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A compromise between Tgfβ and Egfr signaling programs confers the ability

to lead heterogeneous collective invasion

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ABSTRACT

Phenotypic heterogeneity promotes tumor evolution and confounds treatment. Minority subpopulations of trailblazer cells enhance the heterogeneity of invading populations by creating paths in extracellular matrix (ECM) that permit the invasion of phenotypically diverse siblings. The regulatory programs that induce a trailblazer state are poorly understood. Here, we define a new Tgfβ induced trailblazer population that is more aggressive than previously characterized Keratin 14 expressing trailblazer cells. Rather than triggering a binary switch to a single trailblazer state, Tgfβ induced multiple unique states that were distinguished by their expression of regulatory transcription factors, genes involved in ECM reorganization and capacity to initiate collective invasion. The integration of a parallel Egfr signaling program was necessary to induce pro-motility genes and could be targeted with clinically approved drugs to prevent trailblazer invasion. Surprisingly, Egfr pathway activity also had the collateral consequence of antagonizing the expression of a cohort of Tgfβ induced ECM remodeling genes, potentially limiting features of trailblazer invasion. Together, our results reveal a new compromise mode of signal integration that promotes a trailblazer state and can be therapeutically targeted to prevent collective invasion.

INTRODUCTION

Tumor cell phenotypic heterogeneity is the product of genetic and epigenetic variability, localized differences in the microenvironment and stochastic fluctuations in intracellular signaling pathways (1). This diversity in cell phenotypes drives tumor evolution (2). Cells with traits that provide a competitive advantage over siblings become predominant, improving the fitness of the population (3). High variance in cell phenotypes also increases the odds that a subpopulation has the potential to survive when the local environment changes, such as during treatment or when disseminating cells seed other organs (4, 5). Interestingly, analysis of intrinsic and genetically engineered heterogeneity has revealed that phenotypic diversity also promotes functional interactions between tumor cells (6, 7). Rare enabler tumor subpopulations can promote the growth, immune evasion, invasion and metastasis of abundant siblings harboring different phenotypic traits (8-13). However, the regulatory programs that promote functional relationships between phenotypically distinct subpopulations remain poorly understood. This lack of mechanistic insight limits our ability to define the presence of functional tumor cell interactions, evaluate their impact on patient outcome, and develop new treatment options designed to target rare enabler cells (14).

To better understand how subpopulation relationships are induced during tumor progression, we sought to understand how tumor cells are conferred with the ability to promote the collective invasion of intrinsically less invasive siblings. Collective invasion is the predominant mode of invasion in carcinomas and promotes the dispersion of tumor clusters that seed metastases (15-19). Subpopulations of trailblazer cells detected in breast, lung and thyroid tumor populations have an enhanced ability to reorganize the extracellular matrix (ECM) into micro-tracks that facilitate the initiation of collective invasion (20-23). Importantly, sibling opportunist populations invade

through the micro-tracks created by minority trailblazer populations in three-dimensional culture

models and xenograft tumors (21, 24, 25). Moreover, opportunist cells can have greater prolifera-

tive capacity than trailblazers in vitro and in xenografts, indicating that trailblazer-opportunist re-

lationships have the potential to increase the proliferative fitness of invading cell populations (24,

25). Thus, trailblazer cells promote phenotypic diversity in invading cell cohorts, which may in-

crease the risk of metastasis and elevate the risk of resistance to treatment (26, 27).

Trailblazer cells are distinguished from the bulk tumor population by the increased expres-

sion of trailblazer genes, including regulators of the actin cytoskeleton, integrins, receptor tyrosine

kinases, keratins, and cancer testes antigens (20, 21, 23, 24, 28). Trailblazer genes contribute to

the formation of actin-rich cellular protrusions that provide traction and exert tensile forces neces-

sary for ECM remodeling and other undefined functions (21, 23, 25). Interestingly, trailblazer

genes are not required for other forms of cell movement, including migration along two-dimen-

sional surfaces, movement within spheroids and opportunistic collective invasion (21). While

genes that specifically contribute to unique invasive characteristics of trailblazer cells have begun

to be defined, the regulatory programs underpinning the conversion to a trailblazer state remain

largely unknown. Trailblazer cells in breast and lung cancer cell line models are epigenetically

distinct from opportunist siblings, although the processes that initiate the conversion to the trail-

blazer state are not known (21, 23). Breast cancer trailblazer cells have basal characteristics, with

Keratin 14 (Krt14) expression proposed as a universal feature for identifying trailblazer cells in

mammary tumors (18, 20, 29, 30). Yet, the program controlling the induction of a basal trailblazer

state is undefined. Breast cancer trailblazer cells also have features of epithelial-mesenchymal

transition (EMT) re-programming (21). However not all EMT programs yield trailblazer activity

and whether EMT programs regulate the expression of trailblazer genes is not known (25, 31).

Thus, if and how the EMT process imbues a trailblazer state is unclear. Our poor understanding of

how trailblazer populations are induced limits options for potential interventions targeting trail-

blazer cells and advances in employing subpopulation identification to refine patient outcome pre-

dictions.

To define factors regulating trailblazer program activity, we determined how cells were

induced to collectively invade in the C3-TAg genetically engineered mouse model (GEMM) of

breast cancer. Based on histological analysis, breast cancer is defined as Estrogen Receptor-posi-

tive (ER-positive), Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor-positive (HER2-pos) or triple-neg-

ative (TNBC), which have low to undetectable levels of ER, HER2 and the Progesterone Receptor

(32). Breast cancer is further stratified into luminal A, luminal B, HER2-enriched and basal-like

based on mRNA expression. Luminal A are Estrogen Receptor-positive (ER-pos) while luminal B

are more proliferative and are ER-pos or HER2-pos (33). The HER2-enriched subtype is generally

HER2-pos and 70-80% of the Basal-like are TNBC (33). The C3-TAg model is most similar to

human basal-type triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) (34, 35). Through the analysis of tumor

organoid invasion dynamics, a data driven functional dissection of cellular re-programming and

quantitative imaging of fixed tumor sections, we discovered a Tgfβ regulated program that was

necessary to induce and sustain a trailblazer state in C3-TAg tumors and validated this discovery

in breast cancer patient tumor samples. Surprisingly, the Tgfβ regulated trailblazer cells were not

specified by Krt14 expression and were more aggressive than a previously defined Krt14 express-

ing trailblazer population detected in a luminal B GEMM, indicating that there are multiple differ-

ent programs for conferring trailblazer ability in breast tumors. In addition, trailblazer cells induced

by Tgfβ signaling were themselves heterogeneous, having different degrees of re-programming

and capacities to initiate invasion. Tgfβ signaling collaborated with a parallel Egfr-Mek1/2-

Erk1/2-Fra1 pathway to coordinate the expression of a subset of pro-motility genes, including Axl.

Interestingly, the integration was also equivalently antagonistic in scope, with Egfr activity re-

stricting the Tgfβ induced expression of a cohort of pro-invasive genes. Notably, clinically ap-

proved inhibitors of Egfr, Mek1/2 and Axl suppressed collective invasion. This indicated that the

collateral inhibition of subset of pro-invasive genes by the Egfr pathway was a compromise that

was necessary for manifestation of the trailblazer state. Thus, our results reveal how a new type of

trailblazer cell is induced by a therapeutically addressable compromise between Tgfβ and Egfr

signaling programs.

RESULTS

The trailblazer cells in basal-like tumors are distinct from trailblazer cells in luminal B tumors.

To define factors that initiate the conversion to a trailblazer state, we investigated the invasive properties of tumor cells isolated from the C3(1)/SV40 T-antigen (C3-TAg) GEMM of basal-like TNBC (34, 35) and **(Table S1)**. We first determined if there was heterogeneity with respect to the ability to invade in the tumor populations, which would indicate the potential for trailblazer-opportunist relationships. Indeed, there was extensive heterogeneity in the invasive ability of tumor organoids and single dissociated tumor cells **(Fig. 1A, S1A,B, Video S1,S2)**. Clonal invasive (D6 and C7) and clonal non-invasive cells (B6 and G2) were also derived from a single C3-TAg tumor **(Fig. S1C-E, Table S1)**. To test whether the invasive subpopulations in C3-TAg tumors could lead the invasion of siblings, we generated heterogeneous clusters containing C3-TAg tumor cells and intrinsically non-invasive B6 cells **(Fig. 1B, Videos S3-5)**. The C3-TAg tumor cells and the D6 cells led the collective invasion of B6 cells **(Fig. 1B, S1E, Videos S3,6)**. These combined results indicated that there were trailblazer subpopulations in C3-TAg tumors with an enhanced ability to lead the collective invasion of intrinsically less invasive siblings.

To understand how the trailblazer state was induced in C3-TAg tumor cells, we next evaluated the relationship between Krt14 expression and the ability of cells to lead collective invasion. Krt14 identifies cells that have converted from a luminal noninvasive state to a basal trailblazer state in the PyMT GEMM model of luminal B breast cancer, which is commonly used to study breast cancer invasion and metastasis (20, 36). Based on these results, it has been suggested that a basal gene expression program exemplified by Krt14 expression is a universal feature of breast

Figure 1

Figure 1. Trailblazer cells in basal-like tumors are distinct from trailblazer cells in luminal B tumors.
A. There is intra- and inter-tumor invasive heterogeneity in C3-TAg organoids. Graphic shows the process for the derivation and analysis of tumor organoids. Representative images show the invasive heterogeneity of C3-TAg organoids derived from a single tumor. Image mask defines invasive cell nuclei. Violin plot shows the quantification of organoid invasion from 5 C3-TAg tumors. (Mann Whitney test, n= organoids). Scale bars, 50 μm. **B.** C3-TAg tumors contain trailblazer cells that can lead the collective invasion of intrinsically less invasive cells. Graphic shows the process for generating homogeneous and heterogeneous clusters. Images show clusters immunostained with anti-SV40 antibody (detects TAg in all tumor cells), counterstained with Hoechst (nuclei) and H2B:mCherry fluorescence (B6 cells only). C3-TAg tumor cells (unlabeled) promoted the invasion of B6 cells (H2B:mCherry). Solid arrow indicates a C3-TAg tumor cell leading invasion. Dashed arrow indicates a B6 cell invading behind the C3-TAg cell. Graph shows the relative area of invading B6 nuclei from 3 independent experiments (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n= clusters,). Scale bars, 20 μm. **C.** Krt14 expression does not correlate with C3-TAg tumor invasion. Krt14, SV40 (C3-TAg) and E-Cad (PyMT) expression in the tumor core and tumor-stromal interface of C3-TAg and PyMT tumors. Solid and dashed arrows indicate Krt14^{pos} and Krt14^{neg} cells at the leading collectively invading cells respectively. Violin plot shows percentage of tumor cell area expressing Krt14. (Mann Whitney Test, n=ROIs). Scale bars, 100 μm. **D.** Krt14 expression correlates with PyMT organoid invasion. Violin plot shows mean Krt14 fluorescence in invasive and non-invasive PyMT organoids. (Mann Whitney Test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 100 μm. **E.** Krt14 expression does not correlate with C3-TAg organoid invasion. Violin plot shows mean Krt14 fluorescence in invasive and non-invasive C3-TAg organoids. (Mann Whitney Test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 100 μm. **F.** Krt14 expression does not correlate with the ability to lead collective invasion in C3-TAg organoids. Solid and dashed arrows indicate Krt14^{neg} and Krt14^{pos} leader cells respectively. Bar graph shows Krt14 expression in leading cells of organoids from 3 tumors (mean±SEM, unpaired Student's t test, n=organoids) Scale bars, 50 μm. **G.** C3-TAg organoids were more invasive than PyMT organoids. Bar graph shows the area of invading nuclei (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2) Scale bars, 50 μm. **H.** Krt14 expression in TNBC patient tumors did not correlate with invasion. Violin plot shows percentage of Krt14 expressing cells in regions of low and high invasion (Mann Whitney test, n=tumor sections). Scale bars, 50 μm. **I.** Model depicting the tumor subtype relationship between Krt14 expression and trailblazer cell activity.

cancer trailblazer cells (20, 29). Consistent with prior results, Krt14 was expressed in PyMT trail-

blazer cells and Krt14 expression correlated with PyMT tumor organoid invasion **(Fig. 1C,D)**.

Krt14 was expressed in a greater proportion of cells in C3-TAg tumors compared to PyMT tumors,

in line with Krt14 being more highly expressed in basal type compared to luminal B type breast

cancer patient tumors **(Fig. 1C, S1F)**. The high Krt14 expression was consistent with the early

acquisition of basal traits detected in C3-TAg and TNBC tumors during the initial stages of growth

within mammary ducts (37, 38). However, Krt14 expression did not correlate with C3-TAg tumor

collective invasion or a trailblazer state in our analysis of primary tumors, tumor organoids and

trailblazer and opportunist cell lines **(Fig 1C,E,F, S1D,E,G)**. In fact, extensive collective invasion

was detected in C3-TAg tumor organoids with few, if any, Krt14 expressing cells **(Fig. 1E)**.

Krt14[neg] C3-TAg tumor cells also led collective invasion as frequently as Krt14^{pos} cells **(Fig 1F)**.

C3-TAg organoids were relatively more invasive than PyMT organoids, demonstrating that the

C3-TAg tumor invasion was more aggressive than the Krt14 *s*pecified invasion of PyMT tumors

(Fig. 1G, S1H, Videos S7-8). Moreover, Krt14 expression did not correlate with collective inva-

sion in our analysis of a TNBC patient tissue microarray **(Fig. 1H, S1I)**. This indicated that the

Krt14 independent collective invasion in C3-TAg tumors represented a feature of collective inva-

sion that was conserved in TNBC tumors. Together, these results suggested that essential features

of the C3-TAg trailblazer program were different than those of the PyMT trailblazer program, and

more than a single Krt14 specified trailblazer program that functioned in breast cancer patient

tumors **(Fig. 1I)**.

Trailblazer cells are distinguished by a subset of EMT traits in basal-like mammary tumors.
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Given the lack of concordance with the established Krt14 specified trailblazer program, we

next took an unbiased approach to identify the key trailblazer regulatory program features in C3-

TAg tumors. To do this, we used next generation RNA sequencing to define differentially ex-

pressed genes (DEGs) in tumor organoids from 4 C3-TAg tumors compared with non-invasive

spheroids formed by 3 clonal C3-TAg tumor derived cell lines **(Fig. 2A, S2A)**. Among epithelial

keratins, Krt14 expression was reduced in C3-TAg tumor organoids compared to the non- of in-

vasive clonal C3-TAg cells, consistent with a lack of Krt14 involvement in C3-TAg collective

invasion **(Fig. 2B, Table S2)**. Expression of the transcription factor p63 was also reduced in C3-

TAg tumor organoids and trailblazer clones, further indicating that canonical traits of normal basal

mammary epithelial cells were not essential to induce C3-TAg trailblazer cells **(Fig. 2B, S2B,**

Figure 2

Figure 2. Trailblazer cells are distinguished by a subset of EMT traits in basal-like mammary tumors. **A.** Graphic shows preparation of C3-TAg organoids and clonal cell line spheroids for RNA-seq. Heatmap shows unsupervised clustering and differentially expressed genes in non-invasive C3-TAg clones (B6, C6, E8) and organoids from 4 C3-TAg tumors. **B.** Boxplots showing the expression of the basal genes Krt14 and Trp63. **C.** There was increased expression of Hallmark EMT genes in C3-TAg tumor organoids compared to non-invasive C3-TAg clones. Plot shows the details of the Hallmark EMT generated by GSEA. **D-F.** Boxplots showing the expression of canonical mesenchymal (Vimentin, Axl), epithelial (E-cadherin, Ep-CAM) and EMT-TF (Snai1, Slug, Twist1, Zeb1, Zeb2, Fra1) genes in C3-TAg tumor organoids compared to non-invasive clonal spheroids from RNA-seq data (Mann Whitney test for E-cad, Student's t-test for all others, n=6 for clones, (3 biological replicates); n=8 for tumor (4 biological replicates)). **G.** Vimentin is more highly expressed in C3-TAg primary tumors compared to PyMT tumors. Solid arrows indicate collectively invading Vimentin^{pos} tumor cells. Dashed arrows indicate Vimentin^{neg} tumor cells. Violin plot shows percentage of tumor cell area expressing Vimentin (Mann Whitney Test, n=ROIs from 5 tumors). Scale bars, 100 µm. **H.** Invasive regions in TNBC patient tumors trend towards higher Vimentin expression compared to regions of low invasion. Solid arrows indicate collectively invading Vimentin^{pos} tumor cells. Dashed arrows indicate Vimentin^{neg} tumor cells. Violin plot shows percentage of Vimentin expressing tumor cells (Mann Whitney test, n=tumor sections). Scale bars, 50 µm. **I.** Model showing the tumor subtype relationship between an EMT exemplified by Vimentin expression and trailblazer activity.

Table S2). Genes highly expressed in C3-TAg tumor organoids were associated with biological

processes that contribute to invasion (ECM Receptor Interaction, Focal Adhesions and Regulation

of the Actin Cytoskeleton) and EMT **(Fig. 2C,D, S2C,D, Table S2)**. The C3-TAg tumor organoids

retained canonical epithelial gene expression as well, indicating that the majority of cells were in

a hybrid EMT state **(Fig. 2E, Table S2)**. The EMT inducing transcription factors (EMT-TFs)

Zeb1, Zeb2 and Fra1 were more highly expressed in C3-TAg organoids **(Fig. 2F)**. However, the

EMT-TFs Snail, Slug and Twist1 were expressed at similar or higher levels in the noninvasive

clones **(Fig. 2F)**. These results indicated that the specific features of an EMT program determined

the invasive phenotype of C3-TAg tumor cells, rather than simply the presence or absence of EMT

activity, consistent with results obtained analyzing human breast cancer cell lines (25, 31).

To understand the relationship between the EMT program features of the C3-TAg organ-

oids and collective invasion, we evaluated the expression of the microfilament protein Vimentin,

a common EMT marker that was more highly expressed in C3-TAg organoids **(Fig. 2D)**. Vimentin

expression was more frequently and extensively detected in C3-TAg tumors compared to PyMT

tumors **(Fig. 2H)**. The heterogeneity of Vimentin expression in C3-TAg tumors was consistent

with the heterogeneity in the extent of C3-TAg organoid invasion **(Fig. 1A)**. Vimentin[pos] and Vi-

mentin^{neg} cells also collectively invaded together in C3-TAg primary tumors and organoids, sug-

gesting that there was heterogeneity in collectively invading cell populations with respect to EMT

state **(FIg. 2H, S2D)**. In addition, Vimentin expression was heterogeneous in TNBC sections in a

TMA, with a trend towards more extensive Vimentin expression in regions of collective invasion

(Fig. 2I, S2E). Vimentin expression was higher in the basal type compared to other subtypes of

breast cancer as well, indicating that the difference in trailblazer program activation in C3-TAg

(basal-like) and PyMT (luminal B) tumors reflected a feature of inter-tumor heterogeneity found

in human breast cancer **(Fig. S2F)**. Our combined results demonstrated that an EMT program ex-

emplified by Vimentin expression conferred a trailblazer state in TNBC tumor subpopulations

(Fig. 2J).

TGFβ induces a trailblazer state in C3-TAg tumors.

228   Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) indicated that TGFβ signaling was more active in

C3-TAg tumor organoids than non-invasive spheroids **(Fig. 3A, Table S2)**. Thus, we evaluated

the contribution of Tgfβ towards regulation of a trailblazer state. The pharmacological inhibitor of

Tgfβ receptor 1 (Tgfbr1) A83-01 suppressed C3-TAg tumor organoid invasion **(Fig. 3B)**. 1863

cells derived in the presence of A83-01 were also less invasive than 1863T cells established from

the same tumor in the absence of A83-01 **(Fig. S3A, Table S1)**. Depletion of the Tgfβ regulated

transcription factor SMAD3 reduced the invasion of 1863T and Tgfβ stimulated 1863 cells, indi-

cating that TGFβ regulated gene expression contributed to the observed phenotypes **(Fig. 3C,**

Figure 3

Figure 3. Tgfβ induces trailblazer state in C3-TAg tumors.
A. GSEA was performed on RNA-seq data from C3-TAg organoids and non-invasive C3-TAg clones to identify pathway enrichment in C3-TAg organoids. Plot shows the GSEA for the KEGG: TGFβ signaling pathway. **B.** The Tgfbr1 inhibitor A83-01 suppresses C3-TAg organoid invasion. Graph shows the quantification of invasion (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 50μm. **C.** Smad3 siRNA suppressed the invasion of TGFβ1 treated 1863 clusters (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2). Scale bars, 50 μm. **D.** 1339-org cells cultured in A83-01 were less invasive than organoids tested immediately after isolation from primary tumors. Graph shows organoid circularity. Reduced circularity indicates increased invasion (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 50 μm. **E.** Tgfbr1 inhibition suppresses intrinsic and extrinsic TGFβ1 induced invasion of 1339-org cells. Organoids were treated with the Tgfbr1 inhibitors A83-01 (500 nM) and SB431542 (1 μM) and extrinsic TGFβ1 (2 ng/ml) as indicated. Violin plots show the quantification of organoid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 50 μm. **F.** Persistent exposure to exogenous TGFβ1 progressively enhances the invasive phenotype in C3-TAg organoid lines. Graphs show the quantification of organoid circularity and the number of invading single cells (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=3) Scale bars, 50 μm.

S3B,C). These results indicated that Tgfβ signaling was necessary to sustain a trailblazer state in

C3-TAg cells.

To determine if Tgfβ could initiate the conversion from an opportunist to a trailblazer state,

we established organoid lines from 3 different tumors in the presence of A83-01 for at least 4

weeks **(Fig. S3D, Table S1)**. These conditions yielded 1339-org, 1863-org and 1788-org tumor

organoid lines that had a diminished Tgfβ activity and a reduced ability to invade relative to tumor

organoids tested immediately after isolation from C3-TAg tumors **(Fig. 3D)**. Removal of A83-01

or SB431542, a second inhibitor of Tbfgr1, promoted tumor organoid line invasion **(Fig. 3E,**

S3E,F). The invasion of the tumor organoid lines was further enhanced by exogenous TGFβ1

within 48 h **(Fig. 3E, S3E,F, Videos S9-11)**. Persistent exposure of 1339-org cells to Tgfβ signal-

ing for up to 22 days progressively increased the rate of collective invasion **(Fig. 3F, Videos S9-**

12). TGFβ signaling for at least 7 days also increased the frequency that trailblazer cells detached

from collectively invading cohorts and invaded as single cells, suggesting that at least some single

cell invasion reflected a loss of cohesion rather than the activation of a separate invasion program

(Fig. 3F, Video S12). Thus, Tgfβ induced signaling promoted the conversion of C3-TAg cells to

a trailblazer state.

TGFβ induces multiple trailblazer states through distinct phases of re-programming.

To understand how Tgfβ induced a trailblazer state, we used RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq)

to analyze gene expression changes 1339-org cells after 2, 7 and 22 days after Tgfβ pathway acti-

vation. Hierarchical clustering revealed 4 different groups of genes regulated by TGFβ **(Fig. 4A,**

Table S3). If cells were undergoing binary conversion between states, the population averaged

mRNA expression obtained by RNA-seq would have shown 2 groups of genes (suppressed and

induced) undergoing a gradual change in expression as percentage of cells in the 2 different states

shifted (39). The 4 different gene groups, each with a unique timing in their onset of change and

maximal expression difference, therefore indicated that the Tgfβ stimulated C3-TAg tumor cells

progressed through different stages of re-programming. Consistent with inducing multiple differ-

ent states, TGFβ promoted a shift in the distribution of EpCAM expression rather than a switch

between two unique EpCAM-high and EpCAM-low states, **(Fig. S4A)**. TGFβ also induced a shift

in the distribution of Vimentin expression intensity in organoids at day 7 and day 22, as opposed

to a switch between two distinct Vimentin^{neg} and Vimentin^{pos} states **(Fig. S4B)**.

The gene groups identified by RNA-seq were associated with distinct combinations of bi-

ological processes **(Fig. 4B, Table S3)**. Of note, genes in Groups 3 and 4 were involved with ECM

regulation **(Fig. 4B, Table S3)**. This indicated that there were different mechanisms for regulating

genes associated with the same biological functions in response to TGFβ. Group 3 and 4 genes

were also connected with unique functions, which indicated that the nature of reprogramming

Figure 4

Figure 4. Tgfβ induces multiple trailblazer states through distinct phases of re-programming.
A. Tgfβ induces 4 distinct patterns of gene expression changes in 1339-org organoids. Heatmap shows unsupervised clustering and 4 groups of DEGs. **B.** Graphs show the top 5 Gene Ontology terms associated with each group. **C.** Heatmap shows changes in expression of mesenchymal (Vim), EMT-TFs (Zeb1 and 2, Twist1, Snail, Slug), epithelial (E-Cad), basal (p63, Krt14) and luminal (Krt8) markers after Tgf. **D.** Heatmap shows persistent TGFβ pathway activation increases the expression of trailblazer genes previously reported in human cell lines. **E.** Graph shows the enrichment of Group 3 and Group 4 genes in non-invasive clones and invasive C3-TAg tumor organoids. **F, G.** Multiple different trailblazer states lead collective invasion in C3-TAg tumor and TGFβ1 treated 1339-org organoids. Paraffin sections were immunostained with Vimentin and E-cadherin antibodies to define different EMT states. The phenotype of trailblazer cells leading invasion or invading as single cells was quantified. Bar graph indicates the mean number of trailblazer cells or single invading cells per organoids and their EMT phenotype. **H.** Model showing the heterogeneity in trailblazer states induced by Tgfβ.

changed over time and was controlled by distinct mechanisms. Interestingly, genes commonly

associated with EMT were included in Group 3 (Vcam1, Itgb3, Fn1) and Group 4 (Vimentin, N-

cadherin, Periostin) **(Table S3)**. EMT-TFs were also split between Group 3 (Zeb1), Group 4 (Zeb2,

Twist), or not included in any group (Snail) **(Fig. 3C)**. Previously defined trailblazer genes were

in Group 3 (Wisp1) and Group 4 (Dab2, Fstl1, Itga11, Pdgfra, Lpar1) **(Fig. 4D)**. Group 3 and

Group 4 genes were enriched in the genes that were highly expressed in C3-TAg organoids, which

indicated that Tgfβ re-activated a program that was present in C3-TAg tumors **(Fig. 2A, 4E, Table**

S3). The distinct expression profile of EMT-TFs, EMT effectors, ECM regulatory genes and dif-

ferent indicated that TGFβ induced re-programming yielded multiple different trailblazer states in

response to evolving regulatory mechanisms. To test this possibility, we immunostained 1339-org

and C3-TAg tumor organoids with Vimentin and E-Cadherin antibodies, to specify different states

within the spectrum of EMT re-programming. Vimentin^{neg}/E-cadherin^{pos}, Vimentin^{pos}/E-cadherin^{pos}

and Vimentin^{pos}/E-cadherin^{neg} cells were all capable of leading collective invasion **(Fig. 4F,G)**.

Notably, the presence of more Vimentin^{pos}/E-cadherin^{pos} and Vimentin^{pos}/E-cadherin^{neg} trailblazer

cells with increasing time after Tgfβ pathway activation correlated with an increased extent of

1339-org collective invasion **(Fig. 3F)**. These combined results suggested that there were multiple

trailblazer states induced by Tgfβ and that they had different capacities to initiate collective inva-

sion **(Fig. 4H)**.

The transcription factor Fra1 confers a trailblazer state.

We next investigated how EMT-TF expression influenced the trailblazer state. To prioritize

our investigation, we first determined how siRNAs targeting EMT-TFs influenced the invasion of

the 1863T cell line, which contains a high proportion of trailblazer cells **(Fig. S3A)**. The siRNAs

targeting Fra1, Zeb1 and Zeb2 suppressed invasion to the greatest extent whereas siRNAs targeting

Twist, Slug and Snail failed to suppress invasion, consistent with Fra1, Zeb1 and Zeb2 being the

EMT-TFs that were more highly expressed in C3-TAg tumor organoids **(Fig. 5A, S4A)**. Fra1 ex-

pression was higher in basal like breast cancer whereas Zeb1 expression was lower in basal-like

tumors and Zeb2 expression was similar across tumor subtype **(Fig. 5B)**. Fra1 expression also

correlated with Vimentin expression in breast cancer patients, suggesting that Fra1 potentially

contributes to induction of a Vimentin specified trailblazer state during tumor progression **(Fig.**

5C). We therefore selected Fra1 for further analysis.

Fra1 depletion by 4 different siRNAs and 2 different siRNA pools reduced 1863T and

TGFβ stimulated 1863 invasion to a similar degree **(Fig. 5D,E, S5A-D)**. Fra1 depletion also re-

duced the invasion of D6 trailblazer clones and Tgfβ stimulated 1339 cells, which were derived

from a different C3-TAg tumor than the 1863 and 1863T cells **(Fig. S5F)**. Fra1 interacts with Jun

to regulate gene expression as an AP-1 complex (40). Indeed, Jun was required for 1863T and

Tgfβ stimulated 1863 cell invasion, suggesting Fra1 containing AP-1 complexes regulate the ex-

pression of genes necessary for the induction of a trailblazer state **(Fig. 5F,H, S5G)**. Exogenous

Figure 5

Figure 5. The transcription factor Fra1 confers a trailblazer state.
A. Invasion of 1863T cells transfected with siRNAs targeting EMT-TFs. Graph shows the quantification of cells invading ≥40 μm into the ECM (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=4 wells from 2 independent experiments). Scale bars, 50 μm. **B.** FRA1 (FOSL1) mRNA is more highly expressed in the basal-like subtype compared to other subtypes of breast cancer. Z-scores relative to all samples are shown (Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test). P-values are in comparison to the basal-like tumors. **C.** FRA1 (FOSL1) correlates with VIM expression in breast cancer patient tumors. **D.** Fra1 depletion decreases the invasion of TGFβ1 treated 1863 clusters (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test n=clusters, r=5) Scale bars, 50 μm. **E.** Fra1 depletion does not suppress Zeb1 and Zeb2 expression (mean±SEM, n=2) **F.** Jun depletion suppresses TGFβ1 treated 1863 cluster invasion (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2) Scale bars, 50 μm. **G.** Depletion of Jun by siRNAs (mean±SEM, n=2). **H.** E-cadherin, Vimentin, Fra1, Zeb1 and Zeb2 expression after 48 h treatment with Tgfbr1 inhibitor A83-01 (mean±SEM, n=2). **I.** Expression of E-cadherin, Vimentin, Fra1, Zeb1 and Zeb2 48 h after TGFβ1 treatment. **J.** Model showing the parallel regulation of the trailblazer state by the Tgfβ signaling and a second pathway that induces Fra1.

Fra1 expression promotes Zeb1 and Zeb2 expression (41). However, Fra1 depletion in 1863T cells

did not alter Zeb1 or 2 expression **(Fig. 5E)**. Zeb1 and Vimentin expression were regulated by

autocrine TGFβ signaling and induced by acute or persistent exogenous TGFβ treatment **(Fig. 4C,**

5I,H). Zeb2 was included in the Group 4 Tgfβ regulated genes **(Fig. 4C)**. However, Fra1 expres-

sion was not influenced by autocrine or extrinsic TGFβ pathway stimulation **(Fig. 5I,H)**. Fra1 was

also not included in Group 3 or 4 genes detected as part of a persistent TGFβ induced gene regu-

latory program **(Fig. 4C and Table S3)**. Thus, the trailblazer state required the activity of at least

one additional   signaling pathway acting in parallel with TGFβ signaling to induce the expression

of Fra1 **(Fig. 5J)**.

Egfr pathway activity promotes Fra1 expression and a trailblazer state.

330   We next determined how Fra1 expression was regulated in C3-TAg tumor cells. Fra1

mRNA was more highly expressed in C3-TAg tumor organoids compared to opportunist spheroids

in our RNA-seq analysis, indicating that the signaling pathway responsible for the control of Fra1

was more active in the C3-TAg organoids **(Fig. 2A)**. GSEA identified multiple active KRAS reg-

ulated expression signatures in the C3-TAg tumor organoids **(Fig. S6A,B, Table S2)**. The Kras

gene can be amplified, but is not frequently mutated in C3-TAg tumors , indicating that pathway

activation occurred upstream of Kras (42). Analysis of the genes in the active KRAS signature

showed that the Egfr ligand Hbegf was more highly expressed in C3-TAg organoids than oppor-

tunist clones **(Fig. 6A, Table S2)**. Like FRA1, HBEGF was more highly expressed in Basal type

breast tumors **(Fig. S6C)**. HBEGF expression correlated with Fra1 expression in breast cancer

patient tumors as well, consistent with the possibility that Hbegf promotes Fra1 expression during

tumor development **(Fig. S6D)**. Further inspection found that the Egfr ligands Areg and Epgn were

also expressed at a higher level in C3-TAg organoids **(Fig. 6A, Table S2)**. These combined results

prompted us to investigate how the Egfr-Ras-Mek1/2-Erk1/2 signaling pathway contributed to

Fra1 expression and the induction of a trailblazer state. Erlotinib (Egfr inhibitor) and trametinib

(Mek1/2 inhibitor) suppressed Fra1 mRNA and protein expression in C3-TAg cell lines and or-

ganoids **(Fig. 6B,C, S6E)**. By comparison, Jun expression was unchanged by treatment with either

inhibitor **(Fig. S6F)**. In addition, Erlotinib and Trametinib did not inhibit the activating phosphor-

ylation of Smad2 or Zeb1 expression, indicating that Fra1 did not influence cell state through

autocrine Tgfβ signaling **(Fig. 6C, S6G)**. A83-01 suppressed Smad2 phosphorylation, but did not

influence Fra1 expression and phosphorylation **(Fig. 6C)**. Erlotinib and Trametinib reduced the

invasion of TGFβ stimulated 1339-org cells **(Fig. 6D,E)**. EGF also enhanced the invasion of 1339-

org, 1863-org and 1788-org organoids and this enhancement was blocked by A83-01, further in-

dicating that the integration of Tgfbr1 and Egfr pathways promoted a trailblazer state **(Fig. 6F,**

S6H,I). Trametinib inhibited the invasion of C3-TAg primary tumor organoids and phosphory-

lated Erk1/2 was detected in collectively invading cells in C3-TAg primary tumors **(Fig. 6G,H)**.

Figure 6

Figure 6. The transcription factor Fra1 confers a trailblazer state.
A. Expression of the Egfr ligands Epigen (Epgn), Amphiregulin (Areg) and Heparin-binding epidermal growth factor (Hbegf) in C3-TAg organoids and non-invasive clones. **B.** The Mek1/2 inhibitor trametinib (10 nM) and Egfr inhibitor erlotinib (1 µM) reduces Fra1 expression in 1339-org organoids (mean±SEM, n=2). **C.** Immunoblot showing the response of 1863 and 1339 cells to trametinib, erlotinib and A83-01 treatment. **D.** Erlotinib (1 µM) decreases the TGFβ1 induced invasion 1339-org organoids. Violin plot shows the quantification of circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=3) Scale bars, 50 µm. **E.** Trametinib suppresses the TGFβ1 induced invasion of 1339-org organoids in a dose dependent manner. Violin plot shows the quantification of organoid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=3). Scale bars, 50 µm. **F.** A83-01 suppresses EGF induced invasion in the 1339-org organoids. Violin plot shows the quantification of organoid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=4) Scale bars, 50 µm. **G.** Trametinib suppresses C3-TAg tumor organoid invasion. Graph shows the quantification of invading nuclei from 4 different tumors (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=organoids) Scale bars, 50 µm. **H.** Images show p-Erk immunostaining in regions of invasion (solid arrows) and no invasion (dotted arrow) in primary C3-TAg tumors. Scale bars, 50 µm. **I.** Model showing the parallel regulation of trailblazer cells by signaling pathways coordinated by Tgfbr1 and Egfr.

Erk1/2 activity is pulsatile in response to EGF stimulation, and these pulses promote Fra1 expres-

sion (43). Thus, persistent Erk1/2 phosphorylation was not necessarily expected in all collectively

invading cells or to promote Fra1 expression. Together, these results indicate that the regulation

of Fra1 by Egfr and Erk1/2 promotes the induction of a trailblazer EMT **(Fig. 6I)**.

A compromise between Tgfbr1 and Egfr regulated signaling programs confers the trail-

blazer state.

To understand the contribution of the Tgfbr1 and Egfr regulated signaling pathways to-

wards the induction of the trailblazer state, we performed RNA-seq on organoids treated with dil-

uent, TGFβ, TGFβ+erlotinib, EGF and EGF+A83-01 **(Fig. 7A, S7A)**. Polar plots were used to

cluster genes based on the nature and the degree of integration between the Tgfbr1 and Egfr sig-

naling pathways (44). This analysis revealed multiple modes of interaction between the two path-

ways in response to either TGFβ or EGF and that the type of interaction (positive or negative) was

associated with different biological processes **(Fig. 7B,C, S7B-E, Tables S4,5)**. Thus, the rela-

tionship was far more complex than the simple positive signal integration previously suggested by

phenotypic analysis and the expression of specific subsets of EMT-TFs and canonical EMT pro-

gram genes (45, 46). In addition, the gene expression changes induced by extrinsic TGFβ and EGF

were associated with unique combinations of biological processes, indicating that extrinsic TGFβ

and extrinsic EGF induced distinct types of trailblazer cells **(Fig. 7C, S7F, Tables S4,5)**. Never-

theless, there were conserved features of pathway integration that influenced the regulation of pro-

cesses associated with invasion regardless of the external stimulus. Genes involved in controlling

the organization and composition of the ECM, including previously defined trailblazer genes, were

predominantly induced by Tgfbr1 and not positively impacted by Egfr signaling **(Fig. 7C,D,**

S7F,G, Tables S4,5). Notably, autocrine and extrinsic Egfr activation suppressed a number of

Tgfbr1 regulated ECM reorganization genes and Hallmark EMT genes, including Postn, Bmp2,

Itgb3, Orai2, Mmp11 and Erg **(Fig. 7C,D, S7F,G Tables S4,5)**, which contribute to invasion and

metastasis (47-52). By comparison, autocrine or extrinsic EGF activity alone, or in combination

with Tgfbr1 signaling, induced the expression of genes that promote cell motility, such as Axl,

Sema7a, Ncam1 and Itga2 **(Fig. 7C,E,F, S7F,H, Tables S4,5)** and (53-56). Thus, a compromise

between the Tgfbr1 and Egfr signaling programs was necessary to induce a set of pro-motility

genes. To determine how the Egfr dependent motility genes influenced the induction of the trail-

blazer state, we tested the function of the receptor tyrosine kinase Axl since it can be directly

regulated by Fra1 (57). The Axl inhibitor BGB324 suppressed C3-TAg organoid invasion, demon-

strating that a gene positively regulated by combined Tgfbr1 and Egfr activity was necessary for

trailblazer invasion **(Fig. 7G)**. Together, these results suggested that the induction of the trailblazer

state involved a compromise between the Tgfbr1 and Egfr signaling programs that limited features

of ECM reorganization and metastatic potential to promote cell motility that was essential for

trailblazer cell invasion **(7H)**.

Figure 7

Figure 7. A compromise between the Tgbβ and Egfr signaling programs confers the trailblazer state.
A. Overview of the approach to test the interactions between the Egfr and TGFβ1 signaling pathways.
B. Polar plot organizing genes represented as individual dots based on their change in expression in response to treatment with TGFβ1 and co-treatment with TGFβ1 and Erlotinib. Genes that underwent ≥2 fold-change with a *p*< 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg correction in at least one condition relative to one of the other conditions are shown (3 total comparisons). The distance from the center of the plot represents the Δlog$_2$ value of each gene (increased difference in expression, further from the center). The bar plots on the surface of the circle show the number of genes at the degree point in the plot. Genes are grouped into 12 color-coded groups along 30 degree increments over the 360-degree plot. As an example, genes in group 5 are increased in expression by TGFβ1 and this increase in expression is inhibited by Erlotinib. In contrast, genes in group 1 are increased in expression by TGFβ1, and this induction is further enhanced by treatment with Erlotinib. **C.** Summary of the number of genes and represented biological processes associated with different modes of interaction between the Tgfbr1 and Egfr pathways in cells treated with TGFβ. Also see **Fig. S7C,D** and **Table S4** for the assignment of polar plot clusters and detailed biological processes used to define the summary integration groups. **D.** Egfr suppressed the expression of a subset of genes induced by extrinsic TGFβ1. Line plots indicate the expression of genes in Cluster 1. Dashed line indicates the average scaled expression of all Cluster 1 genes. Lower bar graph shows the top 10 biological processes (GO-BP) associated with Cluster 1 genes (Fisher's exact test). **E.** Egfr was necessary for the expression of a subset of genes induced by extrinsic TGFβ**.** Line plots show the expression of genes in Cluster 5. Dashed line indicates the average scaled expression of all Cluster 5 genes. Lower bar graph shows the top 10 biological processes (GO-BP) associated with Cluster 5 genes (Fisher's exact test). **F.** Graph of Axl expression (n=2). **G.** The Axl inhibitor BGB324 (1 µM) suppressed C3-TAg tumor organoid invasion. Graph shows the quantification of invading nuclei (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=2). **H.** Model showing how the induction of the trailblazer EMT state requires a compromise between the Tgfβ and Egfr regulatory programs. The Egfr dependent induction of genes, such as Axl, that are required for trailblazer cell motility has the cost of restricting the expression ECM remodeling genes known to promote invasion and metastasis.

Figure 8

Figure 8. Model of inter- and intra-tumor trailblazer cell heterogeneity. The characteristic features and functional requirements of the trailblazer cells induced by Tgfβ and Egfr signaling programs in C3-TAg/basal-like tumors are fundamentally distinct from the trailblazer cells in PyMT/luminal B tumors.

DISCUSSION

Our findings indicate that defining how cells metastasize requires an understanding of how trailblazer cells are induced in different breast tumors. **(Fig. 8)**. The Tgfβ regulated trailblazer program that we have defined in the basal like C3-TAg tumor cells induced a more aggressive form of collective invasion than was detected in luminal B PyMT tumors and functioned independently of increased Krt14 and p63 expression. This indicated that the Tgfβ program was mechanistically and phenotypically distinct from a previously described Krt14-high trailblazer program (20). In addition, PyMT tumor cells rarely expressed detectable Vimentin, which suggested that the Tgfβ regulated trailblazer program that we identified was not active in PyMT tumors. Thus, our results indicate that there are at least 2 different trailblazer programs and that their activity and requirement for invasion varies between different types of mammary tumors associated with previously defined breast cancer intrinsic subtypes **(Fig. 8)**. Genes induced as part of the C3-TAg trailblazer program are more frequently detected at a high level in Basal-type breast cancer patients. Vimentin expression also correlated with collective invasion in TNBC patients, which are most often classified as basal-like. In addition, genes induced as part of Tgfβ trailblazer program have previously been shown to correlate with reduced odds of survival in triple negative breast cancer patients, but not patients classified as ER-positive or HER2-positive (21). These combined results indicate that the Tgfβ trailblazer program is active in basal-like TNBC and influences patient outcome. Tumor subtype specific mechanisms for inducing a trailblazer state are potentially a general property of cancer progression, as molecular subtypes are a feature of many carcinomas (58-61). Further investigation is required to determine the extent to which the Tgfβ and Krt14 trailblazer programs align with existing tumor subtypes or define new categories of inter-tumor

heterogeneity. Thus, our results provide new insight into approaches used to stratify patients into

outcome groups

The heterogeneity in C3-TAg tumor organoid invasion indicated that the trailblazer popu-

lation itself can be heterogeneous within tumors with the same primary driving genetic factors and

molecular subtype **(Fig. 8)**. Previous analysis of other tumor cell models had suggested that trail-

blazer cells were in a single uniform state (20, 21, 24). Notably, our analysis of 1339-org cells

revealed that invasive variability can be a consequence of differences in cellular responses to a

single stimulus, in this case TGFβ signaling. Therefore trailblazer cell phenotypic heterogeneity

within a population did not necessarily reflect differences between EMT programs that were initi-

ated by different activating signals (62). Gene expression changes in response to TGFβ are heter-

ogeneous and temporally regulated in other systems as well (63). However, the influence of this

gene expression heterogeneity on cell phenotype has not been clear and has often been modeled

as a progressive accumulation of new functions (64). The phased changes in gene expression we

defined in 1339-org cells suggested how trailblazer phenotypes evolved over time in response to

TGFβ activity, with early onset gene expression changes inducing trailblazer cells that were further

modulated by later stage reprogramming events **(Fig. 8)**. Interestingly, long-term TGFβ induced

changes in gene expression that were associated with other cell lineages. This suggests that the

enhanced invasion of trailblazer cells in response to persistent TGFβ stimulation may be associated

with a more general lineage plasticity and not simply a re-balancing of epithelial and mesenchymal

gene expression.

Our results revealed that a new compromise mode of integration between Tgfbr1 and Egfr

regulated signaling programs was essential for the manifestation of a trailblazer state. The integra-

tion of parallel signaling pathways is frequently required to confer specific cell states and is typi-

cally classified from the standpoint of being a positive or negative interaction (46, 65, 66). Indeed,

prior studies have suggested that TGFβ and Egfr-Ras regulated pathways positively integrate at

the point of EMT-TF expression to initiate an EMT program (45, 46, 67, 68). While the combined

activity of the Tgfbr1 and Egfr signaling pathways was necessary to induce a trailblazer state, there

was an equivalent degree of positive and antagonistic interaction between the programs in C3-TAg

tumor cells, indicating a new type of integration between the two signaling programs. Tumor cells

must obtain the ability to resist TGFβ induced growth suppression and apoptosis (69). This is

accomplished either through the clonal selection of mutants that inactivate Tgfβ signaling, which

does not occur in C3-TAg tumor cells, or an intrinsic reprogramming of cellular responses to TGFβ

(70). The type of TGFβ reprogramming that is selected for during tumor progression may deter-

mine whether Tgfbr1 and Egfr signaling engage in a compromise mode of integration or if there

is a predominantly positive or negative interaction between the pathways. The selective activation

and restriction of Tgfβ and Egfr dependent gene expression suggests that the compromise integra-

tion is based on differences in the expression or activity of co-factors that modulate chromatin

accessibility or DNA binding. Tgfβ can increase Egfr expression and activate Erk1/2 signaling in

a cell line dependent manner (71, 72). Similarly, Egfr-Mek1/2-Erk1/2 signaling can activate Tgfβ

signaling through the phosphorylation of SMAD2/3 and increased expression of Tgfβ expression

depending on cell context (41, 73, 74). However, this manner of integration is unlikely contributing

to the compromise integration in the C3-TAg tumor cells given that Tgfbr1 inhibition did not alter

ERK1/2 phosphorylation or Fra1 expression, Egfr and Mek1/2 inhibition failed to impact Smad2/3

phosphorylation. The direct control of the activity of one pathway by the other would also be

expected to yield a more uniform positive or negative integration.

Our findings indicate that defining the nature of Tgfβ and Egfr pathway integration is nec-

essary to understand tumor cell properties that influence metastasis and treatment response. In C3-

TAg cells in which Tgfβ and Egfr activity combined to promote a trailblazer state, Egfr also re-

stricted the expression of genes that could endow trailblazer cells with additional invasive and

metastatic properties (50, 75-78). Similarly, Tgfβ limited the Egf induced expression of chemo-

kines that increase invasion and the recruitment of tumor promoting immune cells (79, 80). Thus,

the compromise mode of integration limited the expression of genes that could promote tumor

progression whereas a strictly positive integration would have no such restrictions. The type of

interaction between the Tgfβ and Egfr programs also influences the rationale for the therapeutic

targeting of trailblazer cells. Inhibiting the Egfr pathway with the clinically approved drugs erlo-

tinib and trametinib suppressed C3-TAg tumor cell invasion (81-83). However, combining either

drug with newly developed anti-Tgfβ antibodies (84) may have additional benefit due to the fact

that the Egfr and Tgfβ pathways function in parallel and each independently regulate large cohorts

of genes. By comparison, cells in which Tgfβ activates Egfr-ERK1/2 signaling or vice versa may

derive little or no benefit from combination therapy (71, 72). Thus, understanding how the mode

of Tgfβ and Egfr pathway integration influences the risk of metastasis and options for treatment is

an important line of future investigation.

488   Together, our results indicate that an improved understanding of how trailblazer cells are

489 regulated and function in different breast cancer subtypes has the potential to improve the accuracy

490 of patient diagnosis and reveal new treatment options.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice. The C3-TAg [FVB-Tg(C3-1-TAg)cJeg/Jeg] were a gift from Anna T. Riegel (Georgetown University) and purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (013591). REAR [FVB/N-Tg(C3-1-TAg)cJeg/2JegJ] mice and PyMT [FVB/N-Tg(MMTV-PyVT)634Mul/J] mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (REAR, 030386 and PyMT, 002374) and (**Table S1**). For orthotopic tumor experiments, 1339-org organoids were dissociated using TryPLE (Gibco, 12605-010) and 500,000 cells were bilaterally injected in the 4th fat pads of 8-12 weeks old female REAR mice. Mice were euthanized and tissue collection was performed on day 27 post injection. Mice were housed and bred in accordance with a protocol approved by the Institutional Animal Use and Care Committee at Georgetown University (IRB# 2017-0076) and in compliance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory animals. Female mice were used for all experiments.

Tumor organoid derivation. The largest tumors from female C3-TAg and PyMT mice were minced and dissociated for up to 120 min at 37°C in a mixture of 1 mg/ml Collagenase (Worthington, LS004188), 20 U/ml DNase (Invitrogen, 18047-019), 5% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Peak Serum, PS-FB2), ITS (Lonza, 17-838Z), non-essential amino acids (Sigma, M7145) and 10 ng/ml FGF-2 (Peprotech, 100-18C) in DMEM/F-12 (Corning, 10-092-CV). Dissociated tumors were pelleted at 80 x g for 2 min and the supernatant was discarded. Tumor organoids were then rinsed up to 5 times in 5% FBS in DMEM/F-12 followed by filtering through a 250 μm tissue strainer. Organoids were then tested in invasion assays or to establish organoid lines and cell lines (**Table S1**).

Cell and organoid culture. Cell and organoid lines were generated from C3-TAg tumors **(Table**

S1) and tested for mycoplasma (Lonza, LT07-703) prior to use and the creation of frozen stocks.

Cells and organoids were routinely used within 25 passages. Culture conditions for all cell and

organoid lines are summarized in **Table S1.** Organoids were passaged at least once per week by

dissociating tumor organoids into single cell suspensions with Dispase (Sigma, SCM133) and Try-

PLE (Gibco, 12605-010). The cell suspensions were plated at a density of 200,000-500,000 cells

per well in a 24-well ultra-low adhesion plate (Sigma, CLS3474) to form multicellular aggregates

for at least 16 h. The aggregates were then embedded in Matrigel (Corning, 354230) or Cultrex

(Biotechne, 3533-005-02) and overlaid with Organoid Media (**Table S1**) in 6-well ultra-low ad-

hesion plates (Sigma, CLS3471). H2B:GFP retrovirus (85) and H2B:mCherry and GFP lentivirus

were produced and cells were infected as described previously (86).

Organoid invasion. Organoids in 30 μl of ECM were plated onto a 20 μl base layer of ECM in 8

well chamber slides (Falcon, 354108) and allowed to invade for 48 h unless otherwise indicated.

The ECM was a mixture of 2.4 mg/ml rat tail collagen I (Corning, CB-40236) and 2 mg/ml of

reconstituted basement membrane (Matrigel or Cultrex) unless otherwise indicated. Tumor organ-

oids were analyzed in a base media of DMEM/F-12 and ITS in Fig. 1A,F, 5G and 6G, supple-

mented with 10 ng/ml FGF2 in 1E and 1% FBS + 10 ng/ml FGF2 in 1B, 1D. A base media of

DMEM/F-12 and ITS was used for the analysis of 1339-org, 1863-org and 1788-org lines. Growth

factors (2 ng/ml TGFβ1; 50 ng/ml EGF) and inhibitors were added to the base media and tested as

indicated in the text and **Tables S1**. Organoids from established organoid lines **(Table S1)** were

tested after dissociation and aggregation for at least 16 h, as described for organoid passaging.

Organoids were fixed and stained with Hoechst and Phalloidin. Images were acquired with a Zeiss

LSM800 laser scanning confocal microscope using 10x/0.45 (Zeiss, 1 420640-9900-000) or

20x/0.8 (Zeiss, 1 420650-9902-000) objectives. To determine the area of invasion and circularity,

an image mask for each organoid was generated using ImageJ (NIH) based on the Hoechst (inva-

sion area) or Phalloidin (circularity) signal. The total area of the invading nuclei was determined

using the "Measure" function in ImageJ. Circularity was quantified using the "Analyze Particle"

function.

siRNA experiments. Cells were transfected with 50 nM of siRNA using RNAiMax transfection

reagent (Invitrogen, 13778-150) for 48 h before testing. Cells in all conditions designated as "Con-

trol" were transfected with a pool of siRNAs that does not target mouse genes. The catalog num-

bers for each siRNA are located in **Table S1**.

Vertical invasion assay. Vertical invasion assays were performed and quantified as described pre-

viously using a Collagen/Basement Membrane (BM) mix (2.4 mg/ml Collagen I and 2 mg/ml

Matrigel or Cultrex) (25). Cells expressing H2B:GFP (10,000-18,000/well) were transfected in 96-

well plates (Thermo, 165305) for 48 h. Media was then replaced with 50 μl Collagen/BM) ECM

and overlaid with fresh media (DMEM-F12, ITS, 1% FBS, 10 ng/ml FGF2) for 48 h. Cells were

imaged with a 10X/0.30 objective (Zeiss, 1 420340-9901-000) on a Zeiss LSM800 laser scanning

confocal microscope. Twenty-one z-slices at 10 μm intervals over a total span of 200 μm were

acquired for 9 tiled x, y positions per well. At least 3 wells (27 x,y positions total) were imaged

per condition in each experiment. ImageJ software (NIH) was used to process images and quantify

invasion using a custom macro as described (21). Invasion was normalized by dividing the total

number of cells that had migrated $\geq$ 40 μm above the monolayer by the number of cells in the

monolayer. The normalized invasion value for each condition was divided by the normalized in-

vasion for the control wells transfected with an siRNA pool that does not target any mouse genes

to provide a relative invasion value.

Cluster invasion. Cells (10,000-18,000/well) were transfected in 96-well plates (Corning, 3904).

After 24 h, the transfected cells were trypsinized and clustered in 96-well Nunclon Sphera U-

bottom low adhesion plates (Thermo Scientific, 174925) overnight (1000 cells/well). Homogene-

ous and mosaic clusters were also generated in U-bottom Nunclon Sphera low adhesion plates.

Cells then aggregated into clusters for at least 16 h before embedding in ECM. Clusters were re-

suspended in 30 µl Collagen I/BM mix (2.4 mg/ml Collagen I and 2 mg/ml Matrigel or Cultrex),

plated on 20 µl of a base layer of Matrigel/Collagen I, overlaid with media containing 1% FBS

and 2 ng/ml TGFβ1 and allowed to invade for 24 h-48 h unless stated otherwise. The spheroids

were fixed and stained with Hoechst and Phalloidin and imaged with a 10x/0.45 objective (Zeiss,

1 420640-9900-000) using a Zeiss LSM800 laser scanning confocal microscope. To determine the

area of invasion, Hoechst staining was used to identify and mask nuclei invading into the ECM

using ImageJ. The total area of the invading nuclei was then determined using the "Measure" func-

tion in ImageJ.

Live cell imaging. Imaging was performed using a Zeiss LSM800 laser scanning confocal micro-

scope enclosed in a 37° C chamber supplemented with humidified CO_2. Images were acquired

every 30 min for 14-18 h with a 10X/0.30 objective (Zeiss, 1 420340-9901-000). At least 15 dif-

ferent x,y coordinates with 5 to 7 z-slices over 50-100 µm span for each condition were acquired

in parallel.

Immunofluorescence and immunoblotting. Experiments and analysis were performed as described (25) using antibodies detailed in **Table S1.** Immunoblots were imaged using an Odyssey scanner (Licor, 9120). Immunofluorescence images were acquired using 10x/0.45 (Zeiss, 1 420640-9900-000) and 20x/0.8 (Zeiss, 1 420650-9902-000) objectives. For analysis of the relationship between Krt14 expression and invasion, organoids were classified as invasive if they had at least two protrusions with each protrusion having at least two cells invading outward from the center mass. Images were exported as TIFFs and analyzed with ImageJ. The freehand selection tool was used to define ROIs containing individual organoids for analysis. The Krt14 fluorescence for each organoid was then defined as the "Mean Gray Value", as determined using the "Measure" function. To define Krt14 expression in cells leading invasion, >10 organoids stained with Phalloidin, Hoechst, Krt14 and Krt8 were analyzed. Seven Z slices at $10\,\mu$m intervals over a total span of $100\,\mu$m were acquired, and the leading cells of each protrusion were designated as Krt14^{low} or Krt14^{high}. Vimentin and E-cadherin expression were analyzed in $5\,\mu$m histology sections. Organoids in 8-well chamber slides (Falcon, 354108) were washed 3x with distilled water. After detaching the chamber walls from the slides, the organoid/ECM gels were gently picked up using a single edge blade (Personna, 94-120-71) and laid out on a strip of parafilm (Bemis, PM-999). The 8-well chamber walls were placed around the gels and 150-200 μl of hydroxyethyl agarose processing gel (Thermo Fisher, HG 4000-012) was poured into the well. After the hydroxyethyl agarose processing gel solidified, it was transferred into histosettes (Simport, M498-3) and stored in 70% EtOH until embedding in paraffin by the Georgetown Histology and Tissue Shared Resource. The $5\,\mu$m sections were deparaffinized and immunostained as described (21) to detect Vimentin and E-cadherin expression (**Table S1**). For individual organoids, Vimentin expression was defined as

the "Mean Gray Value" using the "Measure" function in ImageJ. Using ImageJ, Vimentin expres-

sion was defined as the "Mean Gray Value" for individual organoids using the "Measure" function.

For characterization of the trailblazer cell state, the cell leading a collectively invading group of

cells was classified as a "trailblazer cell" while cells detached from the tumor organoid were clas-

sified as "single cells". Each cell was assigned E-caderhin^{pos}/Vimentin^{neg}, E-Cadherin^{pos}/Vimentin-

^{pos} or E-Caderin^{neg}/Vimentin^{pos} status based on E-Cadherin and Vimentin expression.

Immunohistochemistry. Sample processing and staining was performed as described (25). Images

were acquired using 10x/0.45 (Zeiss, 1 420640-9900-000) and 20x/0.8 (Zeiss, 1 420650-9902-

000) objectives. At least 10 regions of interest (ROIs) were randomly selected for each tumor. Cell

Profiler (Broad Institute) was used to define image masks based on Krt8, Krt14 or Vimentin signal.

To define their expression in tumor cells, masks based on the area of overlap between the Krt14

and Krt8 and the Vimentin and Krt8 signals were determined for each ROI. The area of individual

channel and overlap masks created in CellProfiler were then loaded onto ImageJ and quantified

using the "Measure" function.

Quantitative real-time PCR. Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Kit (Qiagen, 74104) or

the PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen, 12183025). Reverse transcription was performed using

iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, 1708891) following the manufacturer's protocol. Real time

PCR was performed with iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, 1708882) using a RealPlex 2 ther-

mocycler (Eppendorf, 2894). All primers were designed and purchased from Integrated DNA

Technologies and their sequences are listed in **Table S1**.

Flow Cytometry. Cells were dissociated with TrypLe (Gibco, 12605-010) into single cell suspen-

sions, and then washed 2x with FACs buffer (PBS + 2% FBS). Cells were then incubated with

anti-CD326 (EpCAM)-PE/Dazzle 594 (Biolegend, 118236) at 4°C for 30 minutes. After staining,

cells were washed with FACs buffer 2x, and stained with Helix NP Blue (Biolegend, 425305) in

order to exclude dead cells. Cells were then subjected to flow cytometry analysis using BD LSR

Fortessa. Results were analyzed using FCSExpress 7 (De Novo Software).

RNA sequencing. For the analysis of C3-TAg tumor organoids and non-invasive spheroids in **Fig.**

2 and S2, at least 1000 C3-TAg tumor organoids or 60,000-80,000 non-invasive cells were em-

bedded in a 500 μl ECM mixture (2.4 mg/ml Collagen I and 2 mg/ml Matrigel or Cultrex) and

plated on top of 500 uL base layer of ECM in 6 cm dishes (Falcon, 353004). C3-TAg tumor or-

ganoids were allowed to invade for 48 h. Non-invasive cells were allowed to grow and form sphe-

roids for 6 days. Experiments were performed twice using frozen stocks of tumors and cell lines.

For the analysis of 1339-org responses to growth factors and inhibitors in **Fig. 3, 6 and S6**, 250,000

1339-org cells were embedded in a 100 μl ECM mixture (2.4 mg/ml Collagen I and 2 mg/ml

Matrigel or Cultrex) and plated on top of a 200 μl ECM base layer in 6 cm dishes (Falcon, 353004).

The gels were overlaid with control or treatment media. Organoid/ECM gels were collected in 15

mL conical tubes (Fisher, 339651), snap frozen and stored in -80⁰ C freezer. Experiments were

performed twice. For RNA isolation in all experiments, the gels were thawed on ice and disinte-

grated in 1 mL Trizol (Invitrogen, 15596026) by repeatedly passing the mixture through a 23G

needle (BD, 305143). After the gels were homogenized, the Trizol-gel mixture was allowed to sit

at RT for 5 min. Then 200 μL of chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich, C2432-25ML) was added. Following

vigorous shaking for 15 sec, the mix was left for 2 min at RT to allow for phase separation. The

mix was then centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 15 m at 4^0 C. The upper aqueous phase was then trans-

ferred to a new tube and RNA was then further purified using the RNeasy Kit (Qiagen, 74104) and

or PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen, 12183025). For **Fig. 2 and S2**, RNA sequencing, was

performed by the Genomics and Epigenomics Shared Resource at Georgetown University. The

cDNA libraries were generated using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded Total RNA Library Prepara-

tion Kit (Illumina, 20020597). Sequencing was performed using an Illumina NextSeq 500 at a

depth of 12 million paired-end 75 base pair reads per sample. Data is available from GEO at

GSE188312. Reads were quantified using Salmon with mouse reference genome

(GRCm38/mm10). Counts were normalized and differential expression was calculated using

DESeq2. For **Fig. 3, 6 and S6**, RNA sequencing was performed by Novogene. RNA quality anal-

ysis was assessed by Bioanalyzer using the RNA Nano 6000 Assay Kit (Agilent, 5067-1511). The

cDNA libraries were prepared and indexed using the NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit for

Illumina (NEB, E7530L). Libraries were sequenced with the NovaSeq 6000 at a depth of 20 mil-

lion paired-end 150 base pair reads per sample. Sequencing data available from GEO at

GSE188300 and GSE188323. Reads were mapped to the mouse reference genome

(GRCm38/mm10) using HISAT2 and reads per gene determined using HTSeq. Counts were nor-

malized and differential expression was calculated using DESeq2.

Polar plot analysis. Expression data was normalized and differentially expressed genes with a $\geq$2-

fold change in expression with *p*< 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction were identified

using the *DESeq2* package in R (87, 88). Normalized expression data was collapsed for all genes

as the average between condition replicates and were subset to only include genes that were dif-

ferentially expressed between at least one of the three conditions (control, growth factor, growth

factor plus inhibitor) assessed. To define the integration between the pathways, we modified a

previously described approach for generating polar plots that has been used to identify dynamic

trends in gene expression (44, 89). Relative mean signal changes over successive conditions, of

control, growth factor, and growth factor plus inhibitor treatment (T^0, T^1, and T^2, respectively),

were transformed to an angle between -180 and +180 degrees (θ). This angle was further trans-

formed to a scale from 0 to 360 degrees and then interpolated into a color based on the angle.

Differentially expressed genes were plotted using polar coordinates (r,θ) with the radius (r), or

distance from the focus, being equal to the value of largest absolute $\log_2$ fold change between

conditions and theta (θ) being equal to the angle corresponding to the trend of change and calcu-

lated using the following equations:

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$$I = max\ (T^0, T^1, T^2)$$

702
$$R = 1 - \frac{min\ (T^0, T^1, T^2)}{I}$$

703
$$\theta = \left(\frac{T^0 + T^1 - T^2 - I}{I \times R} + 2\right) \times sign(T^1 - T^0) \times 60$$

The intensity (I) is equivalent to the maximum expression for a gene across conditions and the

ratio (R) between the minimum expression of a gene across conditions over the intensity, are used

to calculate the angle of expression trend (θ). As such, genes are plotted as a point with an angle

(θ) corresponding to relative changes in a gene's expression with subsequent treatments at a dis-

tance from the focus corresponding to the largest magnitude of change between any pair of condi-

tions in the treatment series. Three-point profile annotations of expression change (corresponding

from left to right as T^0, T^1, and T^2, respectively) are indicated on the outer edge of the polar scatter

plots every 30 degrees in the color assigned to that particular θ. These profiles are accompanied

by a radial histogram denoting the density of differentially changed genes across organoid condi-

tions at particular θ of the polar scatterplot.

To summarize the meaning of genes with particular profiles in the polar scatterplots, genes

were grouped by profiles at 30-degree intervals starting at 0 degrees, which denotes genes that

were unchanged in expression from T^0 to T^1 but demonstrated a significant increase in expression

following growth factor plus inhibitor treatment of the organoids (T^2). Genes from each group

were assessed for enrichment of Gene Ontology biological processes (GP) using the EnrichGo

function of the *clusterProfiler* package in R (90). Processes with $p < 0.01$ after BH correction are

included in **Tables S4, 5**. Values were transformed ($-\log_{10}$) and displayed alongside polar scatter-

plots. Genes within each profile group of the polar scatterplot and utilized for GO enrichment were

scaled and displayed as a line plot. A dotted line was added to these linear plots to denote the mean

scaled expression pattern across organoid treatment conditions for all genes within a particular

interval.

Breast Cancer Tissue Microarray. The construction of the TNBC tissue microarray (TMA) con-

taining duplicate cores from 50 patients was performed by the Histopathology and Tissue Shared

Resource (HTSR) at Georgetown University. Details of the methodology, patient consent, de-iden-

tification and demographics have been previously described (91). Multiplex staining of deparaf-

finized and rehydrated cores was performed through sequential rounds of staining, stripping and

re-probing with antibodies recognizing KRT14, Vimentin and E-cadherin and OPAL fluorescent

secondary antibodies **(Table S1)**. The TMA cores were imaged with a Vectra3 Multi-Spectral

Imaging microscope (Perkin Elmer) and analyzed with inForm software (Perkin Elmer). Tumor

and stroma were segmented based on E-cadherin expression (tumor). Cores with folded sections

or no clear tumor-stomal interface by manual inspection were excluded from analysis. Cores were

classified "high invasion" if invasive strands were detected in >50% of the tumor-stomal interface

by manual inspection. The KRT14 and Vimentin signals were not visible when classifying inva-

sion status.

Breast Cancer Patient Gene Expression Analysis. The mRNA expression data for 996 patients in

the Breast Invasive Carcinoma (The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA), PanCancer Atlas) was ana-

lyzed and downloaded from the cBioPortal (92, 93). Tumor subtype specific gene expression val-

ues are Z-scores relative to all samples. Correlative expression values are Log2 transformed.

Statistical Methods. Data was analyzed with Prism 9.0.2 (Graphpad) and *DESeq2, GSEA* and

ClusterProfiler packages in R. Data with a normal distribution, as determined by Shapiro-Wilk

test, was analyzed by two tailed Student's t-test. Data that did not pass a normality test were ana-

lyzed by Mann-Whitney U test or Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's Multiple comparison test. Dif-

ferentially expressed genes with *p*< 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg correction were identified us-

ing the *DESeq2* package in R. Fisher's exact tests to determine the enrichment of Gene Ontology

biological processes (BP) were performed using the EnrichGo function of the *ClusterProfiler*

package in R. The specific statistical tests are indicated in the figure legends. Sample numbers are

defined and indicated in the figure legends or on the figure panels. All experiments include a min-

imum of 2 biological replicates from separate biological preparations.

Data Availability. The RNA sequencing data generated in this study are publicly available in Gene

Expression Omnibus (GEO) at GSE188300, GSE188312 and GSE188323. All other data are avail-

able within the article and its supplementary data files. Details of code used for analysis is available

from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Materials Availability. Cell and organoid lines derived from C3-TAg tumors will be made avail-

able by the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

DISCLOSURE OF POTENTIAL CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

There are no potential conflicts of interest.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

A. Nasir: Conceptualization, investigation, writing-review and editing. **S. Camacho:** Conceptu-

alization, investigation, writing-review and editing. **A.T. McIntosh:** Investigation, writing-review

and editing. **G. Graham:** Investigation, writing-review and editing. **R. Rahhal:** Investigation,

writing-review and editing. **M.E. Huysman:** Investigation. **A.T. Riegel:** Resources, funding ac-

quisition. **G.W. Pearson:** Conceptualization, investigation, writing-review and editing, funding

acquisition.

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Figure S1

Figure S1, continued

I   TNBC patient TMA

Figure S1. A. Representative masked images of C3-TAg organoids showing how reduced organoid invasion is represented by increased organoid circularity. Scale bar 50 µm. **B.** C3-TAg organoids and dissociated cells from the same tumors were grown in ECM for 2 and 4 days respectively to evaluate invasion. Solid arrows indicate representative invasive cells. Dashed arrow indicates a representative non-invasive spheroid. Violin plot shows the quantification of circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids (C3-TAg organoids) or spheroids (dissociated cells), r=2). Scale bars, 50 µm. **C.** Graphic shows the methodology for deriving clonal trailblazer and opportunist cell lines. **D.** Representative images of non-invasive (G2) and invasive (C7) clonal cell lines. Scale bars, 100 µm (top), 20 µm (bottom, inset). **E.** Invasive D6-H2B:GFP cells promoted the opportunistic invasion of non-invasive B6-H2B:mCherry cells. Top row, 2x2 tiled LED fluorescence images. Inset images are confocal sections of the ROIs indicated by the dashed line boxes. Graph shows the quantification of B6-H2B:mCherry cell invasion (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2). Scale bars, top row 100 µm; inset images 20 µm. **F.** KRT14 mRNA is more highly expressed in the basal-like subtype compared to other types of breast cancer in the TCGA. Z-scores relative to all samples are shown (Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test). P-values are in comparison to the basal-like tumors. **G.** Immunoblots showing the expression of Krt14 and Krt8 in non-invasive (G2, B6) and invasive (D6, C7) C3-TAg clonal cell lines (n=2). **H.** Representative images from 2 independent experiments show that C3-TAg organoids are intrinsically more invasive than PyMT organoids in 100% Cultrex ECM. **I.** Full TNBC patient tumors images with dashed boxes showing the ROIs from **1H**. Scale bars, 200 µm.

Figure S2

A

Non-invasive clonal cell lines → Non-invasive spheroids

Day 0 ECM → Day 6 ECM

Hoechst

C6 n=1,111
B6 n=1,583
E8 n=1,445

Circularity
p<0.0001 p<0.0001 p<0.0001
C6 B6 E6

B

	Non-invasive		Invasive	
	G2	B6	D6	C7
ΔNp63				
Vinculin				

C

KEGG:ECM Receptor Interaction
KEGG:ECM Receptor Interaction NES=1.77, p= 1E-07

Enrichment score
log_2(Fold Change)
Rank

KEGG:Focal Adhesion
KEGG:Focal Adhesion NES=1.44, p= 1E-04

Enrichment score
log_2(Fold Change)
Rank

KEGG:Regulation of Actin Cytoskeleton
KEGG:Regulation of Actin Cytoskeleton NES=1.38, p= 7E-04

Enrichment score
log_2(Fold Change)
Rank

D

Pathway enrichment
Hallmark

Pathway (top to bottom):
E2F TARGETS
EPITHELIAL MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION
ALLOGRAFT REJECTION
G2M CHECKPOINT
COAGULATION
IL6 JAK STAT3 SIGNALING
KRAS SIGNALING UP
INFLAMMATORY RESPONSE
INTERFERON GAMMA RESPONSE
PANCREAS BETA CELLS
TNFA SIGNALING VIA NFKB
MYOGENESIS
COMPLEMENT
INTERFERON ALPHA RESPONSE
ANGIOGENESIS
APICAL JUNCTION
KRAS SIGNALING DN
IL2 STAT5 SIGNALING
UV RESPONSE UP
APOPTOSIS
MYC TARGETS V2
UV RESPONSE DN
APICAL SURFACE
SPERMATOGENESIS
TGF BETA SIGNALING
MITOTIC SPINDLE
ESTROGEN RESPONSE LATE
ANDROGEN RESPONSE
XENOBIOTIC METABOLISM
MYC TARGETS V1

NES

Enrichment direction
−
+

E

C3-TAg

Hoechst SV40 Vim
Hoechst Vim
SV40 Vim

TNBC patient TMA

F

Low invasion

DAPI E-CAD VIM
E-CAD VIM
DAPI VIM

High invasion

G

TCGA Breast Cancer

VIM expression (z-score)

p<0.0001 p<0.0001 p<0.0001
Basal HER2 Lum A Lum B

Figure S2. A. The indicated non-invasive opportunist C3-TAg clonal cell lines were grown in ECM for at least 6 days. Violin plot shows the quantification of spheroid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=spheroids, r=2). Scale bars, 50 μm. **B.** Immunoblots showing the expression of ΔN-p63 in non-invasive (G2, B6) and invasive (D6, C7) C3-TAg clonal cell lines (n=2). Lysates are from the same gel. **C.** GSEA was performed on RNA-seq data from C3-TAg organoids and non-invasive C3-TAg clones to identify pathway enrichment in C3-TAg organoids. Plots show the GSEA for the indicated KEGG pathways. **D.** Graph shows Hallmark pathways with NES ≥1. **E**. Overview image of a C3-TAg tumor with dashed boxes showing the Tumor-ECM interface ROIs from **2G**. Scale bars 100 μm. **F.** Full TNBC patient tumor images with dashed boxes showing the ROIs from **2H**. Scale bars, 200 μm. **G.** VIM mRNA is more highly expressed in the basal-like subtype compared to other types of breast cancer in the TCGA. Z-scores relative to all samples are shown (Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test). P-values are in comparison to basal-like tumors.

Figure S3

Figure S3. A. 1863 cells were derived in the presence of A83-01 and were less invasive than 1863 cells, which were derived from the same tumor but in the presence of A83-01. Graph shows cluster invasion (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n= clusters, r=2). Scale bars, 50µm. **B.** 1863T vertical invasion was suppressed by a Smad3 siRNA pool and individual Smad3 siRNAs (mean±SEM, unpaired Student's t test, n=3). Scale bars, 50 µm. **C.** Graph shows siRNA induced Smad3 depletion (mean±SEM, n=2). **D.** Graphics showing the process for deriving 1339-org, 1863-org and 1788-org lines and their relationship to other cell lines derived from the same tumors. **E, F.** Tgfbr1 inhibition suppresses intrinsic and extrinsic TGFβ1 induced invasion of multiple C3-TAg organoid lines (**E**, 1863-org; **F**, 1788-org). Organoids were treated with the Tgfbr1 inhibitors A83-01 (500 nM) and SB431542 (1 µM) and extrinsic TGFβ1 (2 ng/ml) as indicated. Violin plots show the quantification of organoid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids). Scale bars, 50 µm.

Figure S4

A

B

Figure S4. A. FACS showing how TGFβ1 induces a shift in the distribution of EpCAM expressing 1339-org cells (representative of 2 independent experiments). **B.** TGFβ1 progressively increases Vimentin expression in 1339-org cells. Arrows indicate representative Vimentin expressing cells leading collective invasion. Graph shows Vimentin expression in 1339-org organoids (Student's t-test, n=images analyzed). Scale bars, 100 μm.

Figure S5

Figure S5. A. Fra1 depletion by a second distinct Fra1 siRNA pool (pool 2) decreased the invasion of TGFβ1 treated 1863 clusters (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2). Scale bars, 50 µm. Bar graph shows the depletion of Fra1 expression by two different pools of Fra1 siRNA (mean±SEM, n=3 for pool 1 and n=2 for pool 2). **B.** 1863T vertical invasion was suppressed by four individual sequences from Fra1 siRNA pool 1 (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n= 9 wells, r=3) Scale bars, 50 µm. **C.** Fra1 siRNA pool 2 reduced the vertical invasion of 1863T cells (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=12 wells, r=4). Scale bars, 50 µm. **D.** Fra1 depletion suppressed the invasion of 1863T clusters (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2). Scale bars, 50 µm. **E.** Fra1 siRNA pool 2 reduced the vertical invasion of D6 cells (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n= 9 wells, r=3). Scale bars, 50 µm. **F.** Fra1 knockdown (pool 1) suppressed the invasion of TGFβ1 treated 1339 clusters (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=clusters, r=2). Scale bars, 50 µm. **G.** Jun depletion with 4 different siRNAs decreases the vertical invasion of 1863T cells (mean±SEM, Mann Whitney test, n=9 wells, r=2). Scale bars, 50 µm.

Figure S6

Figure S6. A-B. GSEA was performed on RNA-seq data from C3-TAg organoids and non-invasive C3-TAg clones to identify pathway enrichment in C3-TAg organoids. Plots show the GSEA associated with Kras signaling. **C.** HBEGF mRNA is more highly expressed in the basal-like subtype compared to other types of breast cancer in the TCGA. Z-scores relative to all samples are shown (Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test). P-values are in comparison to the basal-like tumors. **D.** FRA1 (FOSL1) correlates with HBEGF expression in breast cancer patient tumors. **E.** Trametinib (10 nM) and erlotinib (1 µM) reduced Fra1 expression in serum-starved 1863 cells (mean±SEM, n=2). **F.** Immunoblots showing that Jun expression was not perturbed by treatment with trametinib (10 nM), erlotinib (1 µM) or A83-01 (500 nM) in 1863 and 1339 cells. Representative of 2 (erlotinib, A83-01) and 3 (trametinib) independent experiments. **G.** Immunoblot showing that trametinib (10 nM) did not reduce Zeb1 expression or Smad2 phosphorylation (n=2). **H-I.** The Tgfbr1 inhibitor A83-01 suppressed the EGF induced invasion of 1863-org and 1788-org organoids. Violin plot shows the quantification of organoid circularity (Mann Whitney test, n=organoids, r=2).

Figure S7

A

C3-TAg-org line → Passage → Organoids → Embed in ECM

Treatments: Control, EGF, A83-01 → RNA extraction → RNA-Seq

B

EGF — T¹; Control — T⁰; EGF + A83-01 — T²

C

D TGFβ1+Erlotinib cluster assignments

Tgfbr1 — Egfr; clusters 2,3 / 9 / 4,5 / 10,11 / 1 / 8 / 6,7 / 12

E EGF+A83-01 cluster assignments

Tgfbr1 — Egfr; clusters 6,7 / 12 / 4,5 / 10,11 / 8 / 1 / 2,3 / 9

F EGF+A83-01 summary

- 226 genes: Cell-ECM adhesion, Motility, Chemotaxis
- 369 genes: EMT, Collagen fibril organization
- 79 genes: Glucose homeostasis, Epithelial cell morphogenesis
- 57 genes: Inflammatory response, Cell junction organization, Phagocytosis
- 323 genes: ECM remodelling, BMP signaling pathway
- 165 genes: Immune response, Metabolic processes
- 221 genes: Angiogenesis, Amino acid synthesis, Response to chemokine
- 131 genes: Muscle contraction, Fatty acid metabolism

Tgfbr1 — Egfr

G

Cluster 8, 221 genes; Scaled expression vs Treatments (Control, EGF, EGF + A83-01)

Tgfbr1 → Targets ⊣ Egfr

Gene Ontology biological processes (BP)
- cell fate commitment
- heart valve morphogenesis
- response to estradiol
- odontogenesis
- extracellular matrix organization
- extracellular structure organization
- heart valve development
- muscle structure development
- odontogenesis of dentin-containing tooth
- BMP signaling pathway

$-\log_{10}$(p-value)

H

Cluster 5, 131 genes; Scaled expression vs Treatments (Control, EGF, EGF + A83-01)

Tgfbr1 → Targets ← Egfr

Gene Ontology biological processes (BP)
- positive regulation of cell motility
- positive regulation of locomotion
- positive regulation of cellular component movement
- positive regulation of cell migration
- extracellular matrix organization
- extracellular structure organization
- leukocyte migration
- chemotaxis
- taxis
- positive regulation of epithelial cell migration

$-\log_{10}$(p-value)

Figure S7. A. Overview of the approach to test the interactions between the Egfr and Tgfβ signaling pathways when cells were treated with EGF or EGF+A83-01. **B.** Polar plot organizing genes represented as individual dots based on their change in expression in response to treatment with EGF and co-treatment with EGF and A83-01. Genes that underwent ≥2 fold-change with a p< 0.05 after Benjamini-Hochberg correction in at least one condition relative to one of the other conditions are shown (3 total comparisons). The distance from the center of the plot represents the Δlog$_2$ value of each gene (increased difference in expression, further from the center). The bar plots on the surface of the circle show the number of genes at the degree point in the plot. Genes are grouped into 12 color-coded groups along 30 degree increments over the 360 degree plot. As an example, genes in group 5 were increased in expression by EGF and this increase in expression was inhibited by A83-01. In contrast, genes in group 1 were increased in expression by EGF, and this induction is further enhanced by treatment with A83-01. **C.** Plot shows the cluster locations along the 30 degree increments in the polar plots shown in **Fig. 6B** and **S6B**. **D.** Clusters assigned to different summary groups for TGFβ1 treated organoids shown in **Fig. 6B**. **E.** Clusters assigned to different summary groups for EGF treated organoids shown in **Fig. S6B**. **F.** Summary of the number of genes and represented biological processes associated with different modes of interaction between the Tgfbr1 and Egfr pathways in cells treated with stimulated EGF. Also see **Table S5** for the assignment of polar plot clusters and detailed biological processes used to define the summary integration groups. **G.** Egfr restricted the expression of a subset of genes induced by autocrine Tgfβ. Line plots show the expression of genes in Cluster 1. Dashed line indicates the average scaled expression of all Cluster 1 genes. Graph shows the top 10 biological processes (GO-BP) associated with Cluster 1 genes (Fisher's exact test). **H.** Tgfbr1 was necessary for the expression of a subset of genes induced by extrinsic EGF. Line plots show the expression of genes in Cluster 5. Dashed line indicates the average scaled expression of all Cluster 5 genes. Graph shows the top 10 biological processes (GO-BP) associated with Cluster 5 genes (Fisher's exact test).

Table S1. Description of GEM models, organoid/cell line models and reagents used in the study.

Table S2. RNA-Seq data (log2(CPM) genes x samples) from comparison between non-invasive clones and C3-TAg tumor organoids. Pathway enrichment analysis from comparison between non-invasive clones and C3-TAg tumor organoids

Table S3. Gene clusters and enriched biological processes from comparison between control and TGFβ1 treated C3-TAg 1339-org line organoids

Table S4. Gene clusters and enriched biological processes from comparison between control (T^0), TGFβ1 (T^1) and TGFβ1 + Erlotinib (T^2) treated C3-TAg 1339-org line organoids.

Table S5. Gene clusters and enriched biological processes from comparison between control (T^0), EGF (T^1) and EGF + A8301 (T^2) treated C3-TAg 1339-org line organoids.

Video S1. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived tumor organoids in organotypic culture (GFP, green, tumor cell). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 14 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with invasive heterogeneity in C3-TAg organoids shown in **Fig. 1A, S1B**.

Video S2. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived tumor dissociated organoids in organotypic culture. Bright field images were acquired for 5 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with the intratumor invasive heterogeneity in C3-TAg tumor dissociated organoids shown in **Fig. S1B**.

Video S3. Live imaging of homogenous clusters of C3-TAg tumor derived non-invasive clonal cells B6 (H2B:mCherry, red, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 14 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with non-invasive B6 clusters shown in **Fig. 1B, S1E**.

Video S4. Live imaging of homogenous clusters of C3-TAg derived tumor cells. Bright field images were acquired for 14 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with invasive C3-TAg tumor cells clusters shown in **Fig. 1B**.

Video S5. Live imaging of heterogeneous clusters of C3-TAg derived tumor cells and non-invasive clonal cells B6 (H2B:mCherry, red, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 14 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with opportunistic invasion of B6 cells induced by C3-TAg tumor cells as shown in **Fig. 1B**.

Video S6. Live imaging of heterogeneous clusters of C3-TAg derived invasive (D6) and non-invasive (B6) clonal cells (H2B: GFP, green, nuclei; H2B:mCherry, red, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 14 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with opportunistic invasion of B6 cells induced by D6 cells as shown in **Fig. S1E**.

Video S7. Live imaging of PyMT derived tumor organoids in organotypic culture. Bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with less invasive PyMT organoids as shown in **Fig. 1F**.

Video S8. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived tumor organoids in organotypic culture. Bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with more highly invasive C3-TAg organoids as shown in **Fig. 1F**.

Video S9. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived 1339-org line organoids in serum starved media (H2B:GFP, green, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with the baseline invasion of C3-TAg derived 1339-org line organoids as shown in **Fig. 3C, S3C**.

Video S10. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived 1339-org line organoids in serum starved media + 500 nM A830-01 (Tgfbr1 inhibitor) (H2B:GFP, green, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with suppression of 1339-org line organoid invasion by inhibiting autocrine TGFβR1 activity as shown in **Fig. S3C**.

Video S11. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived 1339-org line organoids in presence of exogenous TGFβ1 (48 h) (H2B:GFP, green, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with TGFβ1 induced invasion in 1339-org line organoids as shown in **Fig. 3C, S3C**.

Video S12. Live imaging of C3-TAg derived 1339-org line organoids in presence of persistent exogenous TGFβ1 (Day 16) (H2B:GFP, green, nuclei). Fluorescent and bright field images were acquired for 18 h at 30 min intervals. The video corresponds with progressively increased TGFβ1 induced invasion in 1339-org line organoids as shown in **Fig. 3C**.