenotype and

subclonal evolution during long courses of treatment, for which in vitro work is no substitute. The

treatment history for these four ER+ patients and the time points at which analysis was performed are

shown in Fig. S1A. To obtain CSL and non-CSL populations, tumor cells collected from each patient

were sorted for ALDH and CD44 expression, and cells were isolated to four quadrants (ALDH+/CD44+

CSL cells, ALDH+/CD44- cells, ALDH-/CD44+ cells, and ALDH-/CD44- cells) (Fig. S1B). We defined

the CSL population as ALDH+/CD44+ cells (20). DNA from cells belonging to each of these quadrants

was isolated and subjected to low-coverage WGS (2X to 10X) in order to infer copy number variants

(CNVs) and determine the prevalence of each subclonal CNV in each cancer stem population (see Fig.

S1C). The evolution of subclones is shown in Fig. S1D, E, F, G and described in the Methods. We

identified subclone-specific CNVs in each patient at each time point, and then assessed each subclone for

the presence of CSL vs. non-CSL populations to determine whether subclones that survive chemotherapy

and are also present at time of recurrence had increased numbers of CSL cells. In two of four patients that

are progressing on chemotherapy (Patient#1 and Patient#2), the tumor subclone that survives treatment

and becomes resistant to chemotherapy has increased CSL abundance compared to other non-resistant

subclones (Fig. 1A), suggesting genetic selection can enrich CSL cells in post-treatment resistant

subclones in ER+ breast cancer. This result supports our published research showing that patients treated

over years of treatments show enrichment in stemness phenotypes (19).

Chemotherapy-induced feedback increases CSL traits in patient tumor cells

Our previous research demonstrates increased post-treatment stem cell-like properties in three of

four patients, including the Patient#1 and Patient#2 used in this work (19). These findings indicate that

the increase in post-treatment CSL cell abundance may be due to chemotherapy-induced feedback. To test

this hypothesis, we again use patient cancer cells obtain from malignant pleural effusions or ascites, as

these samples may best reflect physiologically relevant phenotypes and signaling changes during drug

treatment. These samples were treated with three different chemotherapies of various mechanisms of

action (doxorubicin, carboplatin, and paclitaxel) for 72 hours, followed by flow cytometry to measure the

CSL abundance using the FACS gating strategy shown in Fig. S2A. Five ER+, PR+, Her2- and three

TNBC (triple-negative breast cancer) patient tumor samples were used to test if chemotherapy could

induce CSL cells. Doxorubicin, carboplatin, and paclitaxel were used to treat the patient cultures in 3D

organoids at indicated doses. In the five ER+ patient cultures (Patient##5, Patient#6, Patient#7, Patient#8,

and Patient#9), all three chemotherapies increased the proportion of ALDH+/CD44+ CSL cells versus

live cells (CSL cells/Live) (Fig. 1B). This was confirmed with ALDH+/CD44+ CSL cells versus total

cells (CSL cells/Total) (Fig. S2B), although the CSL cells versus live cells and versus total cells were

reduced by carboplatin in Patient#6. Interestingly, for three TNBC patient samples, the mean values of

ALDH, the ALDH+/CD44+ CSL cells versus live cells and total cells were generally decreased. These

results suggest that there is heterogeneity in how chemotherapy impacts CSL state. Further, the results

from patient tumor cells show that chemotherapy induces CSL traits in ER+ breast cancer.

Chemotherapy-induced CSL states are recapitulated in breast cancer cell lines

Chemotherapy-induced CSL states are recapitulated in breast cancer cell lines

To further investigate these phenomena, we tested four ER+ breast cancer cell lines (CAMA-1,

T47D, MCF-7, ZR-75-1) and five TNBC cell lines (MDA-MB-231, BT549, HCC38, HCC1395,

HCC1143) using the same experimental settings. As shown in Fig. 1C and Fig. S2C, chemotherapy

increased the abundance of ALDH, CD44, CSL cells/Live, and CSL cells/Total in most ER+ cell lines,

although T47D and MCF7 have been reported as ALDH-negative (21). This promotion was less present

in TNBC cell lines following chemotherapy, and showed only increased abundance of CD44. The CSL

enrichment by chemotherapy in ER+ cells and TNBC is shown by relative mean values of ALDH and

CD44, which are highlighted for ER+ patient cells (Fig. S3A), TNBC patient cells (Fig. S3B), ER+ cell

lines (Fig. S3C), and TNBC cell lines (Fig. S3D). Spots for TNBC patients and cell lines showed a lesser

extent of primitive cell traits compared to ER+ cells. These studies indicate that chemotherapy can lead to

enrichment in CSL cells and ER+ cells in particular.

CSL phenotypes are reversed with an HDAC inhibitor

CSL phenotypes are reversed with an HDAC inhibitor

We sought to find an inhibitor that could reverse chemotherapy induced CSL cells. We used an

ER+ breast cancer cell line CAMA-1 (ER+, PR+, and HER2-) and TNBC cell line MDA-MB-231 to test

for CSL reversal using a 3D organoid culture model for the chemotherapy induced CSL state. The

potential CSL inhibitors were selected based multiple lines of data: 1) potential strategies to suppress

CSCs summarized by Lin et al.,(14) and others, which include targeting pathways that regulate EMT such

as hedgehog (vismodegib), Wnt/β-catenin (ICG-001) or CSC markers (disulfiram as an ALDH inhibitor),

2) targeting histone deacetylases which may modulate stem-like signaling pathways (belinostat and

entinostat), 3) growth factor receptor pathway inhibitors such as AXL inhibitors (BGB324 and TP-0903),

FGFR inhibitor (AZD4547), EGFR inhibitors (afatinib and gefitinib), and 4) cyclin-dependent kinases

(CDKs) inhibitors (senexin A, ribociclib and abemaciclib), which are reported to play indispensable roles

in processes of stem cell self-renewal (22).

For CSL inhibitor selection, 3D organoids of CAMA-1 (ER+) cells and MDA-MB-231 (TNBC)

cells were treated with chemotherapy for 72 hours, followed by belinostat for another 72 hours, and

subjected to ALDEFLUOR/CD44/DAPI staining for FACS analysis. As shown in Fig. 2A, B, the HDAC

inhibitor belinostat consistently reversed both ALDH and CD44 levels promoted by three chemotherapy

treatments in both cell lines. The AXL inhibitor TP-0903 showed some reversal potential only in ER+

breast cancer cells. Additionally, an increased cytotoxicity of belinostat and TP-0903 were also observed

in the viability heat maps for both cell lines at the doses for CSL reversal effect (Fig. 2A, B). Taken

together, these data indicate that belinostat may serve as a general anti-chemo-induced CSL modifier in

breast cancer. To further evaluate the potential of belinostat to enact chemo-induced CSL reversal, we

performed a time-course FACS analysis from Day 1 to Day 6 to measure the CSL phenotype every day

using the experiment strategy shown in Fig. 3A. For the ER+ breast cancer cell line CAMA-1, as shown

in Fig. S4A, FACS analysis showed steadily increasing ALDH levels with all three chemotherapies

(doxorubicin, carboplatin, and paclitaxel) from D 1 to Day 6, while the CD44 levels showed a more

pulse-like pattern with increased levels from Day 1 to Day 3 and again at Day 5/6. Overall, there was an

increase in the CSL cells versus live cells at Day 6 in all three chemotherapy groups (Fig. 3B). The

overall viability continuously decreased each day following all three chemotherapy treatments, while

belinostat further reduced viability compared to control from Day 4 to Day 6 (Fig. 3B), indicating an

increase in cytotoxicity with belinostat treatment in addition to its CSL reversal effect. Importantly,

belinostat reversed the upward trajectory of ALDH (Fig. S4A), CSL cells versus live cells (Fig. 3B), and

CSL cells versus total cells (Fig. S4A) with a significant reduction in treated versus control at Day 6. Of

note, CD44 was only reversed by belinostat following carboplatin and paclitaxel treatments, but not

doxorubicin treatment (Fig. S4A), suggesting some differences in chemotherapy effects. The FACS

analysis for ALDH and CD44 levels versus live cells at Day 0, Day 3, Day 5, and Day 6 with DMSO or

belinostat are detailed in Fig. S4B, and show the reduced viability and abundance of CSL cells versus live

cells following belinostat treatment with all three chemotherapies. Summarized results across

chemotherapy treatments show a statistically significant reduction in ALDH+, CSL cells versus live cells,

CSL cells versus total cells, and viability with belinostat treatment at Day 6 (Fig. 3B and Fig. 4A).

Less consistent results were found in MDA-MB-231, a TNBC cell line (Fig. 3C and Fig. S5A).

CD44 (Fig. S5A), and CSL cells versus live cells (Fig. 3C) increased with doxorubicin and carboplatin,

but not paclitaxel. Further, CD44, CSL cells versus live cells, and CSL cells versus total cells (Fig. S5A)

all decreased with belinostat following chemotherapy treatments. Note, the reversal effect of belinostat on

ALDH was found upon paclitaxel treatment, but not doxorubicin or carboplatin (Fig. S5A). Detailed

FACS analysis for ALDH, CD44, and CSL cells versus live cells is also shown in Fig. S5B, and highlight

the reduced viability and abundance of CSL cells with belinostat treatment. Belinostat treatment exhibited

a statistically significant reduction across all chemotherapies in CD44, CSL cells versus live cells, CSL

cells versus total cells, and viability at Day 6 (Fig. S5A and Fig. 3C); however, ALDH levels were not

significantly different. Overall, the CSL reversal following chemotherapy was less pronounced in TNBC

than ER+ cells, perhaps reflecting higher baseline CSL in TNBC (23).

Belinostat inhibits chemotherapy-derived CSL enrichment in ER+ patient tumor cells

As chemotherapy strongly promoted CSL state in ER+ breast cancer patient samples, with a less

pronounced effect in TBNC patient samples as indicated above (Fig. 1B), we further tested the CSL

reversal effect of belinostat in ER+ patient cancer cells. These studies use patient samples to further test

the cell line results from above. Three ER+, PR+, Her2- breast cancer patient samples (Patient#5,

Patient#6, and Patient#7) were used to perform the same experiments as used for the cell lines. The

patient 3D organoids were treated with doxorubicin, carboplatin and paclitaxel for 72 hours respectively,

and followed by either control DMSO or belinostat (1μM or 2.5μM) for 72 hours. Relative fold changes

compared to DMSO control were expressed with curves for each individual patient sample treated with

three chemotherapies. As shown in Fig. S6A and Fig. 4A, FACS analysis of these cells show that ALDH

and CSL cells versus live cells were generally increased by chemotherapy and reversed by belinostat.

Note, CD44 decrease was found in the majority but not all of the patient cells (Fig. S6B). CSL cells

versus total cells were reduced by belinostat in the patient samples, although induction of CSL state alter

chemotherapy varied by patient, most likely due to prior treatments the patient received and various levels

of response to chemotherapy (Fig. S6C). Importantly, we found all chemotherapies decreased the viability

of cancer cell, and belinostat further decreased viability in a dose-dependent manner (Fig.4B). Across all

patient samples, FACS analysis showed increases in ALDH (Fig. S6D), CSL cells versus live cells (Fig.

4C), and CSL cells versus total cells (Fig. S6E) following chemotherapy treatment compared to vehicle

controls, and all are significantly decreased by belinostat in dose-dependent manner compared to

chemotherapy treatment only controls. Note, CD44 levels did not show a significant common effect either

on chemotherapy promotion or belinostat reversal, although the expected trends could be observed

between indicated groups (Fig. S6F). The viability decreased with all chemotherapies, and further

decreased with belinostat in dose-dependent manner (Fig. 4D). Overall, these experiments validated the

cell line studies with patient tumor samples and show that belinostat may serve as a general anti-CSL

inhibitor following multiple chemotherapies in ER+ breast cancer, reflecting a one-two punch treatment

strategy.

Belinostat inhibits chemotherapy induced mammosphere formation

238   We next tested the ability of belinostat to modulate CSL self-renewal and proliferation using a

mammosphere formation assay (24). Two cycles of mammosphere culture were performed to select stem-

like cells with self-renewal ability and eliminate various transitions following chemotherapy +/-

belinostat. Both CAMA-1 and MDA-MB-231 cells show a significantly diminished mammosphere

formation following belinostat treatment after chemotherapy after two-cycle cultures (Fig. 5A, B, C, D).

The majorities of chemotherapies increased the total mammosphere numbers and areas compared to

DMSO control only, while belinostat decreased the total mammosphere counts as well as their areas

compared to the chemotherapy plus DMSO control.

For the ER+ cells, doxorubicin and paclitaxel both increased mammosphere counts (up to 174.1%

and 131.1%), and mammosphere total areas (up to 257.9% and 211.9%) compared to DMSO control (set

to 100% for each condition). Strikingly, belinostat dramatically reduced the mammosphere counts (to 2.9-

3.7%) and mammosphere total areas (to 2.3-6.7%) following all chemotherapy treatments. Similarly, for

the TNBC cells, all chemotherapies strongly increased mammosphere counts (up to 490.6%, 330.8%, and

353.8%), and mammosphere total areas (up to 736.2%, 320.8%, and 366.6%) compared to DMSO

control. Belinostat again reduced the mammosphere counts (42.7-51.3%) and mammosphere total areas

(21.5-71.9%) following all chemotherapy treatments. Thus, the general anti-CSL effect of belinostat is

supported by its ability to inhibit CSL self-renew and proliferation with mammosphere assays.

MYC pathways mediated CSL promotion/reversal upon chemotherapy/belinostat treatment

To understand how belinostat reverses the chemotherapy-induced CSL properties, we performed

single-cell RNA-Seq analysis with two ER+ patient samples (Patient#5 and Patient#6). We performed an

unbiased clustering of the gene expression profiles of the Patient#6 and Patient#5 cells and saw that there

are changes in the gene expression profiles of the cells after chemotherapy treatments and combination

chemotherapies plus belinostat (Fig. 6A, B). The Patient#6 cells exhibited relatively similar

transcriptional programs to all chemotherapies, and also to the combination treatments. Chemotherapy

generated a distinctive cell population that was further changed by chemo+belinostat treatment (Fig. 6A).

This indicates that, while we previously saw that belinostat can reverse the stem cell phenotypes, it does

not reverse all aspects of the chemotherapy. In contrast, the Patient#5 cells showed a drug-specific

response where each chemotherapy led to distinct changes in the cell populations, and relatively little

changes in the transcriptional programs were induced by belinostat (Fig. 6B) .

As belinostat can induce changes in the stem cell related markers (Fig 4), the lack of obvious

changes in the overall transcriptional profiles suggest that the differences in the stem cell program may

leave a relatively small imprint on the overall profiles or that progenitor cell transcriptional profiles are

more nuanced. To focus on the specific (rather than overall) changes seen with drug treatment, we

performed a pathway analysis to identify the pathways that are altered by chemotherapy or combination

treatment.

Shared reversal pathways were selected as described in Methods, and heat maps were generated

based on the averages of ssGSEA enrichment scores for the shared reversal pathways for both Patient#6

(Fig. S7A, B) and Patient#5 (Fig. S7C, D). For each patient sample, we selected the pathways that were

either increased by chemo and decreased by belinostat, or decrease by chemo and increased by belinostat

(Fig. S7). In our shared reversal pathways analysis, we found that HDAC pathways

(HELLER_HDAC_TARGETS_DN) were up-regulated by all three chemotherapy treatments in both

patient samples and down-regulated by belinostat except paclitaxel group in Patient#6 (Fig. 6C, D). This

indicates that chemotherapy treatments promoted HDAC targets in this gene set (eg, CD44 as stemness

marker, BCL2 as anti-apoptotic regulator), while belinostat, a pan-HDAC inhibitor (HDACi), reversed

them; concomitant with the changes in CSL properties. This is consistent with prior reports showing that

HDAC expression is up-regulated in CSCs (13) and HDAC inhibitors can inhibit CSL phenotypes

through its inhibition of acetylation activity (13, 14).

We also observed that a stem cell differentiation signature

(BOQUEST_STEM_CELL_CULTURED_VS_FRESH_UP) was reduced by all three chemotherapy

treatments and promoted by belinostat in both patient samples (Fig. 6C, D). In another words, the CSL

state of the survival single cells were up-regulated by all chemotherapy treatments, and down-regulated

by belinostat. Consistent with CSL state, the MYC pathway (BILD_MYC_ONCOGENIC_SIGNATURE)

was increased by most of chemotherapy treatments, and inhibited by belinostat except paclitaxel group in

both Patient#6 (Fig. 6C) and Patient#5 (Fig. 6D). Belinostat has been reported to regulate MYC

expression transcriptionally and post-transcriptionally through regulation of MYC acetylation (25). MYC

has previously been shown to be a factor in CSC reprogramming and self-renewal in basal-like breast

cancer (26), and may contribute to reversal of the CSL promotion-reversal process mediated by

chemotherapy and HDACi.

Discussion

Cancer stem cells (CSCs) have the capacity to initiate growth of new tumors as well as cause

disease relapse; further, these cells are not targeted by conventional chemotherapy or other treatment

strategies (27). Therefore, there remains potential in developing treatment approaches that minimize CSC

or CSL cells to delay or prevent refractory cancer development. Our study indicates that subclonal

selection in patients during therapy promotes CSL state in breast cancer. Further, both flow cytometry

and mammosphere assays show a reversal of CSL state following chemotherapy by the use of the HDAC

inhibitor belinostat. Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis indicated that the RNA transcriptome was

strongly reprogramed by chemotherapy treatments, and reversed by belinostat, which promoted stem cell

differentiation, and inhibited HDAC targets and MYC pathway. The imbalance between acetylation and

deacetylation of histone or non-histone proteins, which are regulated by histone acetyltransferases

(HATs) and deacetylases (HDACs), have been proved closely to be associated with cancer development

(28). Acetylation and deacetylation of proteins is involved in various stemness-related signal pathways

and can regulate self-renewal and differentiation signaling (28). The pan HDAC inhibitor used in this

study have been used previously for their anti-tumor and anti-CSC activity by targeting multiple signaling

pathways at different molecular levels (14, 29). Besides chromatin remodeling via histone acetylation,

HDAC inhibitors could also block key signaling pathways pertinent to CSC maintenance, including HIF-

1α, Stat3, Notch1, β-catenin, NF-κB, MYC, and c-Jun with the ability of different HDAC isoforms to

regulate protein stability and/or activity (14).

Although HDAC inhibitors have been used alone or in combination therapy to suppress the CSC

population in different settings (14), how HDAC inhibitors reverse CSL state following standard of care

chemotherapies is not well-defined. Previous clinical trials of HDACi target to CSL cells either focused

on the monotherapy for refractory peripheral T-cell lymphoma, or concurrent combination of

chemotherapy with HDACi on solid tumors (Poole 2014). However, these clinical trials and research

assessed antitumor activity by apoptosis/viability test, more than targeting to acquired stemness. In

addition, it has not been studied if specific chemotherapies, or this class of drug generally, can induce

CSL state. Further, it has not been studied if HDAC inhibitors can reverse CSL states driven by different

chemotherapies. As detailed results above, our study addresses subclonal evolution of stem-like traits in

patients as they acquire resistance to chemotherapy, as well as approaches to reverse this acquired

resistant trait.

327   In this study, we initially tested multiple drugs published previously to block stem cell-like state.

Only one was effective following chemotherapy induced stem-like states across cell lines and patient

tumor cells. Although there was some heterogeneity in ALDH or CD44 expression level modulated by

different chemotherapies, we generally saw an increase in CSL levels for ER+ tumor cells and to a lesser

extent TNBC cells. Belinostat broadly blocked increased CSL cells following chemotherapy treatment

based on flow cytometry and mammosphere assays. However, entinostat, another HADC inhibitor target

to HDAC1 and HDAC3, did not exhibit the general reversal effect (Fig. 2), although additional

cytotoxicity was found when given after chemotherapy, which might suggest specific HDAC isoform(s)

could be responsible to this general CSL state reversal. This question could be further determined in the

future work. Although HDAC inhibitors have been proved for their epigenetic effect on the

reprogramming of gene expression in cancer cells, which leads to growth arrest, differentiation, and

apoptosis (30), their roles in suppressing the self-renewal capability and driving the differentiation of

CSCs could also enhance the cancer cell sensitivity to chemotherapy (Liu et al., 2017), which might lead

a synergistic effect for CSL elimination. HDAC inhibitors also prevent or reverse the development of

drug resistance by its inhibition on drug transporters (MDR1) expression, thus augmenting the effect of

combined therapy with their synergism (31). The mammosphere formation assays in our study

demonstrated that belinostat could abolish the self-renewal capability of survival cells after chemotherapy

treatments, which has resulted in resistant CSL subtypes. Importantly, these results were consistent across

different chemotherapies tested, suggesting a convergence on CSL resistance. The synergistic effects of

these drug combinations as well as optimal timing and sequence should be determined by further

experiments and mathematical modeling.

In our FACS strategy to identify the CSL cells, ALDH and CD44 were selected as the CSL state

markers, rather than CD24. Of Note, the initial state of CAMA-1 starts from very low primitive cell traits

(indicated by low CD44 level) compared to MDA-MB-231, which might suggests more potential for CSL

state induction for ER+ cells other than TNBC. Recently, two types of distinct CSCs, epithelial-like (E)

ALDH+ CSCs and mesenchymal-like (M) CD44+/CD24− CSCs, have been identified (Sulaiman et al.,

2019). Liu et al reported that E and M CSCs co-existed in all breast cancer subtypes, but their proportions

were varied (32). ALDH+ CSCs located within the core of the tumor with high expression of E-cadherin

but low expression of vimentin and ZEB1, undergo proliferation at hypoxia conduction, while

CD44+/CD24− CSCs located at the edge of the breast tumor with low expression of E-cadherin but high

expression of vimentin and ZEB1, undergo migration and invasion (32). These two subtypes of CSCs

exhibit differential signal pathway regulations, plasticity, and differently responses to treatment. E and M

CSCs were also found to be interconvertible in EMT-MET signaling. Therefore, co-inhibition of both E

and M subtypes of CSCs may be needed to develop effective therapy (L32). The detailed time-course

FACS analysis following chemotherapies (Fig. S4B, Fig. S5B) suggests belinostat potentially exhibited

dual inhibition of E and M CSL cells, with its reversal effect mainly on CD44 in TNBC cell line MDA-

MB-231 (initially ALDH low/CD44 high), which is enriched with M subtype of CSL cells (23), and on

ALDH in ER+ cell line CAMA-1 (initially ALDH high/CD44 low) and patient samples, which is

enriched with E subtype of CSL cells. Compared to the FACS analysis for CSL state, the mammosphere

assay tests the self-renewal ability of resistant cells rather than the changes of stemness makers. Cells

with high level expression of CD44 are more resistant to chemotherapy and likely to form mammosphere

(23), which would benefit the TNBC than ER+ cells due to their enrichment of progenitor cells (ALDH

negative, CD44 high). In this case, inhibition effect of belinostat on CD44+ cells could play a major role

to abolish the self-renewal capability of chemo-resistant cells. Reversal of CD44 in ER+ cell lines/patient

samples and Inhibition of ALDH in TNBC cell line were also identified by FACS analysis, which varied

among cell lines/patient samples with different chemotherapies. Thus, future research may help delineate

cell populations sensitive to belinostat treatment.

In the single-cell RNA sequencing analysis, we are interested in visualizing the pattern of

activation of the pathways across the different treatment groups, other than seeking the overall changes by

leveraging multiple pairwise comparisons against control treated cells and then plotting the enrichment

score or a metric based on the statistical significance. The approach we used could more directly provide

information such as the relative magnitude of the changes, as well as the baseline levels of activation in

the control group. In the single-cell RNA sequencing analysis presented here, chemotherapy followed by

belinostat revealed that MYC could be an important mediator for these two distinct subtypes of CSCs.

MYC induces the dedifferentiation towards a progenitor-like state by epigenetic reprogramming (Yoshida

et al., 2018). Further, mammosphere with MYC overexpression showed enrichment for cells expressing

ALDH1 (34). MYC-dependent metabolic reprogramming is related to CD44 variant-dependent redox

stress regulation in CSCs (33). Targeting MYC family by HDAC inhibition, such as valproic acid, could

contribute to the down-regulation of MYC, in turn to up-regulate of CDKN1A/B (p21/CIP1/WAF1,

p27/KIP1) to induce cell cycle arrest and autophagic cell death (33, 35).

The patient data described in this study supports the model that tumor subclones with enrichment

of a CSL phenotype are selected during acquisition of a drug resistant state. It remains unclear how the

genetic composition of tumor subclones impacts phenotype. The CNVs used to identify these survivor

subclones harbor numerous genes, which may combine to enhance plasticity or a CSL state. This question

could be further elucidated in future studies with a larger sample size.

Taken together, our findings demonstrated HDAC inhibition reverses chemotherapy-induced

acquisition of primitive cell traits and drug-resistance in ER+ breast cancer, and provided an effective

'one-two punch' strategy to combat refractory ER+ breast cancer with sequential chemotherapy and

HDACi combination.

Materials and Methods

Human subjects

Informed consent was obtained from all patients in this study. Protocols were approved by the University

of Utah Institutional Review Board and the City of Hope Institutional Review Board.

Cells and drugs

Breast cancer cell lines CAMA-1, T47D, MCF7, ZR-75-1, MDA-MB-231, BT549, HCC38, HCC1143,

and HCC1395 were all obtained from ATCC. The following drugs were selected as the potential CSL

inhibitors as shown in Table 1, which includes AXL inhibitors (BGB324 and TP-0903), Wnt/CBP

inhibitor (ICG-001,), Hedgehog inhibitor (vismodegib), CDK8 inhibitor (SenexinA), CDK4/6 inhibitor

(Ribociclib and Abemaciclib), HDAC inhibitors (Belinostat and Entinostat), FGFR inhibitor (AZD4547),

EGFR inhibitors (Afatiniband Gefitinib), and ALDH inhibitor (Disulfiram, DSF). BGB324 was obtained

from BerGenBio. All other inhibitors mentioned above and chemotherapy drugs (Doxorubicin,

Carboplatin, and Paclitaxel) were purchased from Selleckchem.

Sample collection

Primary breast cancer samples were obtained from malignant pleural effusions or ascites. Patients #1-4,

#7-8, #11 are from pleural effusions, patient #5-6, #9-10, #12 are from ascites. After fluid drainage, cells

were pelleted at $300 \times g$ for 5 min, and resuspended in TAC buffer (17mM Tris, pH 7.4, and 135mM

NH4Cl), followed with incubation at 37 °C for 5 min and centrifugation. After repeating these steps

several times until red blood cells were completely depleted from pellet, the remaining cells were washed

with PBS twice and frozen in 90% FBS with 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

Treatment of patient cultures/breast cancer cell lines with chemotherapy and CSL inhibitors for FACs

analysis

For patient samples used for FACS analysis and single cell RNA sequencing, we thawed frozen viable

breast cancer pleural effusions or ascites from patients and depleted dead cells with EasySep[TM] Dead Cell

Removal (Annexin V) Kit (STEMCELL Technologies) and CD45+ cells with EasySep[TM] Human CD45

Depletion Kit II (STEMCELL Technologies) according to manufacturer protocols. These purified cancer

cells were then resuspended in Renaissance Essential Tumor Medium (RETM, Cellaria) containing 5%

FBS, RETM supplement, antibiotic/antimycotic (anti-anti), and 20 ng/mL cholera toxin. For

chemotherapy dose response evaluation, patient cells were counted and plated at 10,000 per well in 100

µL RETM with 96-well spheroid plates with black walls (Corning 4520). Breast cancer cell lines were

counted and plated at 40,000 per well in 100 µL culture medium (RPMI contain 10% FBS, 1% antibiotic-

antimycotic for T47D, ZR-75-1, MDA-MB-231, BT549, HCC38, HCC1143, and HCC1395, DMEM

containing 10% FBS, 1% antibiotic-antimycotic for CAMA-1 and MCF7). After 18-24 hours, 100 µL

culture medium with drug (2X dose) was added. Cells were harvested after 72 hours for ALDEFLUOR

and CD44 staining and FACS. For CSL inhibitor treatment, cells were plated and treated with

chemotherapy the same as mentioned above. After 72 hours, the medium was removed, and the

organoids were washed with fresh medium once and replaced with 200 µL fresh medium containing CSL

inhibitors. The cells were harvested after another 72 hours incubation for ALDEFLUOR and CD44

staining and FACS.

Flow Cytometry

The organoids were collected by centrifugation at 300g for 5min, and dissociated with trypsin-EDTA for

5min at 37°C. The cells were incubated with ALDEFLUOR staining (STEMCELL TECHNOLOGIES)

for 30 minutes at 37°C, and then anti-CD44-PE antibody (1:50 Miltenyi) for 25 minutes on ice in

ALDEFLUOR Assay Buffer according to the protocol. The samples with DEAB inhibitor without CD44-

PE staining serve as the negative control for ALDEFLUOR. For chemo dose response evaluation and

CSL inhibitor screening, each sample takes 200 µL /mL for ALDEFLUOR Assay and 100 µL

ALDEFLUOR Assay Buffer for CD44 staining. DAPI (1 µg/mL for final concentration) was added to

label the dead cells before FACS test.

Mammosphere Assay

Mammosphere Assay was performed following the protocol mentioned in Shaw L et al with modification

(Shaw et al., 2012). Cells were plated in 96-well spheroid plates with black walls (Corning 4520) at

40,000 per/well in 100µL medium. After 18-24 hours, another 100µL medium with 2x drug was added

(final concentration Doxorubicin 0.1µM, Carboplatin 50µM, Paclitaxel 1µM). After 72 hours, the

spheroids were harvested from 24 wells, and dissociated with Trypsin for 5min at 37°C. The cells were

pelleted and resuspended in 1mL mammosphere media (500mL phenol-free RPMI plus 20mL B27, plus

rEGF 20ng/mL). For each treatment, the cells were seeded at 18000/well in 6 well plates (ultralow

attachment from Corning #3471) with 2mL media supplied with DMSO or Belinostat 5µM in triplicates.

After 14 days in culture, the mammospheres were imaged with a Zeiss Axio Observer 7 microscope from

triplicate wells. For the second mammosphere culture, the mammospheres from the same treatment were

collected and incubated with Trypsin for 5min at 37°C, followed by 10 passages through a 22 gauge

needle for dislocation. The cells were seeded again at 18000/well in 6 well ultralow attachment plate with

2mL media supplied with DMSO or Belinostat 5µM in triplicates as the same conditions in the first

mammosphere culture. After another 14 days in culture, the mammospheres were imaged again with a

Zeiss Axio Observer 7 microscope from triplicate wells. All the mammospheres were counted using

Qupath software (a length greater than 80 µm) for both number and area.

CNV analysis

CNV analysis of four patients' pre- and post-treatment WGS or WES data were performed and subclonal

CNVs were identified as described previously (Brady et al., 2017). Briefly, somatic CNVs between

integer copy values were considered to be subclonal, such that a region with average CNV 2.5 pre-

treatment and which became 3.0 post-treatment was considered to be a mixture of 50% 2-copy cells and

50% 3-copy cells in the pre-treatment sample. For tumor, the Bulk WGS sequencing coverage to identify

subclonal CNAs for Patient #1-4 are 60X, 60X, 40X, and 60X, respectively. For germline, the bulk WGS

sequencing coverage for Patient #1-4 are 60X, 60X, 40X, and 40X, respectively. For Selecting copy

number changes, certain copy number variants were selected by analyzing subclonal, non-integer copy

number variants. Other regions do not contribute to this assessment; for example, please reference the

horizontal dotted lines along the integer values (at 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.) in S1D-G, which show that copy

number variants at these integer positions are not necessary for these analyses. For Stem WGS coverage

(1-10X estimated) for comparing subclonal CNA levels between stem cell populations, Low-pass

sequencing coverage was used for the ALDH/CD44 sorting for all four patients, with approximately 4X

coverage for each sample. The sequencing coverage for Patient #1-4 are 3.3X, 2.5X, 2.5X, and 3.3X,

respectively. As shown in Fig. S1D, the therapy-resistant subclones in Patient#1 demonstrated CNVs on

chromosomes 3, 4, and 9, whereas therapy-responsive subclones had CNVs on 12, 14, and 16; Patient#2

had responsive CNVs on chromosomes 7q and 11q (Fig. S1E); Patient#3 had resistant CNVs on

chromosomes 6 and 7 and a responsive CNV on chromosome (Fig. S1F); and Patient#4 had a resistant (or

at least increasing) CNV on chromosome 4 (Fig. S1G). Note that Patient#4's chromosome 4 amplification

does not appear to have changed after treatment, but in fact, increased in the tumor cell population

because the sample has much more normal contamination with only ~25% tumor purity (Fig. S1F).

CSL proportion calculation in each subclone

To identify CNVs from CSL (ALDH+/CD44+) vs. non-CSL populations, we thawed frozen viable breast

cancer pleural effusions or ascites from patients and depleted normal cells, including white blood cells

(CD45+), fibroblasts (CD90+), and mesothelial cells (podoplanin+) using the Miltenyi BioTec

quadroMACS system with the following protocol. Four mL of quadroMACS buffer (cold PBS with 0.5%

BSA and 2 mM EDTA) was added to cells and cells were spun down at 1000 g for 5 minutes at 4 °C.

Cells were resuspended in 1 mL quadroMACS buffer, and 10 µL of biotinylated anti-podoplanin antibody

(Biolegend #337015) was added. Cells were incubated 10 minutes on ice and spun down at 300 x g for 5

minutes at 4 °C to wash off excess antibody. Cells were resuspended in 120 µL quadroMACS buffer. To

this was then added 26 µL of anti-CD45 microbeads, 26 µL of anti-CD90 microbeads, and 26 µL of anti-

biotin microbeads (Miltenyi BioTec). Cells were incubated 15 minutes on ice in the dark, followed by

addition of 1 mL quadroMACS buffer and cells were then spun down 300 x g for 5 minutes at 4 °C. Cells

were resuspended in 500 µL quadroMACS buffer, then added to pre-washed (with 2 mL quadroMACS

buffer) LD column, and elute was collected. One mL quadroMACS buffer was added to column and elute

continued to be collected; this was repeated an additional time for a final elute volume of 2.5 mL. Cells

were then spun down at 1000 g for 5 minutes at 4 °C. We then stained purified breast cancer cells using

the ALDEFLUOR system according to manufacturer's instructions to assess ALDH activity, followed by

staining with a CD44-PE antibody in ALDEFLUOR assay buffer for approximately 30 minutes on ice.

Cells were washed in ALDEFLUOR assay buffer followed by FACS to assess the number of cells which

were ALDH+/CD44+, ALDH+/CD44-, ALDH-, CD44+, or ALDH-/CD44- (referred to as quadrants

hereafter), and to sort cells in order to isolate genomic DNA from each of these four populations. Isolated

genomic DNA was then sequenced by Illumina whole-genome sequencing at low coverage (2X to 10X)

to infer CNVs. To infer CNVs, reads were aligned to hg19 using BWA using the Speed-Seq suite. Then

samtools pileup was run on the resulting aligned bam files, and the coverage in 1 million bins across the

genome was calculated and manually centered at absolute copy 2 (diploid). The percent of each subclone

in each quadrant could be calculated following the example below. An example analysis is shown in Fig.

S1B, where a non-stem population (ALDH-/CD44-) had ~1.6 copies of a chromosome 3 region (40% of

cells with chr3 deletion). Meanwhile, the CSL population (ALDH+/CD44+) had ~1.3 copies of this

region (70% of cells with chr3 deletion). Thus, the CSL population is enriched for cells with the chr3

deletion, and these cells represent the survivor subclone. To calculate the percent of each quadrant (CSL

population) in each subclone, the survivor subclone and the non-survivor subclones for CSL content are

converted following the example below. The number of cells in each stem quadrant (the number of cells

for DNA isolation) was recorded to make this conversion. The conversion could be performed like

following example described. Suppose the following numbers from FACS in each quadrant were

obtained:

1,000 ALDH+/CD44+ cells (CSL cells)

2,000 ALDH+/CD44- cells

2,000 ALDH-/CD44+ cells

10,000 ALDH-/CD44- cells (double-negative)

15,000 cells total

Then assume there were 20% of cells with a subclonal CNV (dubbed CNV-X) in the double-negative

non-stem population, but 50% of cells with CNV-X in the CSL population. Based on this, the absolute

number of CSL cells with the CNV-X is 1,000 * 0.5 = 500 cells. The absolute number of double-negative

cells with CNV-X would be 10,000 * 0.2 = 2,000 cells. This calculation could be performed for each

quadrant/subclonal-CNV pair, to get the absolute number of cells in each CSL quadrant for each

subclone. Then we sum the total cell number in each subclone in all four quadrants, and calculate the

percentage of cells in that subclone that are in each quadrant, with the sum total just described as the

denominator. This results in the CSL proportions of each subclone, as shown in Fig. 1A.

Single-cell RNA sample preparation and sequencing analysis

Staining of single cell suspensions for scRNA-Seq

The patient cells were isolated, cultured, and treated with chemotherapy +/- belinostat as methods

mentioned above for CSL inhibitor screening with FACs analysis. Cell organoids were collected by

centrifugation at 300g for 5min, and dissociated with trypsin-EDTA for 5min at 37°C. Dead cells were

depleted with EasySepTM Dead Cell Removal (Annexin V) Kit (STEMCELL Technologies, #17899).

Cells in suspension were stained with ReadyProbes Cell Viability Imaging Kit (Hoechst 33342 and

Propidium Iodide, Thermo Fisher Scientific) by adding 80μL each dye at 500,000 cell/mL in basal

DMEM medium and incubated for 20 minutes at 37°C + 5% CO_2. After incubation, cells were diluted

with equal volume of 1X PBS (no Ca2+/Mg2+, pH 7.4, Thermo Fisher Scientific) then centrifuged for 5

minutes at 300 x g, 4°C. Cells were resuspended to 5.0×10^5 to 2.0×10^6 cell/mL in 1X PBS and calculated

concentrations on a hemocytometer using trypan blue then diluted to 50,000 cell/mL in 1x PBS +

0.2U/μL Superase· In RNase inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific) + 1X Second Diluent (Takara Bio).

Single Cell Dispensing, Imaging, and Candidate Selection

Single-cell RNA-Sequencing (scRNA-Seq) was performed using the ICELL8® Single-Cell System

(Takara Bio) using the SMARTer™ ICELL8 3' DE Kit (Takara Bio). Processing 8 samples at a time,

80μL of each 50,000 cell/mL cell sample, negative control, positive control (K-562 RNA), and fiducial

reagent (dye control) were loaded into each well of a 384-well plate (A1 through D2) and dispensed 50nL

per well into a 5,184 well SMARTer™ ICELL8® 3' DE Chip (Takara Bio) using the ICELL8®

Multisample NanoDispenser (MSND, Takara Bio). After dispense, chip was sealed with imaging film,

and centrifuged at 300 x g, 5 minutes, 4°C. ICELL8® 3' DE Chip was then imaged on an ICELL8®

Imaging System (Takara Bio) featuring an Olympus BX43 upright florescent microscope equipped with

an automated stage, camera, DAPI, and Texas Red filters and controlled by CellSelect® Software (Takara

Bio) to visually identify and select wells containing one viable single-cell candidate per well (positive

Hoechst 33342, negative Propidium Iodide) generating single-cell candidate list for each ICELL8® 3' DE

Chip. After imaging, ICELL8® 3' DE Chip were stored at -80°C overnight. Each sample was ran twice

on separate ICELL8® 3' DE Chips in order to multiplex samples and minimize chip-to-chip variations.

RT-PCR, Library Construction, and Next Generation Sequencing

The ICELL8® 3' DE Chip is preprinted with a reverse transcription (RT) primer containing a unique

molecular identifier (UMI), 11-base unique well barcode, and poly T sequence in each of the 5,184 wells.

The ICELL8® 3' DE Chip containing cells was thawed at room temperature for 10 minutes, then

centrifuged for 3 minutes, 3,200 x g, 4°C and maintained on ice. The ICELL8® 3' DE Chip was placed

on the ICELL8® MSND and loaded 50 µL of RT-PCR solution (Takara Bio; 56 µL 5M GC Melt, 24 µL

25mM dNTP Mix, 3µL 1M MgCl2, 9µL 100mM DTT, 62 µL 5X First-Strand Buffer, 33 µL 2X SeqAmp

PCR Buffer, 16 µL 10% Triton X-100, 2 µL SMARTer ICELL8 3' DE Oligo Mix, 29 µL 100U/µL

SMARTScribe Reverse Transcriptase, 10µL SeqAMP DNA Polymerase) into four wells (A1 through A4)

of a 384-well plate. MSND then dispensed 50 nL to wells containing only live single-cell candidates

according to the single-cell candidate file previously generated by the ICELL8® Imaging System. The 3'

DE Chip containing single cell candidates with RT-PCR reagent sealed with PCR Sealing Film and

centrifuged 3,200 x g, 3 min, 4°C and then placed in a BioRad T100 equipped with a ICELL8® Chip

adapter to perform RT followed by 22 PCR cycles for cDNA amplification. Amplified cDNA from the

ICELL8® 3' DE Chip individual cells was collected and pooled using the ICELL8® Collection Kit

(Takara Bio) by centrifugation at 3,200 x g, 10 minutes, 4°C. The cDNA products were concentrated

using cDNA Clean & Concentrator-5 Kit (Zymo Research) followed bead cleanup using 0.6X AMPure

XP Beads (Beckman Coulter) and eluted in 12 µL DNase/RNase free water.

Libraries were prepared using 1ng of purified cDNA according to the ICELL8® 3' DE instruction manual

(Takara Bio) using the Nextera Primer P5 (ICELL8® 3' DE Kit, Takara Bio), Nextera XT DNA Library

Preparation Kit (Illumina) and i7 Index Primer (Nextera XT Index Kit, Illumina). Unique i7 Indexes were

used for each ICELL8® 3' DE Chip. Tagmented cDNA was amplified by PCR 12 cycles prior to dual-

sided bead cleanup using AMPure XP beads, and eluted in 11µL DNase/RNase free water. Library and

cDNA quality and profile were confirmed prior to sequencing ran on an Agilent Bioanalyzer using a

Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity DNA Analysis kit (Agilent). Prepared library was then sequenced using

150 paired-end cycles on a NovaSeq S4 flow cell (Illumina).

Single-cell RNA-Seq Analyses

Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 with 2 X 125 paired-end reads. Raw FASTQ

sequencing files were processed by the Cell Ranger Single Cell Software Suite for demultiplexing,

barcode assignment, alignment and UMI counting (https://support.10xgenomics.com/single-cell-gene-

expression/software/overview/welcome). Samples were aligned to hg19 using the STAR aligner (36).

Count tables were generated with a total of 6196 cells for Patient#5 and Patient#6 and used as input into

Seurat v2 (37).

Quality control on the cells:

Low quality cells were filtered out if the library size was less than 10,000 or the number of expressed

genes (counts larger than 0) is less than 500. Furthermore, the cells with more than 30% mitochondrial

gene counts were discarded. For Patient#6, 3668 cells were acquired before filtering, 2773 cells were

acquired after filtering. For Patient#5, 2528 cells were acquired before filtering, and 1553 cells were

acquired after filtering.

Dimensionality reduction, clustering and visualization using UMAP

The Bioinformatics ExperT SYstem (BETSY) (38) was applied to cluster and visualize the scRNA-seq

data using UMAP. In short, an RNA-Seq count matrix was normalized to log scale with a scale

parameter of 10,000. Top 500 highly variable genes were then identified in the normalized dataset. The

linear dimensional reduction method PCA was then performed upon these variable genes. The first 10

principal components (PCs) and a resolution of 0.6 were used for Louvain graph-based clustering and

two-dimensional visualization with UMAP.

Pathway analysis

To identify the pathways reversed by belinostat that are shared by the three chemotherapy groups, we

applied the Single Sample Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (ssGSEA) by running the "ssGSEA" function

implemented in the GSVA package (v1.22.4) (39) in R (v3.4.3). The gene sets from the hallmark, C2 and

C6 collections of the Molecular Signatures Database (v6.2) were used for the ssGSEA. The

chemotherapy-belinostat reversal pathways shared among chemotherapy groups were selected with the

following steps. Student T-test between chemo+DMSO vs. DMSO+DMSO and chemo+belinostat vs.

chemo+DMSO were performed with all ssGSEA enrichment scores for single cells within each

chemotherapy group, and all the GSEA pathways with significant adjusted p value (p<0.05) in both T-

tests were selected. GSEA pathways with reversal directions in two T-test groups were indicated by the

reversal log2 fold changes in the enrichment scores, and filtered with the condition that the pathways

must be shared by at least two chemotherapy groups with the same trends. The averaged enrichment

scores across all cells in each treatment group were used as the input data to generate heat maps.

Statistical Analysis

For Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis, the R packages "stats" and "rstatix" were used to perform

statistical tests. Student's t-test (two-tailed) was used to compare the Single Sample Gene Set Enrichment

Analysis (ssGSEA) scores between two treatment groups. α level was considered 0.05 for all statistical

tests. Error bars for all drug and inhibitor assays represent standard deviation of three replicates from one

assay. For all statistical analysis in experiments other than bioinformatics analysis, student's t-test (two-

tailed) was used between groups according to the description in the legends. For all FACS analysis and

mammosphere assays, student's t-tests were performed between treatments vs. controls as indicated in

figure legends with triplicate tests. Significance is marked with * for P<0.05, ** for P<0.01, *** for

P<0.001.

References and Notes

1. A. M. Gonzalez-Angulo, F. Morales-Vasquez, G. N. Hortobagyi. Overview of resistance to systemic therapy in patients with breast cancer. Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 608, 1–22 (2007).

2. V. Malhotra, M. C. Perry. Classical chemotherapy: mechanisms, toxicities and the therapeutic window. Cancer Biol. Ther. 2, S2–4 (2003).

3. B. A. Chabner, T. G. Jr. Roberts. Timeline: Chemotherapy and the war on cancer. Nat. Rev. Cancer. 5, 65–72 (2005).

4. D. X. Nguyen, P.D. Bos, J. Massague. Metastasis: From dissemination to organ-specific colonization. Nat. Rev. Cancer. 9, 274–284 (2009).

5. P. Valent, D. Bonnet, R. De Maria, T. Lapidot, M. Copland, J. V. Melo, C. Chomienne, F. Ishikawa, J. J. Schuringa, G. Stassi, B. Huntly, H. Herrmann, J. Soulier, A. Roesch, G. J. Schuurhuis, S. Wöhrer, M. Arock, J. Zuber, S. Cerny-Reiterer, H. E. Johnsen, M. Andreeff, C. Eaves. Cancer stem cell definitions and terminology: the devil is in the details. Nat. Rev. Cancer. 12, 767–775 (2012).

6. M. Al-Hajj, M. S. Wicha, A. Benito-Hernandez, S. J. Morrison, M. F. Clarke. Prospective identification of tumorigenic breast cancer cells. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 100, 3983-3938 (2003).

7. S. Palomeras, S. Ruiz-Martínez, T. Puig. Targeting Breast Cancer Stem Cells to Overcome Treatment Resistance. Molecules. 23, E2193 (2018).

8. Y. Lombardo, A. de Giorgio, C. R. Coombes, J. Stebbing, L. Castellano. Mammosphere formation assay from human breast cancer tissues and cell lines. J. Vis. Exp. 97 (2015).

9. Y. A. Luqmani. Mechanisms of drug resistance in cancer chemotherapy. Med. Princ. Pract. 14, 35-48 (2005).

10. G. Chu. Cellular responses to cisplatin. The roles of DNA-binding proteins and DNA repair. J.
Biol. Chem. 269, 787–790 (1994).

11. C. J. Creighton, X. Li, M. Landis, J. M. Dixon, V. M. Neumeister, A. Sjolund, D. L. Rimm, H.
Wong, A. Rodriguez, J. I. Herschkowitz, C. Fan, X. Zhang, X. He, A. Pavlick, M. C. Gutierrez,
L. Renshaw, A. A. Larionov, D. Faratian, S. G. Hilsenbeck, C. M. Perou, M. T. Lewis, J. M.
Rosen, J. C. Chang. Residual breast cancers after conventional therapy display mesenchymal as
well as tumor-initiating features. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 106, 13820–13825 (2009).

12. F. H. Groenendijk, R. Bernards. Drug resistance to targeted therapies: Deja vu all over again.
Mol. Oncol. 8, 1067–1083 (2014).

13. M. R. Doherty, J. M. Smigiel, D. J. Junk, M. W. Jackson. Cancer Stem Cell Plasticity Drives
Therapeutic Resistance. Cancers (Basel) 8, E8 (2016).

14. P. C. Lin, H. Y. Hsieh, P. C. Chu, C. S. Chen. Therapeutic Opportunities of Targeting Histone
Deacetylase Isoforms to Eradicate Cancer Stem Cells. Int. J. Mol. Sci. 19, pii: E1939 (2018).

15. S. V. Sharma, D. Y. Lee, B. Li, M. P. Quinlan, F. Takahashi, S. Maheswaran, U. McDermott, N.
Azizian, L. Zou, M. A. Fischbach, K. K. Wong, K. Brandstetter, B. Wittner, S. Ramaswamy, M.
Classon, J. Settleman. A chromatin-mediated reversible drug-tolerant state in cancer cell
subpopulations. Cell. 141, 69-80 (2010).

16. C. Kim, R. Gao, E. Sei, R. Brandt, J. Hartman, T. Hatschek, N. Crosetto, T. Foukakis, N. E.
Navin. Chemoresistance Evolution in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer Delineated by Single-Cell
Sequencing. Cell. 173, 879-893 (2018).

17. N. Sachs, J. de Ligt, O. Kopper, E. Gogola, G. Bounova, F. Weeber, A. V. Balgobind, K. Wind,
A. Gracanin, H. Begthel, J. Korving, R. van Boxtel, A. A. Duarte, D. Lelieveld, A. van Hoeck, R.
F. Ernst, F. Blokzijl, I. J. Nijman, M. Hoogstraat, M. van de Ven, D. A. Egan, V. Zinzalla, J.
Moll, S. F. Boj, E. E. Voest, L. Wessels, P. J. van Diest, S. Rottenberg, R. G. J. Vries, E. Cuppen,
H. Clevers. A Living Biobank of Breast Cancer Organoids Captures Disease Heterogeneity. Cell.
172, 373-386 (2018).

18. J. A. Colacino, E. Azizi, M. D. Brooks, R. Harouaka, S. Fouladdel, S. P. McDermott, M. Lee, D. Hill, J. Madden, J. Boerner, M. L. Cote, M. A. Sartor, L. S. Rozek, M. S. Wicha. Heterogeneity of Human Breast Stem and Progenitor Cells as Revealed by Transcriptional Profiling. Stem Cell Reports. 10, 1596-1609 (2018).

19. S. W. Brady, J. A. McQuerry, Y. Qiao, S. R. Piccolo, G. Shrestha, D. F. Jenkins, R. M. Layer, B. S. Pedersen, R. H. Miller, A. Esch, S. R. Selitsky, J. S. Parker, L. A. Anderson, B. K. Dalley, R. E. Factor, C. B. Reddy, J. P. Boltax, D. Y. Li, P. J. Moos, J. W. Gray, L. M. Heiser, S. S. Buys, A. L. Cohen, W. E. Johnson, A. R. Quinlan, G. Marth, T. L. Werner, A. H. Bild. Combating subclonal evolution of resistant cancer phenotypes. Nat. Commun. 8, 1231 (2017).

20. S. Ricardo, A. F. Vieira, R. Gerhard, D. Leitão, R. Pinto, J. F. Cameselle-Teijeiro, F. Milanezi, F. Schmitt, J. Paredes. Breast cancer stem cell markers CD44, CD24 and ALDH1: expression distribution within intrinsic molecular subtype. J. Clin. Pathol. 64, 937-946 (2011).

21. E. Charafe-Jauffret, C. Ginestier, F. Iovino, J. Wicinski, N. Cervera, P. Finetti, M. H. Hur, M. E. Diebel, F. Monville, J. Dutcher, M. Brown, P. Viens, L. Xerri, F. Bertucci, G. Stassi, G. Dontu, D. Birnbaum, M. S. Wicha. Breast cancer cell lines contain functional cancer stem cells with metastatic capacity and a distinct molecular signature. Cancer Res. 69, 1302-1313 (2009).

22. S. Lim, P. Kaldis. Cdks, cyclins and CKIs: roles beyond cell cycle regulation. Development. 140, 3079-3093 (2013).

23. D. L. Holiday, V. Speirs. Choosing the right cell line for breast cancer research. Breast Cancer Res. 13, 215 (2011).

24. F. L Shaw, H. Harrison, K. Spence, M. P. Ablett, B. M. Simões, G. Farnie, R. B. Clarke. A detailed mammosphere assay protocol for the quantification of breast stem cell activity. J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia. 17, 111-117 (2012).

25. A. Nebbioso, V. Carafa, M. Conte, F. P. Tambaro, C. Abbondanza, J. Martens, M. Nees, R. Benedetti, I. Pallavicini, S. Minucci, G. Garcia-Manero, F. Iovino, G. Lania, C. Ingenito, V.

Belsito Petrizzi, H. G. Stunnenberg, L. Altucci. c-MYC Modulation and Acetylation Is a Key HDAC Inhibitor Target in Cancer. Clin. Cancer Res. 23, 2542-2555 (2017).

26. A .Yang, S. Qin, B. A. Schulte, S. P. Ethier, K. D. Tew, G. Y. Wang. MYC Inhibition Depletes Cancer Stem-like Cells in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. Cancer Res. 77, 6641-6650 (2017).

27. A. Sulaiman, S. McGarry, X. Han, S. Liu, L. Wang. CSCs in Breast Cancer-One Size Does Not Fit All: Therapeutic Advances in Targeting Heterogeneous Epithelial and Mesenchymal CSCs. Cancers (Basel). 11, E1128 (2019).

28. N. Liu, S. Li, N. Wu, K. S. Cho. Acetylation and deacetylation in cancer stem-like cells. Oncotarget. 8, 89315-89325 (2017).

29. R. M. Poole. Belinostat: first global approval. Drugs. 74, 1543-1554 (2014).

30. E. Seto, M. Yoshida. Erasers of histone acetylation: the histone deacetylase enzymes. Cold Spring Harb. Perspect Biol. 6, a018713 (2014).

31. B. C. Valdez, Y. Li, D. Murray, J. E. Brammer, Y. Liu, C. Hosing, Y. Nieto, R. E. Champlin, B. S. Andersson. Differential effects of histone deacetylase inhibitors on cellular drug transporters and their implications for using epigenetic modifiers in combination chemotherapy. Oncotarget. 7, 63829-63838 (2016).

32. S. Liu, Y. Cong, D. Wang, Y. Sun, L. Deng, Y. Liu, R. Martin-Trevino, L. Shang, S. P. McDermott, M. D. Landis, S. Hong, A. Adams, R. D'Angelo, C. Ginestier, E. Charafe-Jauffret, S. G. Clouthier, D. Birnbaum, S. T. Wong, M. Zhan, J. C. Chang, M. S. Wicha. Breast cancer stem cells transition between epithelial and mesenchymal states reflective of their normal counterparts. Stem Cell Reports. 2, 78-91 (2014).

33. G. J. Yoshida. Emerging roles of MYC in stem cell biology and novel tumor therapies. J Exp. Clin. Cancer Res. 37, 173 (2018).

34. V. Poli, L. Fagnocchi, A. Fasciani, A. Cherubini, S. Mazzoleni, S. Ferrillo, A. Miluzio, G. Gaudioso, V. Vaira, A. Turdo, M. Gaggianesi, A. Chinnici, E. Lipari, S. Bicciato, S. Bosari, M.

Todaro, A. Zippo. MYC-driven epigenetic reprogramming favors the onset of tumorigenesis by

inducing a stem cell-like state. Nat. Commun. 9, 1024 (2018).

35. A. H. Bild, G. Yao, J. T. Chang, Q. Wang, A. Potti, D. Chasse, M. B. Joshi, D. Harpole, J. M.

Lancaster, A. Berchuck, J. A. J.r Olson, J. R. Marks, H. K. Dressman, M. West, J. R. Nevins.

Oncogenic pathway signatures in human cancers as a guide to targeted therapies. Nature. 439,

353-357 (2006).

36. A. Dobin, C. A. Davis, F. Schlesinger, J. Drenkow, C. Zaleski, S. Jha, P. Batut, M. Chaisson, T.

R. Gingeras. STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics 29, 15-21 (2013).

37. A. Butler, P. Hoffman, P. Smibert, E. Papalexi, R. Satija. Integrating single-cell transcriptomic

data across different conditions, technologies, and species. Nat. Biotechnol. 36, 411-420 (2018).

38. X. Chen, J. T. Chang. Planning bioinformatics workflows using an expert system.

Bioinformatics. 33, 1210-1215 (2017).

39. S. Hänzelmann, R. Castelo, J. Guinney. GSVA: gene set variation analysis for microarray and

RNA-seq data. BMC Bioinformatics. 14, 7 (2013).

Acknowledgements

General: We thank the anonymous patients used in our study for their generous contributions to research.

The AXL inhibitor BGB324 was provided by BerGenBio. Research reported in this publication utilized

the High-Throughput Genomics and Bioinformatic Analysis Shared Resource at Huntsman Cancer

Institute at the University of Utah.

Funding: This work was supported by the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health

under Award Number P30CA042014. This research was supported by the National Cancer Institute of the

National Institutes of Health under U54 Support Award (1U54CA209978NIH). The content is solely the

responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH. J.T.C. was

supported by the Cancer Prevention Research Institute of Texas Core Facility Support Award RP170668.

A.H.B and J.T.C were supported by the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health

under award number U54CA209978.

Author Contributions: F.C. and S.W.B. contributed study design and coordination, wrote manuscript,

data processing, and analysis. J.L., A. N. and J.C. contributed single cell-RNA sequencing data

processing and analysis. P.A.C. contributed single-cell RNA sequencing preparation. M.S. and P.J.M.

coordinated sample collection. J.A.M. contributed to data analysis. J.T.C. and M.K. contributed study

design. A.H.B. conceived the study, contributed study design and coordination, wrote manuscript, and

performed data analysis.

Competing interests: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data and materials Availability: Single-cell RNA-seq data for patient#1 and patient#2 from our

previous study (Brady et al, 2017) are available on the European Genome-phenome Archive (EGA) under

accession EGAS00001002436. Raw and filtered single-cell RNA-seq counts data from patients#5 and

patients#6 are available for download at https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.11374458.v3.

Fig. 1. Genetic selection and chemotherapy both enrich CSL subclones . (**A**) The proportion of each

subclone with CSL vs. non-CSL populations in four patients. Cells were sorted via FACS using

ALDEFLUOR and CD44 staining and DNA was isolated from each population, followed by low-

coverage WGS to infer CNV and determine levels of subclonal CNVs. Heat maps for FACS mean values

of ALDH, CD44 and CSL cells/Live upon chemotherapy treatment in cultured patient cells (**B**) and breast

cancer cell lines (**C**) 3D organoids of patient cells and breast cancer cell lines were incubated with

doxorubicin (0.1μM), carboplatin (0.1mM) and paclitaxel (1μM) for 72 hours, followed by

ALDEFLUOR/CD44/DAPI staining and FACS to identify the FACS mean values of ALDH and CD44 in

live populations and CSL cells/Live. The vehicle controls (DMSO treatment) were set as fold one. All the

chemotherapy treatments were expressed as the fold change relative to the control. The mean values of

triplicate tests were shown in the heat maps with color indicated as the legends for each treatment.

Significance is marked with * for $P<0.05$, ** for $P<0.01$, *** for $P<0.001$.

816
817

Fig. 2. Belinostat reduced chemotherapy-promoted CSL state. Heat maps of FACS mean values for

CSL reversal drugs screening with CAMA-1 (**A**) and MDA-MB-231 (**B**) cell lines. Cells were cultured in

medium (3D) and treated for 72 hours with doxorubicin (0.1μM for CAMA-1, 0.5μM for MDA-MB-

231), carboplatin (50μM for all cell lines), and paclitaxel (1μM for all cell lines), and then treated with

potential CSL inhibitors as indicated doses for 72 hours before ALDEFLUOR/CD44 staining. The FACS

mean values of ALDH and CD44 in live populations and viability were shown in the heat maps. The

vehicle controls (DMSO+DMSO) were set as fold one. All the other chemotherapy plus DMSO/inhibitor

combinations were expressed as the fold change relative to the controls. The Chemo plus DMSO served

as the positive controls. The mean values of triplicate tests were showed with color indicated as the

legends. # is chemo plus DMSO significantly higher ($p<0.05$) than no treatment control, and * is chemo

plus inhibitor significantly lower ($p<0.05$) than chemo plus DMSO. The potential inhibitors are

highlighted with red blocks as its reversal effect for both ALDH and CD44.

A

B

C

Fig. 3. Belinostat inhibited chemotherapy-promoted CSL state in a time-dependent manner. (**A**)

Cell culture strategy for CSL reversal drug screening with cancer breast cell lines after chemo promotion.

The CSL cells/live (ALDH+, CD44+ cells versus live cells) and viability are shown in (**B**) for CAMA-1

and (**C**) for MDA-MB-231 with curves. CAMA-1 cells and MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in medium

(3D) and treated for 72 hours with doxorubicin (0.1μM for CAMA-1, 0.5μM for MDA-MB-231),

carboplatin (50μM), and paclitaxel (1μM), and then replaced with medium containing belinostat (5μM)

for 72 hours incubation. Samples were collected every day from Day 0 to Day 6, and subjected to

ALDEFLUOR/CD44/DAPI staining followed by FACS. In each day, DMSO treatment served as control

and was set as fold one. All the other treatments were expressed as the fold values relative to the controls.

Each spot represents the mean value of triplicate tests. The differences between chemo plus DMSO (9

replicates from three chemo plus DSMO) and chemo plus belinostat (9 replicates from three chemo plus

belinostat) at Day 6 were evaluated by student's T tests. Significance is marked with * for P<0.05, ** for

P<0.01, *** for P<0.001, *** for P<0.0001, **** for P<0.0001.

Fig. 4. Belinostat reversed chemotherapy-induced CSL cells in ER+ patient samples. (**A**) The CSL

cells/live (ALDH+, CD44+ cells versus live cells) and (**B**) viability were expressed with curves for

Patient#5, #6, and #7. Patient cells were cultured in Renaissance medium (3D) and treated with

chemotherapy (doxorubicin 0.1 µM, carboplatin 0.1mM, paclitaxel 1µM) for 72 hours, and then treated

with DMSO/belinostat (1µM or 2.5 µM) for another 72 hours, followed by ALDEFLUOR/CD44/DAPI

staining and FACS analysis. DMSO treatment only (DMSO+DMSO) served as controls and was set as

fold one. All the other treatments were expressed as the fold values relative to the controls. Each spot in

(**A**) and (**B**) represents the mean values of triplicate tests. Column graphs with individual values were

generated by combining 9 replicates from three patients for each treatment to evaluate the changes in CSL

cells/live (**D**) and viability (**E**). The statistical analysis was performed with student's t-tests between the

indicated groups with triplicate tests. Significance is marked with * for P<0.05, ** for P<0.01, *** for

P<0.001, **** for P<0.0001.

872
873

Fig. 5. Belinostat inhibited mammosphere formation of chemotherapy-treated breast cancer cell

lines.   CAMA-1 and MDA-MB-231 cells from spheroids with 3 days chemo treatment (DMSO,

doxorubicin 0.1μM for CAMA-1, 0.5μM for MDA-MB-231, carboplatin 50μM, and paclitaxel 1μM)

were collected, dissociated, and cultured for two 14 days periods with mammosphere assay medium

containing DMSO/belinostat (5μM) as described in the Methods. Mammosphere total numbers and total

area of CAMA-1 are shown in (**A**) and (**B**). Mammosphere total numbers and total area of MDA-MB-231

are shown in (**C**) and (**D**). The treatments with DMSO only serve as the control in each figure and set as

fold one. All the other treatments are expressed relative to the controls in the figures. The statistical

analysis was performed with student's t-tests between the indicated groups with triplicate tests. # is

$p < 0.05$ relative to DMSO plus DMSO only, * is $p < 0.05$ relative to chemo plus DMSO.

Fig. 6. Chemotherapy and belinostat reprogrammed transcriptome of patient cells. Unbiased

UMAPs for ER+ patient sample Patient#6 (**A**) and Patient#5 (**B**) under treatment (Tx). Patient cells were

cultured in Renaissance medium (3D) and treated with chemotherapy (doxorubicin 0.1 µM, carboplatin

0.1mM, paclitaxel 1µM) for 72 hours, and then treaded with DMSO/belinostat (1µM) for 72 hours. The

cells were collected, purified with Dead Cell Removal Kit, and subjected to ICELL8® Single-Cell

System as described in Methods. For each patient, the UMAPs for all treatments were shown in the top,

and the UMAPs for each individual treatment were shown in the bottom with different colors indicated as

the legends. Violin plots with GSEA pathways enrichment scores related to HDAC targets, stem cell

differentiation and MYC pathway were presented in (C) for Patient#6 and (D) for Patient#5. The

statistical analysis was performed with student's t-test between the indicated groups, and significance is

marked with * for P<0.05, ** for P<0.01, *** for P<0.001, **** for P<0.0001.

\

918