Osteosarcoma tumors maintain intra-tumoral heterogeneity, even while adapting to

environmental pressures that drive clonal selection

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Abstract

Background

Tumors are complex tissues containing collections of phenotypically diverse malignant and non-

malignant cells. We know little of the mechanisms that govern heterogeneity within tumor cells

themselves and the role it plays in overcoming stresses, such as adaptation to a metastatic

microenvironment. Osteosarcoma is an ideal model for studying these mechanisms—it exhibits

widespread inter- and intra-tumoral heterogeneity, progresses with predictable patterns of

metastasis, and lacks clear targetable driver mutations. Understanding the processes that

facilitate adaptation to primary and metastatic microenvironments could inform the development

of therapeutic strategies with potential to significantly impact clinical outcomes.

Results

We investigated single-cell RNA-sequencing profiles of 47,977 cells obtained from cell line and

patient-derived xenograft models as osteosarcoma cells adapted to different environments.

Tumor cells from almost all models maintained phenotypic heterogeneity as they adapted to the

selective pressures imposed during bone and lung colonization. Subsets of cells identified within

primary bone and metastatic lung tumors retained unique transcriptional phenotypes associated

with distinct pathways, including heterogeneity in glucose metabolism that we validated using

immunofluorescence staining. Finally, by leveraging concurrent lineage tracing and single-cell

transcriptomics, we found that lung colonization enriches for clonal populations with diverse

phenotypes, each of which conserves phenotype across cellular generations.

Conclusions

Adaptation to environmental stressors occurs through complex and dynamic phenotypic

adaptations, although heterogeneity is maintained, even in conditions that enforce clonal

selection. These findings likely reflect a retention of developmental processes that promote the

robustness of a tumor cell population in the face of selective pressures.

Key words

Osteosarcoma, heterogeneity, phenotype, clonal selection, microenvironment, metastasis

Background

Osteosarcoma is the most common malignant tumor of bone in pediatric patients(1). This

aggressive disease occurs in the metaphyseal region of the long bones, coinciding with the

anatomical location of bone growth(2). Localized disease has a favorable five-year survival rate

of over 70%(3) that plummets to lower than 20% in the event of metastasis(4). Unfortunately,

survival rates for patients with metastases have not changed since the introduction of

chemotherapy in the 1980s(5). Indeed, patients are staged solely based on the presence or

absence of metastasis(6). One unique feature of osteosarcoma is its extreme tropism for the lung:

less than 2% of patients develop lesions in other organs(7,8). Transcriptional profiles adopted by

individual tumor cells as they colonize bone and lung tissues remain poorly studied in this disease.

While others have reported that osteosarcoma metastasis is a polyclonal process(9), the

molecular pathways enriched in these clonal subsets during tissue colonization remain to be

studied at a single-cell level and could provide novel insights into tumor vulnerabilities that might

be missed using bulk methods.

Since most osteosarcoma patients have disseminated tumor cells at the time of diagnosis(6,10),

we have focused on the selective pressures of lung colonization rather than the early steps of

metastasis that result in dissemination(11–15). On exposure to the lung colonization bottleneck,

a large percentage of cells die such that only the fittest cells can pass(14). Whether this fitness

comes from rare but pre-existing clones that exhibit an inherent survival advantage or from an

active adaptation response remains unknown. This is a fundamental question that has largely

remained unanswered due to technical limitations. In this study, we overcome this by combining

single-cell transcriptomics with lineage tracing to study both clonal evolution and transcriptional

adaptation simultaneously and cell-by-cell.

In this study, we analyzed single cell transcriptomic libraries of 47,977 osteosarcoma cells

obtained from cell lines and patient-derived xenograft (PDX) models, grown as orthotopic primary

and metastatic tumors to study the role of intra-tumor phenotypic heterogeneity in tibia and lung

colonization. We identified that osteosarcoma cells maintained phenotypic heterogeneity despite

adapting their transcriptional phenotypes to tibia and lung microenvironmental conditions. This

phenotypic heterogeneity was marked by the existence of tumor subsets displaying

heterogeneous activation of distinct pathways, including glycolysis. Using immunofluorescence

we validated heterogeneity in glycolysis activity in both primary and metastatic tumors.

Furthermore, we validated the heterogeneous activation of multiple pathways identified in our

preclinical models using publicly available single cell RNA sequenced primary patient tumor

datasets. Finally, we combined a lentivirus-based lineage tracing system with single cell

transcriptomics to study phenotype and clonal dynamics simultaneously during tissue

colonization. Based on these investigations, we identified that osteosarcoma cells undergo

dynamic changes in their transcriptional phenotype as they adapt to different microenvironmental

conditions, while simultaneously maintaining an overall degree of transcriptional heterogeneity in

the wake of clonal selection. Overall, these data highlight the importance of understanding intra-

tumor heterogeneity in the context of tumor cell adaptations during tissue colonization.

Results

Transcriptional heterogeneity in cell line and PDX models of osteosarcoma

Recent work has shown that osteosarcoma tumors collected directly from patients exhibit

significant transcriptional heterogeneity(16,17). However, it is unclear if this heterogeneity is

maintained within cell line and PDX models of disease(6). We investigated phenotypic

heterogeneity within two *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of osteosarcoma by performing single-cell

RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq). We generated transcriptomic libraries from a cell line (OS-17) and

a PDX (NCH-OS-7; refer to supplementary *Table S 1* for full characteristics as per PDX-MI

standards) grown in cell culture or as subcutaneous flank tumors (>2,500 cells per model). To

distinguish tumor cells from murine host cells, we separated cells with reads that mapped to the

human genome from those that mapped to mouse. Principal component analysis identified that

majority of the variation in gene expression of tumor cells was dominated by cell cycle related

genes, a common finding in proliferative malignant tissues(18) (supplementary *Figure S 1*).

Scaling out cell-cycle related genes unmasked underlying heterogeneity that did not correspond

to variation arising solely from cells being in different states of cell cycle (supplementary *Figure*

S 1, *Figure 1*Figure 1A, B). Using genes that were differentially upregulated in each cluster relative

to the remaining cells in each sample, we identified pathways enriched in these subsets of cells

(*Figure 1*C). While subsets within each model shared some enriched gene sets--for example,

OS-17 cells in cluster 0 and cluster 1 showed enrichment for epithelial to mesenchymal transition

(EMT) genes--none of the subsets had completely identical profiles, suggesting that these

subsets are indeed functionally distinct. Interestingly, while EMT transcription factors play an

important role in promotion of osteosarcoma cell invasion and metastasis(19), expression of EMT-

related genes was associated with certain, distinct subsets. Furthermore, individual subsets had

differentially expressed genes that were associated with multiple gene sets. For example, OS-17

cells in cluster 2 were enriched for E2F targets, G2M checkpoint target genes, and MYC target

genes; while NCH-OS-7 cells in cluster 0 were enriched for genes associated with EMT,

glycolysis, hypoxia, and MYC target genes. This identification of gene sets exclusive to specific

clusters of cells validated that these cell line and PDX models demonstrate intra-tumor phenotypic

heterogeneity.

Transcriptional signatures associated with colonization of bone and lung

microenvironments

Microenvironment cues play a critical role in shaping transcriptional plasticity[20]. We

hypothesized that transcriptional signatures shared across models upon adaptation to tibia or lung

microenvironments will inform characteristics that are microenvironment-specific rather than

tumor-specific. Single cell suspensions of two cell lines and two PDXs were injected intra-tibially

or intra-venously to generate orthotopic models of primary and metastatic lesions (*Figure 2*A

schematic). Spontaneous metastases from orthotopic primary tumors could not be investigated

since mice bearing orthotopic lesions reached humane endpoint criteria before lung metastases

were detected. Both the PDXs included in this study (NCH-OS-2, NCH-OS-7) are early passage

(passage 3, passage 5) and were obtained from patient lung metastases to study the phenotypic

profiles of cells that have survived the metastatic bottleneck.

Table 1. **Characteristics of osteosarcoma models used in this study**

Model	Species	Type	Host	Endpoint	Characteristics
OS-17	Human	Cell Line	Icr-scid	70 days	Low passage, very well-characterized, reliable metastases
143B	Human	Cell Line	Icr-scid	65 days	Widely utilized, very well-characterized, reliable metastases
NCH-OS-2	Human	PDX	Icr-scid	200 days	Very low-passage, highly penetrant, from an untreated synchronous metastasis

NCH-OS-7	Human	PDX	Icr-scid	184 days	Very low-passage, highly penetrant, from a heavily-pretreated, multiply-relapsed metastasis

To study the transcriptional profiles associated with tibia and lung colonization, we performed a

pseudo-bulk analysis of the scRNA-seq data and identified genes differentially expressed in

primary tumors or metastatic lesions relative to their corresponding starting population (cell

culture/flank tumors). The majority of the differentially regulated genes were unique to each

model, with only 0.3-0.8% of genes shared across all four models (*Figure 2*B). Using genes that

were either up- or down-regulated in at least three of the four models (2.7-5.6% of genes), we

performed pathway enrichment analysis to identify pathways associated with colonization of tibia

or lung tissues (*Figure 2*C). Genes that were significantly upregulated upon tibia colonization

included those associated with glycolysis, hypoxia, MYC targets, fatty acid metabolism, and

oxidative phosphorylation. None of the identified downregulated gene sets were statistically

significant. Gene sets that were most significantly upregulated with lung colonization included

those associated with TNFα signaling via NFκB and EMT, whereas those most significantly

downregulated included MYC targets and MTORC1 signaling. Overall, we identified common

pathways that were differentially regulated across the four models upon tibia and lung

colonization.

Transcriptional heterogeneity of individual cells within a tumor

We analyzed single cell transcriptional profiles of the above datasets using our scRNA-seq

bioinformatics workflow to study the role of intra-tumor heterogeneity in tissue colonization

(*Figure 3*A). To estimate the degree of intra-tumor heterogeneity in our models, we computed

intra-tumor heterogeneity scores (ITH scores) from the average Euclidian distance between each

cell and every other cell in the same dataset(18). Since osteosarcoma can arise from transformed

progenitor cells with osteoblastic differentiation and osteoid production(6), we compared the

heterogeneity scores in osteosarcoma cells relative to human primary osteoblast cells grown in

cell culture. We found that irrespective of growth environment conditions, osteosarcoma cells had

significantly higher ITH scores than normal osteoblast cells (p <0.001, *Figure 3*B). Upon

investigation of the transcriptional profiles of osteoblast cells, we found that they exhibit a

moderate level of heterogeneity, concurrent with previous reports(21) (supplementary *Figure S*

2). We hypothesized that changes in microenvironment conditions would exert a selective

pressure on osteosarcoma cells and cause a narrowing of transcriptional heterogeneity.

Surprisingly, we found that osteosarcoma cells grown in tibia and lung microenvironments had

significantly higher ITH scores compared to those grown *in vitro* or as flank tumors, with NCH-

OS-7 being the only exception (p <0.001, *Figure 3*B). NCH-OS-7 cells showed no significant

change of ITH scores in primary tumors relative to flank tumors but a significant decrease in ITH

scores in metastatic lesions relative to flank tumor. Although, these cells were still more

heterogeneous than the osteoblast sample. Overall, these results show that osteosarcoma cells

are more transcriptionally heterogeneous than non-malignant osteoblast cells, and that

osteosarcoma cells demonstrated an increase rather than a narrowing of transcriptional

heterogeneity as they colonize the tibia and lung microenvironment.

To determine if primary tumors and metastatic lesions adopt similar phenotypes, we attempted to

use an integrative approach across models (supplementary *Figure S 3*). However, cells

predominantly clustered by tumor model of origin, a phenomenon reported in other cancers

including small cell lung cancers(18). This indicates a high degree of inter-tumor heterogeneity, a

well-known characteristic of osteosarcoma tumors(22). We then compared primary and

metastatic lesions within the same model (supplementary *Figure S 4*). Using a cluster distribution

analysis, we calculated the relative percentages of cells in each cluster to compare cells that

colonized the tibia or the lung (supplementary *Table* S 2). While we identified that there was a

significant overlap in the transcriptional profiles of cells that colonized the two microenvironments,

certain cells adopted profiles specific to each microenvironment (*Figure 3*C). For instance, both

primary and metastatic OS-17 lesions had cells that adopted the phenotype associated with cluster 0 (47% in tibia and 42% in lung), however, cells with the phenotype associated with cluster 2 were significantly enriched in metastatic lesions (1% in tibia and 40% in lung). Using the pathway enrichment analysis outlined in Figure 1, we investigated the transcriptional profiles associated with each cluster (**Figure 3**D). While we were unable to use an integrative approach to study shared phenotypes across models due to the high inter-tumor heterogeneity, this approach allowed us to compare intra-tumor heterogeneity profiles within models. Pathways enriched in each cluster were unique, with high heterogeneity in activation of individual pathways across clusters within the same tumor. For example, while OS-17 cells in cluster 0 and cluster 3 were associated with MTORC1 signaling, only cells in cluster 3 were enriched for Glycolysis related genes. Using publicly available scRNA-seq datasets of patient primary tumors, we validated the heterogeneity in these transcriptional modules within individual tumor cells (supplementary **Figure S 5** - **Figure S 8**). We therefore showed heterogeneity in activation of distinct pathways within tumor subsets, including those associated with glycolysis. This suggests osteosarcoma tumors are metabolically heterogeneous.

Metabolic heterogeneity in osteosarcoma tumors

To validate metabolic heterogeneity within individual tumors at the protein level, we performed immunofluorescence staining for a known activation marker of glycolysis, glucose transporter 1 (GLUT1), in lung metastases from two models (OS-17 and 143B). Sections were co-stained for vimentin to distinguish osteosarcoma cells from lung parenchyma. We observed variable staining for GLUT1 within individual metastatic lesions, suggesting that the observed heterogeneity was not a result of homogenous, spatially isolated lesions that stained differently from one another but instead was a result of heterogeneity intrinsic to individual lesions (**Figure 4**A, B). This observation was independent of the size of the lesions, suggesting that this metabolic heterogeneity is maintained over metastatic tumor growth. To confirm that this observation was

not as a result of stochastic gene expression changes in GLUT1 expression, we stained for other

markers of glycolysis (hexokinase 2–HK2, carbonic anhydrase 9–CA9, monocarboxylate

transporter 4–MCT4)(23) and a known upstream regulator of glycolysis, MYC(24). We measured

the intensity of GLUT1 fluorescence of individual pixels, along with fluorescence of other markers,

within areas positive for vimentin. We noted a high correlation in staining for GLUT1 and the other

markers within 143B and OS-17 metastatic lesions (*Figure 4*C, supplementary *Figure S 10*A).

Immunofluorescence staining for markers of glycolysis in primary tumors from these models

identified the same trend (supplementary *Figure S 9*, *Figure S 10*B, C). This staining validated

our bioinformatics finding of heterogeneity in glycolysis activation at the protein level and

confirmed that this heterogeneity was not the result of stochastic gene expression changes.

Lung colonization bottleneck enriches for clones that adopt a growth-associated

phenotype

We combined a lentivirus-based lineage tracing system with single cell transcriptomics to study

phenotype and clonal dynamics simultaneously as osteosarcoma cells colonize tibia and lung

microenvironments (*Figure 5*A). Lentivirus infection introduced a high diversity, heritable and

polyA-tail capture compatible lineage tag library in osteosarcoma cells in cell culture. Sampling

from this starting population of uniquely tagged cells, we generated orthotopic primary and

metastatic lesions. Single cell libraries of primary tumors, metastatic tumors and cells in culture

were processed bioinformatically to overlay phenotype and lineage information for each cell. At

the level of phenotype, we noted that cells in tibia and lung cluster away from cells in cell culture,

confirming our previous finding of adaptive changes as cells move from cell culture to tibia or lung

microenvironments (*Figure 5*B). Since the lineage tags are passed on from one generation to the

next as each cell divides, we used a frequency distribution analysis for lineage tags in the primary

and metastatic tumors to determine if tibia or lung colonization were associated with an

enrichment for clonal populations. In this context, "clonality" refers to cells with the same lineage

tag that originated from the same common ancestor. Lineage tag enrichment analysis for cells in

cell culture identified 85% of cells to have a unique lineage tag, confirming that our starting

population received lineage tags at high diversity. Surprisingly, cells from orthotopic primary

tumors exhibited very little evidence of clonal selection, suggesting that most clones that were

injected intra-tibially survived and colonized the tibia (*Figure 5*C). In contrast, cells from

metastatic lesions demonstrated enrichment for distinct lineage tagged populations, suggesting

selective enrichment for specific clonal families as cells traversed the lung colonization bottleneck

(*Figure 5*C). We confirmed this pattern of clonal selection was reproducible in two independent

replicates (supplementary *Figure S 11*A; supplementary *Table S 4*, *Table* S 5 for lentivirus

distribution in cell culture). Interestingly, OS-17 cells from distinct, biological replicates grown *in*

vitro or as metastatic lesions overlaid completely, suggesting that intra-tumor transcriptional

heterogeneity of these osteosarcoma cells is not driven by individual tumor identity

(supplementary *Figure S 11*B).

We overlaid lineage information on phenotypic profiles to determine if these enriched clonal

families in the lung adopted a common transcriptional profile. Interestingly, we found that cells

within a given enriched clonal families clustered together, suggesting that cells that belonged to

the same enriched clonal family passed on information regarding transcriptional phenotype from

one generation to the next (*Figure 5*D). Pathway enrichment analysis for the genes differentially

upregulated in the top 10 enriched clonal populations identified that these cells had genes

associated with hypoxia, glycolysis, EMT and MTORC1 signaling (*Figure 5*E-F*,*

Table S 3 for differentially upregulated genes). Together, these results show that the adaptive

transcriptional changes associated with lung colonization results in selection for clonal families

that adopt a unique growth-associated phenotype.

Discussion

These studies provide insight into the roles that intra-tumor heterogeneity, transcriptional

adaptation, and clonal evolution play as osteosarcoma cells colonize primary and metastatic

tumor microenvironments. Using orthotopic cell line and PDX models of osteosarcoma, we show

that tumor cells maintain transcriptional heterogeneity as they respond to changing

microenvironment conditions while also plastically adapting their transcriptional profiles. We

identified that primary and metastatic tumors demonstrate phenotypic heterogeneity where

subsets of cells upregulate genes associated with distinct pathways, including glycolysis, hypoxia,

EMT, and TNFα signaling via NFκB. We validated this functional heterogeneity for the identified

pathways in publicly available patient primary tumor datasets. Furthermore, we validated our

bioinformatics finding of metabolic heterogeneity using immunofluorescence staining and showed

that heterogeneity in glycolysis activation is observed within individual metastatic lesions

irrespective of lesion size and does not result from spatially isolated, metabolically distinct tumor

regions. Finally, by combining lineage tracing and phenotype analysis, we identified that lung

colonization enriches for specific clonal families that adopt a unique growth-associated

phenotype. Put together, our studies suggest a tumor-intrinsic mechanism that allows for

maintenance of phenotypic diversity, despite clonal selection, while undergoing adaptive

transcriptional changes during lung colonization (*Figure 6*).

Developmental process in normal cells have been shown to maintain an overall degree of

phenotypic heterogeneity(25,26). Congruently, osteoblast cells grown in cell culture

demonstrated a baseline level of phenotypic heterogeneity. In contrast, our study identified that

osteosarcoma cells, whether passaged in mice or cell culture, or exposed to selective pressures

of tissue colonization, maintained a higher degree of phenotypic heterogeneity than normal

osteoblast cells. Interestingly, the only sample that showed a decrease in phenotypic

heterogeneity on lung colonization relative to the starting population was obtained from a patient

with metastatic disease who received extensive chemotherapy, and hence was not representative

of cells that undergo early lung colonization. While more samples are needed to capture the true

heterogeneity in osteosarcoma, one might speculate that normal developmental processes

designed to maintain diverse phenotypes cooperate to support normal bone growth and that these

cooperative mechanisms may provide a survival advantage in a transformed malignant state.

While pseudo-bulk analyses identified shared pathways associated with tibia and lung

colonization across the models, single cell analysis identified that each tumor was composed of

phenotypically distinct subsets associated with unique combinations of activated pathways. In this

study, we validated our bioinformatics finding of heterogeneity in glycolytic activation by identifying

correlated staining patterns for four distinct markers of glycolysis activation, namely GLUT1, HK2,

CA9, MCT4(23), along with a known upstream regulator of GLUT1, MYC(24). We showed that

this heterogeneity in glycolysis activation is intrinsic to individual metastatic lesions and not a

result of spatially isolated metabolically distinct lesions. Strong correlation between stains for each

of these five markers confirmed that the observed heterogeneity did not arise from stochastic

gene expression changes. These findings also suggest that the Warburg effect is demonstrated

by only certain subsets within a tumor. The Warburg effect is a well-known phenomenon in cancer

cells(27,28), and our findings are in line with heterogeneous glycolysis activation reported in

recent single cell sequencing studies in other cancers(29). Furthermore, we validated

heterogeneous expression of genes associated with glycolysis and other pathways in publicly

available single-cell RNA sequenced primary patient samples, confirming that our observations

in immuno-deficient preclinical models of osteosarcoma holds true in patient samples. Overall,

we validated our bioinformatics finding of heterogeneous activation of glycolysis in both primary

and metastatic lesions and showed that tumor cells retain metabolic heterogeneity despite

selective pressures during tissue colonization.

Combining the power of scRNA-seq with lineage tracing allowed us to make inferences about

how clonal selection and transcriptional plasticity may contribute to the emergence of traits that

facilitate lung colonization. This approach allowed us to address previously unanswered questions

regarding the relationship between clonality and phenotype. We showed that lung colonization

enriches for multiple clonal families, wherein clonally related cells tend to have similar

transcriptional profiles. In contrast, tumor cells retained clonal diversity on tibia colonization,

suggesting that most cells that were injected intra-tibially survived and colonized the tibia. We

acknowledge that the study design employed remains agnostic of the multi-step process required

to effect metastasis in a patient. The design very simply asks whether the capacity to colonize

these different tissues is contained within a few rare clones with a pre-existing phenotype or

whether diverse groups of cells have the capacity to adapt to the stressors imposed by the tibia

or lung environment. Our results suggest that both answers have some truth. The drastic shift in

phenotype from cell culture or flank tumors to primary or metastatic tumors endorses the role of

microenvironment cues in shaping tumor cell behavior. However, lung colonization enriched for

specific clonal populations that all adopted a similar growth-associated phenotype. Genes

differentially upregulated in the top ten enriched clonal families overlapped mostly with genes

related to hypoxia and glycolysis. While hypoxia response is an important contributor to the

Warburg effect(30,31), these observations show that this growth-associated phenotype is not

adopted by the bulk of the metastatic tumor, but rather limited to clonal populations of cells that

are enriched for during lung colonization. These findings corroborate recent efforts with single cell

profiling of other cancers identifying metabolic heterogeneity(29). We recognize that our approach

does not determine whether the enriched clones composed individual metastatic lesions, or

whether different clones colonized individual lesions cooperatively, however,

immunofluorescence staining for glycolysis markers suggested that this metabolic heterogeneity

is likely inherent to individual lesions. While pseudo-bulk analyses identified genes associated

with TNFα signaling via NFκB and EMT to be most significantly upregulated upon lung

colonization (*Figure 2*C), differential gene expression analyses between the most enriched clones

and remaining metastatic cells identified a distinct transcriptional program associated with

activation of glycolysis and hypoxia related genes. These data put together suggest that lung colonization is likely a two-step process - initial survival followed by expansion in a subset of cells that adopt a growth-associated phenotype distinct from the remaining bulk of the metastatic tumor cells.

Conclusions

Overall, we show that osteosarcoma cells maintained intra-tumor phenotypic heterogeneity despite plastic adaptions during tibia and lung colonization, and the process of lung colonization enriched for distinct clonal populations. Interestingly, phenotype within enriched clonal families were retained across multiple cell divisions. Whether this conservation of phenotype in cells that originated from a common ancestor has an underlying genetic or epigenetic basis remains a point of active study. Additionally, maintenance of range/degree of intra-tumor heterogeneity endorses the role of cell-autonomous mechanisms in holding up a very basic evolutionary advantage associated with maintaining diverse phenotypic states(32). How this transcriptional heterogeneity is regulated in osteosarcoma cells and if underlying genomic heterogeneity engenders transcriptional heterogeneity remain to be seen.

Methods

Experimental model - PDXs, Cell lines and murine studies.

Patient derived xenografts (PDXs). OS-17 PDX tissue was obtained from a primary femur biopsy performed at St. Jude's Children's Research Hospital in Memphis and was a gift from Peter Houghton(33). Patient-derived samples, NCH-OS-2 and NCH-OS-7 were obtained from patients consented under an Institutional Review Board (IRB)-approved protocol IRB11-00478 at Nationwide Children's Hospital (Human Subject Assurance Number 00002860).

Cell lines. OS-17 cells were derived from an early passage of the OS-17 PDX (see above). These cells were grown in RPMI (Corning, 10-040-CV) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum

(FBS). 143B cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, CRL-8303)

and grown in DMEM (Corning, 10-013-CV) supplemented with 10% FBS. Human osteoblast cells

(hFOB 1.19) were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, CRL-11372) and

grown in DMEM (Corning, 10-013-CV) supplemented with 0.3 mg/ml G418 and 10% FBS. All cell

lines were tested annually for both STR genotyping and mycoplasma contamination using testing

services provided by Genetica.

Murine Studies. All animal studies were approved by Nationwide Children's Hospital Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC protocol AR12-00074). *A. Flank.* Cryopreserved viable

tissue pieces from OS-17, 143B, NCH-OS-2 and NCH-OS-7 PDX tumors were placed in the right

flank of recipient C.B-17/IcrHsd-Prkdc^{scid} mice (Envigo, Frederick, MD). These subcutaneous

tumors were allowed to grow to 300 mm3 before excision. These were then prepped for single-

cell RNA-seq. *B. Orthotopic primary tumors.* Single cell suspensions of OS-17, 143B, NCH-OS-2

and NCH-OS-7 were injected intra-tibially in C.B-17/IcrHsd-Prkdc^{scid} mice as per IACUC

guidelines. Primary tumors were excised once they grew to 800 mm3, and prepped for single-cell

RNA-seq. *C. Experimental metastasis.* Single cell suspensions of OS-17, 143B, NCH-OS-2 and

NCH-OS-7 were injected intra-venously in C.B-17/IcrHsd-Prkdc^{scid} mice. Lungs were harvested

once these mice reached endpoint. Endpoint criteria for euthanasia was defined as weight loss

of >10% or a body condition score (BCS) of <10. For fluorescence immunohistochemistry studies,

tumors were placed in 10% formalin for 24 hours at 4°C, then moved to (phosphate-buffered

saline) PBS for at least one hour at 4°C. Tissues were then placed in tissue cassettes and placed

in fresh PBS. Tissues were embedded in paraffin.

Fluorescent immunohistochemistry

Antibodies against glucose transporter 1, hexokinase 2, and carbonic anhydrase 9 were

purchased from Abcam (Cambridge, UK). An antibody against c-myc was purchased from

Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). An antibody against monocarboxylate transporter 4 was

purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Dallas, TX, USA). Antibodies against vimentin were

purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA) and Abnova (Taipei, Taiwan).

Anti-rabbit and mouse Alexa Fluor 488 antibodies, anti-rabbit and -mouse Alexa Fluor 568

antibodies, and DAPI (4, 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride) were purchased from

Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA).

Paraffin embedded tissues were cut into 4uM sections and placed on glass slides. The sections

were deparaffinized with xylene and rehydrated. Sections were submerged into a Tris-EDTA

solution (pH 9.0) or a citrate solution (pH 6.0) and heated for antigen retrieval. Sections were

blocked and permeabilized with a solution of PBS + 0.2% triton + 2% bovine serum albumin for

one hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies against glucose transporter 1 (Abcam, 1:200

dilutions), hexokinase 2 (3D3, Abcam, 1:10 dilutions), carbonic anhydrase 9 (2D3, Abcam, 1:100

dilutions), c-myc (9E10, Invitrogen, 1:100 dilutions), monocarboxylate transporter 4 (D-1, Santa

Cruz Biotechnology, 1:50 dilutions), rabbit anti-human vimentin (D21H3 Cell Signaling

Technology, 1:100 dilutions) and mouse anti-human vimentin (SRL33 Abnova, 1:200 dilutions)

were diluted in PBS + 0.2% triton + 2% bovine serum albumin. The blocking solution was removed

from slides and primary antibodies were applied to the sections overnight at 4°C. Sections were

washed three times with PBS + 0.2% triton. All secondary antibodies and DAPI (Invitrogen) were

diluted 1:500 in PBS + 0.2% triton + 2% bovine serum albumin and added to the samples for 1

hour at room temperature. Sections were washed three times with PBS + 0.2% triton, and once

a final time with reverse osmosis water. Samples were mounted in an aqueous mountant

(Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Each tissue section was co-stained for vimentin and one of the

other markers of interest.

Whole-section multichannel images were captured using a Nikon Ti2-E motorized microscope

with a Lumencor SOLA LED light engine (at 50% power), a Hamamatsu ORCA Fusion camera,

and Nikon Plan Apochromat Lambda objectives using Nikon NIS-Elements AR version 5.30

software. Each sample was imaged at 10x magnification with a final 16-bit image resolution of

0.64 µm/pixel. Identical imaging settings were used for all samples within the same staining and

imaging set.

Images were analyzed using Nikon NIS-Elements AR software version 5.30 with the General

Analysis 3 module. Semi-automated tumor segmentation was performed based on vimentin

staining, and the segmented regions were manually modified by an unbiased operator as needed

to ensure specific and complete tumor selection. Images were then rescaled to 1.28 µm/pixel and

the intensities of all pixels representing tumor tissue were recorded in a frequency table for each

sample. For assessing correlation between non-vimentin markers, image channels representing

each marker of interest from different tissue sections were aligned using the multimodal image

registration tool. Following alignment, an intensity profile line of 2-3 mm in length was plotted

through tumor regions showing diverse signal landscapes, and the intensities of pixels along the

profile line were recorded for each marker. All marker intensities were plotted by distance along

the profile line in GraphPad Prism software version 9.0.0, and the curves were smoothed using a

2nd order polynomial based on 50 neighboring points (25 on each side) to account for minor

mismatches in image channels from different tissue sections. The Pearson correlation of each

pair of markers was then calculated from the smoothed XY curves.

Single-cell RNA-Seq

Tumors harvested from mice were processed using the human tumor dissociation kit (Miltenyi

Biotec, 130-095-929) with a GentleMacs Octo Dissociator with Heaters (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-096-

427). Single cell suspensions in 0.04% BSA-PBS of cell lines, and dissociated tumor tissues were

generated and run on Chromium Single Cell 3′RNA-sequencing system (10x Genomics) with the

Reagent Kit v3 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cells were loaded into

Chromium Single Cell Chip v3 (10x Genomics) with a targeted cell recovery of 5,000 cells per

sample. After performing cDNA purification, amplification, and library construction (sample index

PCR 14 cycles) as instructed, we sequenced sample libraries on a half lane of HS4000 (Illumina)

to yield (after quality control) about 65,000 paired-end reads per cell.

Cellular Barcoding

We synthesized barcoded lentivirus library using CloneTracker XP™ 10M Barcode-3' Library with

Venus-Puro (plasmid) (Cellecta, BCXP10M3VP-P) as described in Wang and McManus 2009

(34) with PEI as the transfection reagent. We infected OS-17 cells with in-house prepared virus

library in the presence of Polybrene (8 µg/ml). The barcoded plasmids contain ~10M 38-bp semi-

random oligonucleotide sequence that is captured on the Chromium Single Cell 3′RNA-

sequencing system. 48 h post-infection, OS-17 cells were used to generate orthotopic primary

and metastatic tumor models as described above.

Cellular Barcoding Computational Analysis

Raw sequencing data was pre-processed to extract the lineage tag (LT) using known flanking

sequences, and the matching cell ID (CID). Lines without high-confidence cell ID assignment

were removed and redundant reads were removed. The extracted LT barcode reads were

matched against the know Cellecta barcode library. Reads with barcodes that didn't match the

Cellecta library were eliminated. The LT barcode for each matching CID was integrated into the

SEURAT object metadata to allow for further analysis (see below).

Single-cell RNA-Seq analysis

Cell Ranger version 3.0.2 (10x Genomics) was used to convert Illumina BCL files to FASTQ files.

These FASTQ files were then de-multiplexed and aligned to the hg19 human reference genome

provided by 10X Genomics, to generate gene-cell matrices. We used the SEURAT R

package(35–37) for quality control, filtering, and analysis of the data. Cells were filtered to remove

doublets (outliers with high count and high genes per cell), low quality cells (outliers with low count

and low genes per cell), and cells with high mitochondrial genes (indicative of cells with broken

membrane). Cells with fewer than 800 expressed genes and genes expressed in fewer than 5

cells were filtered out. The total numbers of cells in each model after filtering were as follows:

Osteoblasts (cell culture): 5735; OS-17 (cell culture): 3,178; OS-17 (tibia): 4,574; OS-17(lung):

2,849; 143B (cell culture): 3,354; 143B (tibia): 6,187; 143B (lung): 5,134; NCH-OS-2 (flank):

6,749; NCH-OS-2 (tibia): 4,285; NCH-OS-2 (lung): 1,645; NCH-OS-7 (flank): 1,998; NCH-OS-7

(tibia): 2,891; NCH-OS-7 (lung): 5,133. In analyses that required comparison across conditions

or models, samples were subset to contain equal numbers of cells and this number is specified

in the figure legends. We transformed and normalized unique molecular identifier (UMI) counts

using the 'NormalizeData' function in SEURAT package version 4.0.2(38) with default

parameters. We mitigated the effects of cell cycle heterogeneity by regressing out canonical

G2/M- and S-Phase genes using the 'ScaleData' function in SEURAT. Principle component

analysis (PCA) was performed using the top 2,000 highly variable genes identified by the

SEURAT function 'FindVariableFeatures' with default parameters. For each dataset, the first

twenty principal components were selected based on the elbow plot for percentage explained

variances, representing ~55.5–60.3% of total variances. The UMAP transformation(39) was

performed on selected principal components using the 'RunUMAP' function. We applied shared

nearest neighbor (SNN) modularity optimization(40) for clustering. We calculated silhouette

scores for different number of clusters (from two clusters to ten clusters) to measure how similar

one cell was to other cells in its own cluster compared with other clusters using the silhouette

function in the R package cluster. We determined the optimum number of clusters for each sample

by maximizing the Silhouette score. Datasets were integrated using four different approaches

(FastMNN(41), SCTransform(42), Harmony(43), merge Seurat objects(44)) to determine the

optimal method. PCA using the expression of cell cycle genes identified that integrating datasets

with 'merge' function in SEUART or application of Harmony gave consistent results where cells

did not cluster by cell cycle.

Marker genes were identified for each cluster relative to other clusters using the 'FindMarkers'

function, returning only positive markers, with 'test.use' set to DESeq2(45) which uses a negative

binomial distribution. Pathway enrichment analysis was performed on these markers genes using

the enricher function in the R package clusterProfiler(46) with default parameters with msigdb

Hallmark gene sets(47). Pseudo-bulk analysis was performed by setting identities of each cell to

the sample. We identified gene differentially regulated using the 'FindMarkers' function for both

positive and negative markers upon tibia or lung colonization. Pathway enrichment analysis was

performed on these markers as described above. The ITH score was calculated as described in

Stewart et al.(18) Briefly, it was defined as the average Euclidean distance between each cell to

every other cell in each sample, in terms of the selected principal components.

We downloaded validation datasets from Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) for seven patient

primary tumor tissues published in a recent study (GEO accession number-GSE152048)(16). We

used the Seurat R package(35–37) for quality control, filtering, and analysis of these gene

expression matrices. Cells were filtered to remove doublets, low quality cells, and cells with high

mitochondrial genes as described above. Cells with fewer than 800 expressed genes and genes

expressed in fewer than 5 cells were filtered out. We transformed and normalized UMI counts

using the 'NormalizeData' function in SEURAT package version 4.0.2(38) with default

parameters. Principle component analysis (PCA) was performed using the top 2,000 highly

variable genes identified by the SEURAT function 'FindVariableFeatures' with default parameters.

Using the marker gene sets used in the paper(16), we separated tumor cells from patient host

cells. For each sample, the first twenty principal components were selected based on the elbow

plot for percentage explained variances, representing ~51.8–61.5% of total variances. The UMAP

transformation(39) was performed on selected principal components using the 'RunUMAP'

function. Module scores for Glycolysis, Hypoxia, EMT, TNFα signaling via NFκB were calculated

using the 'AddModuleScore' function in SEURAT with corresponding Hallmark msigdb gene sets

as input features for the expression program.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using R software environment for statistical computing(48)

and Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, Inc.). The packages used in R software are mentioned through

the text in the methods section. For differential gene expression analysis, a negative binomial

model (DESeq2)(45) was used. For multiple testing, p values were adjusted using Benjamini

Hochberg (BH) correction. For ITH score comparisons, data were subjected to one-way analysis

of variance (ANOVA) followed by Šidák multiple comparisons test.

Abbreviations

PDX: patient-derived xenograft

ITH: intra-tumor heterogeneity

EMT: epithelial to mesenchymal transition

MTORC1: mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) complex 1.

PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase

AKT: Protein kinase B

TGF: Transforming growth-factor

TNFα: tumor necrosis factor α

NFKB: Nuclear Factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Patient-derived samples were obtained from patients consented under an Institutional Review

Board (IRB)-approved protocol IRB11-00478 at Nationwide Children's Hospital (Human Subject

Assurance Number 00002860).

All animal studies were approved by Nationwide Children's Hospital Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee (IACUC protocol AR12-00074).

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the NCBI's Gene

Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository,

[https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE179681].

Code availability

The bioinformatics analyses were performed using open-source software, including SEURAT

version 4.0.2(38), clusterProfiler version 3.14.3(46), and Cell Ranger version 3.0.2. All code is

deposited in https://github.com/kidcancerlab/OSHetero2021.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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Authors' contributions

SR and RDR conceived and designed the study. SR and RDR developed the methodology. MC

and ACG prepared libraries for next-generation sequencing. SR, CT, MW, MVC, AO and EF

performed computation analysis. CAM performed Immuno-fluorescence staining. TAV and KMF

supported image acquisition and analysis of immunofluorescence experiments. SR and RDR

interpreted all the consolidated data and wrote the manuscript. SR, CAM and RDR edited the

manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Figures

***Figure 1.* Cell line and PDX models of osteosarcoma display transcriptional heterogeneity.** A) UMAP analysis of OS-17 cells (n = 3178) grown in cell culture. Cell cycle distribution of cells (n = 3178) is visualized as pie charts. B) UMAP analysis of NCH-OS-7 cells (n = 1998) grown as subcutaneous flank tumor. Cell cycle distribution of cells is visualized as pie charts. C) Pathway enrichment analysis for hallmark gene sets associated with genes upregulated in distinct clusters identified in the two osteosarcoma models. P values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. Boxes in grey identify non-significant enrichments, whereas boxes in red identify statistically significant enrichments. MTORC1: mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) complex 1. PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase. AKT: Protein kinase B. TGF:

Transforming growth-factor. TNF: tumor necrosis factor. NFKB: Nuclear Factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells.

Figure 2. **Osteosarcoma cells adopt distinct transcriptional profiles as they colonize tibia and lung microenvironments.** A) Schematic of study design depicting generation of orthotopic primary and metastatic tumors. Tumors were harvested for scRNA-seq when mice reached endpoint. B) Venn diagrams showing overlap of differentially expressed genes that are up- or down- regulated in primary or metastatic tumors relative to corresponding starting population of cells (cell line or PDX flank tumors). Region outlined in red identifies differentially expressed genes shared across at least three models. C) Pathway enrichment analysis with adjusted p values for hallmark gene sets associated with these shared genes.

Figure 3. **Osteosarcoma cells retain phenotypic heterogeneity despite adaptive changes in response to changing microenvironments.** A) Schematic outlining scRNA-seq bioinformatics workflow. B) Osteosarcoma cells exhibited higher ITH scores than that of osteoblasts grown in cell culture (####p <0.001). Within model comparison, identified increase in ITH scores as cells colonize tibia and lung microenvironments, with the exception of NCH-OS-7 (****p <0.001). P values were adjusted using Šidák multiple comparisons test. C) UMAP

analysis for merged primary and metastatic samples in each of the four models. Cells in grey represent remaining cells in merged sample. Cluster enrichment analysis shows distribution of cells in each cluster in the two microenvironment conditions (tibia, lung). While some cells in the primary and metastatic lesions adopted shared phenotypes, others adopted distinct phenotypes. D) Metabolic heterogeneity in glycolysis activation. We used a pathway enrichment analysis for hallmark gene sets using genes differentially upregulated in each cluster relative to every other cluster within the same model. P values were adjusted for multiple comparisons. Boxes in grey identify non-significant pathway enrichments, whereas boxes in red identify statistically significant enrichments. Bar plot shows percentage of cells identified per cluster in lung metastases. In B-D, samples subset to equal number of cells to allow inter-model comparison (n=1500 per condition).

Figure 4. **Heterogeneity in Glycolysis activation identified within metastatic osteosarcoma lesions.** A, B) Immunofluorescence staining of mouse lungs bearing OS-17 and 143B metastatic tumors, respectively, for GLUT1 (green; a marker of glycolysis) and vimentin (red; marker to identify osteosarcoma cells). Magnified GLUT1 staining is shown for the boxed regions on the whole-section images. Lesion edges are indicated by white outlines in the magnified regions. Tumors showed a high degree of intra-tumor variation in GLUT1 staining intensity. C) Correlation of fluorescence intensity of markers of glycolysis (CA9, HK2, MCT4) and an upstream regulator (MYC) with GLUT1 along a ~3mm profile line drawn through the lesions. The location and intensity of staining was highly correlated with GLUT1 for all markers. Representative of n=3 mice

***Figure 5.* Lung colonization bottleneck enriches for clonal populations with a common transcriptional phenotype.** A) Schematic of experimental set-up. B) UMAP analysis of lineage tagged OS-17 cells in culture, implanted into tibia, or inoculated to generate lung metastases. These lineage tags are heritable allowing us to track the transcriptional profiles of daughter cells originating from the same ancestor. Metastatic and orthotopic samples share many cells with similar phenotypes, though cultured cells are dramatically different (n = 2800 per condition) C) Frequency distribution of clones identified in each of the conditions. A high level of clonal diversity is maintained in the orthotopic tumors (78% unique clones in primary tumor compared to 86% unique clones in cell culture); though dominant clones emerge in the lung (only 33% unique clones). D) Overlay of cells sharing a common ancestor onto the dimensional reduction plots in the top four enriched clonal families. E) UMAP visualization of cells belonging to top ten enriched clonal families highlighted in red. F) Pathway enrichment analysis for hallmark gene

sets comparing enriched clones relative to the remaining metastatic tumor cells identifies Hypoxia, Glycolysis, EMT and MTORC1 signaling related genes to be significantly upregulated.

***Figure 6*. Schematic of tumor cell adaptation to changing microenvironments.** Osteosarcoma cells demonstrate high transcriptional heterogeneity (colors) in cell culture, orthotopic tibia and lung microenvironments. Tumors that grow in the orthotopic primary lesions follow dynamics of neutral evolution where different cancer clones (shapes) co-exist and propagate simultaneously. The selective pressure of lung colonization results in enrichment of clonal families with different phenotypes (colors), where cells belonging to the same family (shape) tend to have similar phenotypes (color).

Figure S 1. **Majority of the variance in our osteosarcoma datasets is dominated by cell cycle associated genes.** OS-17 cells were scored based on expression of G2/M and S phase markers, described in Tirosh et al. 2016(49). A) UMAP analysis and B) PCA on cell cycle genes before cell cycle regression reveals that cells separate entirely by phase, confirmed using B) Ridge plots visualizing the distribution of cell cycle markers. After regressing out cell cycle scores, UMAP analysis and PCA on cell cycle genes show that cells no longer separate by phase. This is confirmed using Ridge plots of cell cycle markers. These plots are representative of all datasets.

Figure S 2. **Osteoblast cells demonstrate phenotypic heterogeneity.** A. UMAP analysis of normal human osteoblast cells in cell culture B. Pathway enrichment analysis against msigdb C2 canonical pathways on genes differentially upregulated in each cluster relative remaining cells in the dataset.

Figure S 3. **High inter-tumor heterogeneity identified between models.** A. UMAP analysis of merged datasets. B. Application of Harmony forces similarity between heterogeneous populations of cells.

Figure S 4. **Integrative analysis for within-model comparison of primary and metastatic lesions.** A, B Application of FastMNN or SCTransform between replicate samples demonstrated complete overlay, however cells separated largely by state of cell cycle. C. Application of harmony or merging Seurat objects demonstrated similar trend. Cells did not cluster based on state of cell cycle (data not shown).

Figure S 5. **Heterogeneous activation of Glycolysis identified across multiple patient primary tumor datasets.** FeaturePlots for Glycolysis module score in each of the datasets. Module score for Glycolysis was calculated using the 'AddModuleScore' function in Seurat with msigdb HALLMARK_GLYCOLYSIS genes as input features for expression program.

Figure S 6. **Heterogeneous activation of Hypoxia related genes identified across multiple patient primary tumor datasets.** FeaturePlots for Hypoxia module score in each of the datasets. Module score for Hypoxia was calculated using the 'AddModuleScore' function in Seurat with msigdb HALLMARK_HYPOXIA genes as input features for expression program.

Figure S 7. **Heterogeneous activation of EMT related genes identified across multiple patient primary tumor datasets.** FeaturePlots for EMT module score in each of the datasets. Module score for EMT was calculated using the 'AddModuleScore' function in Seurat with msigdb HALLMARK_EPITHELIAL_MESENCHYMAL_TRANSITION genes as input features for expression program.

Figure S 8. **Heterogeneous activation of 'TNFα signaling via NFκB' related genes identified across multiple patient primary tumor datasets.** FeaturePlots for TNFα signaling via NFκB module score in each of the datasets. Module score for TNFα signaling via NFκB was calculated using the 'AddModuleScore' function in Seurat with msigdb HALLMARK_TNFα_SIGNALING_VIA_NFκB genes as input features for expression program.

Scale = 2 mm   Scale = 0.5 mm

Figure S 9. **Primary tumors demonstrate heterogeneity in GLUT1 staining.** A, B) Immunofluorescence staining of OS-17 and 143B primary tumors, respectively, for GLUT1 (green; a marker of glycolysis) and vimentin (red; marker to identify osteosarcoma cells). Magnified GLUT1 staining is shown for the boxed regions on the whole-section images. Lesion edges are indicated by white outlines in the magnified regions. Tumors showed a high degree of intra-tumor variation in GLUT1 staining intensity.

Figure S 10. **High correlation between multiple markers of Glycolysis activation in primary and metastatic osteosarcoma lesions.** Correlation of fluorescence intensity of markers of glycolysis (CA9, HK2, MCT4), an upstream regulator (MYC) with GLUT1 along a ~3mm profile line drawn through the corresponding primary and metastatic lesions. The location and intensity of staining was highly correlated with GLUT1 for all markers.

Figure S 11. **Replicates demonstrate reproducible Lineage tag enrichment profiles and consistent phenotypic profiles.** A) Frequency distribution of clones identified in each of the conditions generated using a biological replicate of the starting population (cells infected with separate batch of lentivirus library). B) Admixing of OS-17 cells from distinct, biological replicates grown *in vitro* or as metastatic lesions suggests that intra-tumor transcriptional heterogeneity of osteosarcoma cells is not driven by individual tumor identity.

Table S 1. Characteristics of Patient-Derived Tumor Xenograft Models used in this study

Module	Field	NCH-OS-2	NCH-OS-7
Clinical/patient	Submitter patient ID	X0070	X0140
	Gender	Male	Female
	Age	20-25	15-20
	Diagnosis	Metastatic osteosarcoma	Metastatic osteosarcoma
	Consent to share data	Available to academic centers only	Yes
	Ethnicity/race	Caucasian	Caucasian
	Current treatment drug		
	Virology status	HepA(-), HepB(-), HepC(-), HIV-1(-), HIV-2(-), Mycoplasma(-)	HepA(-), HepB(-), HepC(-), HIV-1(-), HIV-2(-), Mycoplasma(-)
Clinical/tumor	Submitter tumor ID	X0070	X0140
	Primary tumor tissue of origin	Bone	Bone
	Primary, metastasis, recurrence	Metastasis	Recurrence
	Specimen tumor tissue	Lung	Lung
	Tumor grade; classification	High Grade	High grade
	Disease stage; classification	metastatic osteosarcoma	metastatic osteosarcoma
	Specific markers (diagnostic linked); platform	N/A	N/A
	Is tumor from untreated patient?	Yes	No
	Original tumor sample type	Surgical resection	Open biopsy
	Tumor from an existing PDX model? ID? Why sub-line?	No	No
Model creation	Submitter PDX ID	NCH-OS-2	NCH-OS-7

	Mouse strain (and source)	C.B-17/IcrHan Hsd-Prkdcscid	C.B-17/IcrHan Hsd-Prkdcscid
	Strain immune system humanized?	No	No
	Type of humanization	NA	NA
	Tumor preparation	Solid tumor fragments and cell suspension	Solid tumor fragments and cell suspension
	Injection type and site	Subcutaneous, flank; Intravenous, tail vien; Intraosseous, tibial plate	Subcutaneous, flank; Intravenous, tail vien; Intraosseous, tibial plate
Model quality assurance	Tumor characterization technology	Histology and IHC	Histology and IHC
	Tumor confirmed not to be of mouse/EBV origin	84% Human tissue	76% Human tissue
	Passage QA performed	Passage P3	Passage P5
Model study	Treatment, passage	No previous treatment	No previous treatment
Associated metadata	PDX model availability?	Yes, frozen tumor	Yes, frozen tumor
	Governance restriction for distribution	Available to academic centers only	Available to academic centers only

Table S 2. Relative percentage of cells distributed between clusters in each model between Tibia and Lung colonization conditions

OS-17	Condition	Cluster	Relative percentage
	Tibia	0	50.26325
	Tibia	1	43.45384
	Tibia	2	1.053001
	Tibia	3	5.229905
	Lung	0	46.57775
	Lung	1	10.17901
	Lung	2	39.69814
	Lung	3	3.545104

143B	Tibia	0	97.89638
	Tibia	1	1.149201
	Tibia	2	0.447994
	Tibia	3	0.506428
	Lung	0	2.220491
	Lung	1	92.30619
	Lung	2	3.350214
	Lung	3	2.123101
NCH-OS-2	Tibia	0	82.28155
	Tibia	1	5.339806
	Tibia	2	12.37864
	Lung	0	20.32767
	Lung	1	71.48058
	Lung	2	8.191748
NCH-OS-2	Tibia	0	0
	Tibia	1	59.4258
	Tibia	2	40.5742
	Tibia	3	0
	Lung	0	71.01349
	Lung	1	1.383604
	Lung	2	1.176064
	Lung	3	26.42684

Table S 3. Table showing differentially upregulated genes in the top ten enriched clonal families relative to the remaining metastatic OS-17 cells

	P value	Average log2(fold-change)	Adjusted p value
PTPRZ1	3.49E-24	0.340175	7.04E-20
CD9	9.46E-21	0.522326	1.91E-16
GZMB	3.52E-20	0.360582	7.1E-16
ENO2	8.76E-16	0.516978	1.77E-11
AQP1	1.84E-15	0.298789	3.71E-11
CDC42EP3	2.58E-14	0.302923	5.2E-10
P4HA2	1.1E-12	0.515958	2.21E-08
TGFBI	1.57E-12	0.522179	3.16E-08
COL6A2	3.66E-12	0.456208	7.37E-08

BEX1	9.34E-12	0.252685	1.88E-07
WDR54	1.21E-11	0.264337	2.44E-07
S100A10	6.43E-11	0.308953	1.3E-06
MIF	7.32E-10	0.370393	1.47E-05
TPI1	4.65E-09	0.285224	9.38E-05
ENO1	6.68E-09	0.468255	0.000135
VEGFA	2.77E-08	0.752467	0.000558
FLNB	2.92E-08	0.260708	0.000589
COL6A1	1.18E-07	0.287235	0.002379
PGK1	2.51E-07	0.609942	0.005059
S100A2	3.03E-07	0.421746	0.006097
GBE1	3.05E-07	0.318568	0.006149
SEC61G	4.59E-07	0.258519	0.009259
PFKP	5.71E-07	0.331277	0.011517
FAM162A	5.76E-07	0.682216	0.011619
BEND5	6.43E-07	0.251597	0.012955
LGALS3	1.98E-06	0.342243	0.997

Table S 4. Lineage tag distribution statistics for two biological replicates

Replicate 1		
Number of copies	Frequency	Percentage
1	2283	69.4
2	659	20.0
3	217	6.6
4	76	2.3
5	32	1.0
6	10	0.3
7	9	0.3
11	1	0.0
13	1	0.0
14	1	0.0
Replicate 2		
Number of copies	Frequency	Percentage
1	482	84.0

2	69	12.0
3	15	2.6
4	6	1.0
5	2	0.3

Table S 5. Lineage tag summary statistics for two biological replicates

Replicate 1	
Summary Statistics	
Min.	1
1stQu.	1
Median	1
Mean	1.483
3rdQu.	2
Max.	14
Replicate 2	
Summary Statistics	
Min.	1
1stQu.	1
Median	1
Mean	1.218
3rdQu.	1
Max.	5