**The long non-coding RNA *MaTAR20* promotes mammary tumor growth by regulating angiogenesis pathways**

Sarah D. Diermeier[1,2,*], Kung-Chi Chang[2,3], Ashleigh Frewen[1], Padraig Taaffe[1,] Joke C. Grans[1], Haoyu Xiong[1], Brian A. Benz[2], Suzanne Russo[2], Dawid Nowak[2], Stephen Hearn[2], Allen Yu[2,4], John E. Wilkinson[5], Frank Rigo[6], and David L. Spector[2,3,4*]

[1]Department of Biochemistry, University of Otago, Dunedin 9016, New Zealand

[2]Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY 11724, USA

[3]Stony Brook University, Molecular and Cellular Biology Program, Stony Brook, NY 11794, USA

[4]Stony Brook University, Genetics Program, Stony Brook, NY 11794, USA

[5]Department of Pathology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

[6]Ionis Pharmaceuticals, Carlsbad, CA 92010, USA

*Correspondence:

Sarah D. Diermeier (sarah.diermeier@otago.ac.nz, +64 20 4221985) or

David L. Spector (spector@cshl.edu, +1 (516) 367-8456)

**Running title:** *MaTAR20* as new driver of mammary tumor growth

**Keywords:** long non-coding RNAs; breast cancer; antisense oligonucleotides; Vegf; Tnfsf15

**Financial Support:**

This research was supported by NCI 5P01CA013106-Project 3 (D.L.S.), CSHL/Northwell Health support (D.L.S), a Susan G. Komen postdoctoral fellowship (S.D.D.), NCI 1K99CA215362-01 (S.D.D), RDF-UOO1802 awarded by the Royal Society Te Apārangi (S.D.D.), the New Zealand Cancer Society (S.D.D.) and the Breast Cancer Foundation New Zealand (S.D.D.).

**Conflict of interest:**

33   The authors declare no conflict of interest. D.L.S. is a consultant to, and receives

34   research reagents from, Ionis Pharmaceuticals.

**Abstract**

Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) are an emerging class of regulatory molecules

that have been shown to play important roles in tumorigenesis and cancer progression.

Here, we studied the recently identified lncRNA *Mammary Tumor Associated RNA 20*

(*MaTAR20*) in mammary cancer progression. A CRISPR/Cas9 knockout of *MaTAR20* in

the metastatic 4T1 cell line led to reduced cancer cell proliferation and increased cell

surface adhesion compared to control cells. Consistent with these knockout results

antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) mediated knockdown of *MaTAR20* resulted in reduced

growth and invasion in 4T1 cells, and in primary mammary tumor organoids derived from

the MMTV-PyMT mouse model of breast cancer. Injection of *MaTAR20*-specific ASOs

subcutaneously into tumor bearing MMTV-PyMT mice resulted in smaller and highly

necrotic tumors in comparison to mice injected with a scrambled control ASO. To

investigate the molecular mechanism by which *MaTAR20* acts to advance mammary

tumor progression, we applied a combination of RNA-sequencing and RNA-pulldown

coupled to DNA-sequencing. These analyses demonstrated that the nuclear retained

lncRNA is associated with several essential cancer signaling pathways such as VEGF

signaling. In particular, *MaTAR20* directly binds to and regulates the expression of

*Tnfsf15*. Our results indicate that *MaTAR20* is an important driver of mammary tumor

progression and represents a promising new therapeutic target.

**Introduction**

Breast cancer (BC) is estimated to account for 30% of new cancer diagnoses and 15% of cancer-related deaths in women in 2021 (1). While currently available chemo- and targeted therapies have led to improved overall survival rates, declines of mortality have slowed over the past decade compared to other types of cancer (1). Metastatic disease in particular is the main cause for BC related mortality (1), indicating the need for innovative approaches to target the metastatic cascade.

Recent studies highlight the potential of long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) as new therapeutic targets in cancer (2-13). Many lncRNAs are expressed in a tissue- and cancer-specific manner (14,15) and several previous studies have supported a role for lncRNAs as drivers of tumorigenesis, tumor growth and invasion (reviewed in (16) and (17)). A promising new approach of targeting lncRNAs to reduce mammary tumor growth and metastasis *in vivo* are nucleic acid based therapies (reviewed in (17)). Initial success in targeting oncogenic lncRNAs was shown using locked nucleic acids (LNAs) to target *BCAR4* (5) or antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs) for *Malat1* (6,18).

We previously identified 30 *Mammary Tumor Associated RNAs* (*MaTARs*) (7). These lncRNAs are over-expressed in mouse models of BC and in human breast tumor tissue compared to normal mammary epithelial cells (7). ASO-mediated knockdown of various *MaTARs* in primary mammary tumor cells resulted in a tumor cell - specific reduction of cell growth (7). Recently, we demonstrated that *MaTAR25* expression contributes to BC progression via regulation of the *Tensin1* gene (13). Here, we investigated the potential of *MaTAR20* (also known as *Gm13387*, *RP23-132N23.1*, *ENSMUSG00000087028*) as a new therapeutic target in BC, as well as the molecular

mechanism by which *MaTAR20* acts. ASO-mediated knockdown or CRISPR/Cas9

knockout of *MaTAR20* results in reduced cell proliferation and migration. Further, ASO

knockdown of *MaTAR20 in vivo* leads to delayed tumor onset, decreased tumor size,

increased tumor necrosis and reduced metastatic burden. To further study the potential

of this lncRNAs as a therapeutic target, we generated two loss-of-function and one gain-

of-function models of the human orthologue, *hMaTAR20*. Our *in vitro* and *in vivo*

characterization of these models suggest that the lncRNA is indeed a new driver of breast

cancer cell proliferation and migration. Based on our investigation of the molecular

mechanism of *MaTAR20* function, the observed phenotype is likely the result of reduced

tumor vascularization upon reduction in the level of *MaTAR20*. *MaTAR20* regulates genes

involved in tumor angiogenesis, such as increasing the expression of the *Vascular*

*Endothelial Growth Factor A and B* (*Vegf-A*, *Vegf-B*) genes and it directly binds to the

*Tnfsf15* locus to repress its expression during tumor progression.

**Materials and Methods**

**Murine cell culture**

Murine 4T1, Py2T, G0771 and D2A cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. All cells were grown in a cell culture

incubator at 37 °C and 5% $CO_2$. ASOs were delivered to the cells via free uptake

immediately after seeding the cells. For proliferation assays, cells were seeded in 24-well

plates and trypsinized at individual time points. Cell counts were determined manually

using a hemocytometer. Cell cycle analysis was performed using a BrdU FITC kit (BD)

as described (13).

**Organoid culture**

Murine mammary tumor organoids were generated and cultured as previously described (7,19). Briefly, organoids were generated from nulliparous MMTV-PyMT tumors, mixed with growth factor-reduced Matrigel and grown in DMEM/F12 medium supplemented with 1x ITS (insulin, transferrin, and sodium selenite), 1% penicillin/streptomycin and murine FGF2 (2.5 nM). For ASO-mediated knockdown experiments, organoids were seeded at a density of 5 organoids/μl and plated as 80 μl domes in 24-well dishes. ASOs were added directly (free uptake) to the culture medium 15-20 min after the organoids were plated and in fresh medium at day 3. Organoids were incubated for a total of 6 days. ASO sequences are provided in Supplementary Table S1. For visualization purposes and quantification of organoid branching, images were acquired using an Axio-Observer Live Cell inverted microscope (Zeiss).

**Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

SEM on 2D cells was performed as described previously (20). Briefly, cells cultured on glass coverslips were fixed in 1.6% glutaraldehyde in PBS for 30 minutes and then dehydrated in a graded ethanol series. Coverslips were critical point dried (CPD) using a Samidri 795 CPD device (Tousimis), mounted on aluminum stubs with carbon tabs (Electron Microscopy Sciences). Samples were coated with gold using an Emitech K550X Sputter Coater. Samples were imaged with a Hitachi S3500 SEM operated at 5 kV.

For SEM of 3D organoids, Matrigel containing organoid samples were removed from multi-well tissue culture dishes (using a 3.5 mL disposable transfer pipette and placed in 45 mL of cold PBS (4°C) in 50 mL capacity polypropylene centrifuge tubes (VWR Scientific). Matrigel was washed away by 3-4 rounds of suspension in cold PBS

and centrifugation using a refrigerated centrifuge set to 1,000 pm, 20 min, 4°C (Beckman

Coulter Allegra X15r). After the final wash to remove Matrigel, organoids were transferred

to 1.6 mL microcentrifge tubes and fixed in 1% glutaraldehyde in PBS at 4°C, for 30

minutes, rinsed in distilled water by centrifugation and resuspension and then post-fixed

in 1% aqueous osmium tetroxide (Electron Microscopy Sciences) for 30 minutes at RT.

After osmium fixation, organoids became dense relative to solutions and a centrifuge was

not needed for further handling. Organoids were dehydrated in a graded ethanol series

and then immersed in 50% hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS, Electron Microscopy Sciences)

in 100% ethanol for 5 min and 100% HMDS for 10 min. Organoids in 0.3 mL of HMDS

were aspirated using a transfer pipette and the solution and suspended organoids were

deposited to 12 mm diameter SEM stubs coated with carbon adhesive tabs (Ted Pella

Inc) and allowed to air dry. Samples were coated with gold using an Emitech K550X

Sputter Coater and imaged with a Hitachi S3500 SEM operated at 5 kV.

**RNA extraction and qRT-PCR**

Total RNA was isolated from cells or organoids using TRIzol. DNase I treatment

was performed for 15 min at RT to remove contaminating DNA. cDNA synthesis was

carried out using the TaqMan Reverse Transcription kit (Life Technologies) and random

hexamers according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quantitative Real time PCR (qRT-

PCR) was performed using the Power SYBR Green Master Mix (Life Technologies).

Cycling conditions were as follows: 15 min at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles of 15 sec at 94

°C, 30 sec at 60°C. *Peptidylprolyl isomerase B* (*cyclophilin B*) was used as an

endogenous control in mouse and *RPL13* in human to normalize each sample and

relative expression results were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. A list of primers used

is provided in Supplementary Table S1.

**Subcellular localization**

For single-molecule FISH, cells were seeded onto acid-washed glass coverslips

and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde when reaching 50% confluency. RNA-FISH was

carried out using the Affymetrix View ISH Cell Assay Kit and custom probes (Thermo

Fisher) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For human tissue, Pantomics

BRC481 tissue microarrays were used. The slides were imaged on a LSM 710/780

confocal microscope (Zeiss). Cell fractionation assays were performed as described in

(13).

**CRISPR/Cas promoter deletion**

To generate a genetic knockout, two sgRNAs targeting the promoter region were

combined, creating a deletion. A sgRNA targeting the *Renilla* luciferase gene was used

as non-targeting control. All sgRNAs were cloned into a lentiCRISPR_V2 plasmid

(Addgene #52961) also encoding Cas9 and delivered to the cells using lentiviral

transduction as described (21). Stable integrants were selected using puromycin

selection and single cell sorted using a FACS Aria (SORP) Cell Sorter. Each single cell

clone was propagated and analyzed by genomic PCR and qRT-PCR to select for

homozygous knockout clones. Sequences for sgRNAs are provided in Supplementary

Table S1.

**Invasion assay**

Invasion assays were performed as described previously in (7). Briefly, a Cultrex®

96 well BME Cell Invasion Assay (Trevigen) was used. Cells were starved in FBS-free

culture medium, then harvested and seeded at a density of $5 \times 10^4$ cells/well into the

invasion chamber. ASOs were added to growth medium containing 10% FBS. The plate

was incubated at 37 °C for 24 h and the assay was performed according to the

manufacturer's instructions. The fluorescence was measured with a SpectraMax i3 Multi-

Mode Detection Platform (Molecular Devices) using the 480/520 nm filter set. Each

sample was measured in triplicate.

**Rescue Assay**

*MaTAR20* isoforms were amplified by PCR using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA

Polymerase (NEB) following the manufacturer's instructions. *MaTAR20* isoform 1 was

cloned using Xhol and EcoRI-HF overhangs. The digested PCR product was ligated into

a pCMV6-Entry plasmid (Origene) with T4 DNA ligase. Isoforms 2 and 3 were amplified

by PCR, gel extracted and treated with T4 PNK. The pCMV6-Entry plasmid was digested

using EcoRV-HF and Eco53kl followed by dephosphorylation using Quick CIP. Isoforms

2 and 3 were ligated into the pCMV6-Entry backbone as described above. Ligations were

transformed into competent DH5α cells using heat shock. Transformants were selected

for using Kanamycin at 25 µg/mL and validated using Sanger sequencing.

For ectopic expression of *MaTAR20*, knockout cells were seeded into 96-well

plates at a density of 5,000 cells/well. The plates were incubated overnight (16-18 h) at

37 °C with 5% CO2. DNA was transfected using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher) in

serum-free DMEM medium at a ratio of 100 ng DNA : 0.2 µL Lipofectamine. After 6 h, the

medium was replaced with 100 µL/well of fresh complete medium. Cells were fixed for

each time point using 100 µL/well of staining solution (150 µg/mL saponin, 4 µg/mL DAPI,

0.5% PFA in PBS) for 30 minutes with gentle shaking at RT, then stored at 4 °C .The cells

were counted using a Cytation5 automated cell counting system.

RNA was isolated 24 h after transfection. The medium was removed and 50 µL of

TRIzol was added to each well of a 96-well plate. RNA was extracted according to the

manufacturer's instructions. For each sample, 1 µg of RNA was treated with ezDNase

and reverse transcribed to cDNA using SuperScript IV VILO following the manufacturer's

instructions (Thermo Fisher). For RT-qPCR testing of the *MaTAR20* rescue, PowerUp

SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher) was used. All RT-qPCRs were run on a

QuantStudioTM 3 Real-Time PCR Machine (Applied Biosystems).

***hMaTAR20* CRISPR/Cas9 knockout cell lines**

T47D cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 0.2

Unit/mL human insulin and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. A sgRNA targeting the mouse

*MaTAR20* gene was used as non-targeting control (M888). All sgRNAs were cloned into

a lentiCRISPR_V2 plasmid (Addgene #52961) also encoding Cas9 and delivered to the

cells using lentiviral transduction as described (21). Stable integrants were selected using

puromycin selection and single cell sorted using a FACS Aria (SORP) Cell Sorter. Each

single cell clone was propagated and analyzed by genomic PCR and qRT-PCR to select

for homozygous knockout clones (19bp deletion; hg38 chr9:137295224-137295246).

**CRISPRi**

MDA-MB231-LM2 (LM2) cells (22) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with

10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. We used lentiviral transduction to integrate

dCas9 (pHAGE EF1α dCas9-KRAB, Addgene # 50919) as described (21). A sgRNA

targeting the *Renilla* luciferase gene was used as non-targeting control. sgRNAs targeting

the promoter region of *hMaTAR20* (hg38 chr9:137295979-137295998 for -277; chr9:

137296113-137296128 for -390) were cloned into pLenti SpBsmBI Hygro plasmid

(Addgene #62205) and delivered to the MDA-MB231-LM2-dCas9 cells using lentiviral

transduction. Stable integrants were selected using hygromycin selection. For *in vivo*

experiments 400,000 cells were xenografted into the L4 mammary fat pad of Nu/J mice

(n=10 each for *Ren* control and *hMaTAR20* KD cells).

**CRISPRa**

MCF10A cells were cultured in a media consisting of DMEM/F12 + GlutaMAX +

5% Horse Serum + 20 ng/ml EGF + 0.5 mg/ml Hydrocortisone + 100 ng/ml Cholera Toxin

+ 0.28 Units/ml Insulin. For CRISPR activation (CRISPRa) two plasmids carrying the

components of the tagging system SUperNova (SunTag) were integrated into MCF10A

cells by lentiviral transduction (23). The utilized plasmids were obtained from Addgene:

pHRdSV40-scFv-GCN4-sfGFP-VP64-GB1-NLS (#60904) and pLV-sgCDKN1B#2 BFP

(#60903). All sgRNAs were cloned into the plasmid backbone pLenti SpBsmBI Hygro

(Addgene #62205), and stable integrants were selected using hygromycin selection.

**Proliferation assay**

The proliferation assay was performed by DAPI staining of the cell nuclei and

automatically counted by a CytationTM 5 Cell Imaging Reader (BioTek). Briefly, cells

were trypsinized and counted manually with a hemocytometer. One thousand cells per

well were seeded into 10 wells of four 96-well plates. Cells were fixed and stained at 24

h, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h post seeding with 100 µl staining solution (PBS, 150 ng/ml

Saponin, 8 ng/ml DAPI, 0,5% PFA) per well for 30 minutes.

**Scratch assay**

Scratch assays were performed following the protocol according to (24). Cells were

trypsinized, seeded into a 24-well plate (or 6-well plates for MCF10A) and grown to full

confluence. The cell monolayer was scratched using a 200 µL pipette tip to create a

straight wound, followed by washing off floating cells with medium. Images were taken

directly after scratching (T0) and after 24 h culturing (T24), and the rate of wound closure

was calculated using Image J.

**Animal experiments**

Animal experiments were carried out in the CSHL Animal Shared Resource, in

accordance with IACUC approved procedures. MMTV-PyMT mice (25) were obtained

from Dr. Mikala Egeblad (CSHL). Tumors and normal mammary glands were extracted

immediately after euthanizing the animal and processed to generate primary cells,

organoids or tissue sections. For *in vivo* ASO injections, female MMTV-PyMT mice were

divided into two cohorts, being treated either with a *MaTAR20*-specific ASO or a

scrambled control ASO at ~8-10 weeks of age (after formation of palpable tumors). MOE

ASOs were injected subcutaneously three times per week (n=4 for scASO, n=5 for

*MaTAR20* ASO). cET ASOs were injected twice per week, both at 50 mg/kg per dose

(n=7 for scASO, n=7 for *MaTAR20* ASO). Tumors were measured twice per week

throughout the treatment course. At the end of the experiment, mice were euthanized,

and primary tumors and lungs were fixed in 4% PFA and embedded in paraffin for histo-

pathological analysis, or snap-frozen for RNA extractions. FFPE blocks were sectioned

and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Slides were scanned and analyzed using

the Aperio ImageScope software. Immunohistochemistry was performed using the

following antibodies: Tnfsf15 (Bioss, BS-5092R), Anti-Ki67 (AbCam, ab15580), Cleaved

Caspase-3 (Cell Signaling, 9661), VegfB (Invitrogen, PA5-80220), VegfA (AbCam,

ab1316). The resulting images were analyzed using QuPath software v0.2.3(26).

**RNA-seq**

RNA quality was assessed on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Libraries were prepared on samples with RIN ≥9 using the Illumina TruSeq sample prep kit v2 and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq instrument. Data was analyzed as previously described (7). Briefly, the quality of FASTQ files was assessed using FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Reads were mapped to GRCm38 using STAR (27), and the reads per gene record were counted using HTSeq-count (28). Differential gene expression was performed with DESeq2 (29), and an adjusted p-value of < 0.05 was set as threshold for statistical significance. KEGG pathway and GO term enrichment and was carried out using the R/Bioconductor packages GAGE (30) and Pathview (31).

**ChIRP-seq**

ChIRP-seq was carried out as previously described (13). Briefly, 20 million cells were harvested and fixed in 1% glutaraldehyde solution. ChIRP was performed using two individual tiling pools of biotinylated oligonucleotide probes. A probe pool targeting mouse *Ppib* was used as negative control. A list of ChIRP-seq probes is provided in Supplementary Table S1. ChIRP-Seq libraries were generated using the Illumina TruSeq ChIP Library Preparation Kit and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq instrument. ChIRP-seq data quality was assessed using FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and paired-end reads were mapped to GRCm38 using Bowtie2 (32). ChIRP-seq analysis was performed using HOMER (33). For RT-qPCRs testing the ChIRP cDNA, 5 ng cDNA and 5 µM of primers in 10 µL was used (reagents and cycling conditions as described under "Rescue assay").

286 **Data access**

287        RNA-seq and ChIRP-seq data have been deposited at Gene Expression Omnibus

288    (GEO) under accession number GSE171085.

**Results**

***MaTAR20* is a tumor-specific, nuclear-retained lncRNA**

*MaTAR20* is an intergenic lncRNA gene located on mouse chromosome 2. According to GENCODE vM18, three isoforms of the *MaTAR20* transcript exist, comprising 2,646, 659 and 638 nt (Figure 1A). Our computational analysis of ENCODE expression data revealed that the lncRNA is absent or expressed at low levels in normal mammary glands and other normal tissues, but highly expressed (FPKM >200) in mammary tumors derived from the transgenic MMTV-PyMT mouse model of luminal BC (Figure 1B). Furthermore, *MaTAR20* levels correlate with tumor size in the MMTV-PyMT model (Supplementary Figure S1A).

To examine the localization of *MaTAR20* we performed single molecule RNA-FISH in primary MMTV-PyMT cells (Figure 1C). Our results indicate that *MaTAR20* is indeed an abundant lncRNA in primary mammary tumor cells, and predominantly localizes to the nucleus, averaging 10-40 foci per nucleus. We further confirmed that *MaTAR20* is a nuclear-retained transcript by subcellular fractionation assays, which revealed an enrichment in both the nucleoplasm and the chromatin fractions (Figure 1D), a localization pattern comparable to the lncRNA *Malat1*. Our initial characterization indicates that *MaTAR20* is a tumor-specific, nuclear-enriched lncRNA that may play a role in tumor progression based on its expression profile.

**Knockdown of *MaTAR20* leads to reduced organoid branching**

To determine if *MaTAR20* is a driver of mammary tumor cell growth, we performed knockdown experiments *ex vivo*, in MMTV-PyMT derived tumor organoids (6,7,34) (Figure 1E-H). Organoids are an excellent model system to study cancer biology and to

test new therapeutic treatments (for review, see (35)). Wildtype/untreated organoids

exhibit a branched morphology consistent with collective cell migration (Fig 1G-H) and/or

proliferation (for review, see (36). We achieved *MaTAR20* knockdown efficiencies of 50-

60% using 2'-O-methoxyethyl (MOE) ASOs in 3D mammary tumor organoids by free

uptake (Figure 1E). Treatment of MMTV-PyMT tumor organoids with two independent

MOE ASOs targeting *MaTAR20* lead to an up to 40% reduction of organoid branching

compared to untreated organoids, or organoids treated with a scrambled control MOE

ASO (scASO) (Figure 1F-H). Based on these and our previous results in primary

mammary epithelial cells (7), we conclude that *MaTAR20* enhances both the proliferative

and migratory potential of mammary tumor cells.

**Promoter deletion of *MaTAR20* results in a less aggressive phenotype**

To independently validate our ASO-mediated knockdown results, and to develop

a model system that enables us to study the molecular mechanism of *MaTAR20* in detail,

we generated *MaTAR20* loss-of-function cells using the CRISPR/Cas9 system. First, we

tested a panel of mouse mammary tumor cell lines to identify a suitable model system.

Of the tested cell lines, the metastatic 4T1 line (37) showed the highest *MaTAR20*

expression level (Supplementary Figure S2A). Next, we established promoter deletion of

*MaTAR20* by stably integrating Cas9 and two guide RNAs (gRNAs): the first gRNA was

designed to bind upstream of the *MaTAR20* transcription start site (at -736) and the

second gRNA binding within the first exon of *MaTAR20* (+12 bp) (Figure 2A), resulting in

promoter deletion of 748 bp. A gRNA targeting the *Renilla* luciferase gene was used to

generate negative control cells. All edited cell populations were single cell sorted to

generate monoclonal cell lines. Two *MaTAR20* knockout clones (KO1, KO2) and two

negative control clones (Ren1, Ren2) were analyzed further. The KO cell lines showed a

~80-85% reduction of *MaTAR20* expression compared to control clones (Figure 2B). We

used four different primer pairs to measure *MaTAR20* levels, one amplifying all three

isoforms of *MaTAR20* (PP1, Figure 2B), and three isoform-specific primer pairs (PP2,

PP3, PP4; Supplementary Figure S2B). Our results indicate that all three isoforms of

*MaTAR20* were reduced to comparable levels in the KO cells.

Similar to our ASO-mediated knockdown experiments in primary mammary tumor

cells (7), we observed a 30-40% reduction of cell proliferation in the KO cell lines (Figure

2C). This phenotype was not caused by differences in cell cycle profiles (Figure 2D) and

did not correlate with Cas9 expression (Supplementary Figure S2C). Ectopic expression

of *MaTAR20* in KO cells was able to rescue the cell proliferation phenotype, restoring

growth rates to levels comparable to Ren control cells (Supplementary Figure S3A-B).

This finding also indicates that the *MaTAR20* transcript is responsible for the observed

phenotype, rather than the genomic locus itself playing a regulatory role and that

*MaTAR20* plays a role in *trans*.

While culturing the *MaTAR20* KO cells, we noticed a difference in cell adhesion

between the KO clones and the control cell lines. The KO cells were particularly difficult

to dislodge from cell culture flasks, leading to increased (2-4 fold) trypsinization times

required to detach the KO cells. Further examination of the KO and Ren control cells

using scanning electron microscopy revealed that reduced *MaTAR20* levels may lead to

stronger surface attachment of the cells, accompanied by more organized, sheet-like

structures (Figure 2E). In summary, promoter deletion of *MaTAR20* leads to reduced

tumor cell growth and migration compared to control cells, similar to primary cells treated

with *MaTAR20* ASOs (Figure 1).

**The human orthologue, *hMaTAR20,* drives breast cancer cell growth**

We previously identified the human orthologue of *MaTAR20*, *hMaTAR20*, by

synteny as *RP13-122B23.8 (ENSG00000260996)*, located on chromosome 9 (7). To

investigate whether *hMaTAR20* drives breast cancer cell growth and therefore may hold

clinical significance, we first performed computational analyses of *hMaTAR20* expression

of TCGA data. The lncRNA is overexpressed 2-fold across all subtypes of breast cancer

compared to adjacent normal breast tissue, with highest levels in estrogen receptor

positive (ER+) breast cancer (Figure 3A). RNA-FISH on a tissue microarray further

confirmed a 2-fold up-regulation of *hMaTAR20* in breast cancer compared to

corresponding normal tissue (Figure 3B). Further stratifying the breast cancer tissue

revealed highest levels of *hMaTAR20* in grade II-III tumors (Supplementary Figure S4A),

following a similar trend of increased expression in later stage tumors as observed in

mouse (Supplementary Figure S1).

We performed an expression screen in several breast cancer cell lines, which

further confirmed that ER+ cell lines show increased levels of *hMaTAR20* (Supplementary

Figure S4B), with T47D showing the highest levels. Therefore, we generated a

CRISPR/Cas9 driven deletion in exon 1 in T47D cells, which resulted in stable reduction

of *hMaTAR20* levels (Figure 3C) in two single cell clone derived cell lines (KO C9 and KO

V2). Lower *hMaTAR20* levels lead to reduced cell proliferation in T47D KO cells

compared to control cells grown in 2D culture and reduced branching in spheroid culture,

with more pronounced effects in the 3D assay (Figure 3D-E). We also observed reduced

2D migration in *hMaTAR20* KO cells (Figure 3F). Like *MaTAR20* in mouse, *hMaTAR20*

showed predominantly nuclear localization (Supplementary Figure S4C), suggesting the

lncRNA functions similarly in both organisms.

While *hMaTAR20* expression is highest in ER+ breast cancer, the lncRNA is also

overexpressed in all other types of breast cancer compared to adjacent normal tissue. To

study the impact of *hMaTAR20* in an ER- model, we generated a CRISPR interference

(CRISPRi) driven transcriptional repression model of *hMaTAR20* in the aggressive basal

cell line MDA-MB-231-LM2 (22)(Supplementary Figure S4D). Similar to the T47D KO

cells, we observed reduced cell proliferation, spheroid branching and cell migration in the

MDA-MB-231-LM2 CRISPRi model (Supplementary Figure S4E-G).

Next, we tested whether increasing *hMaTAR20* levels in the pre-malignant cell line

MCF10A may lead to an increase in proliferative and migratory potential. MCF10A cells

express *hMaTAR20* at very low levels compared to T47D or MDA-MB-231-LM2 cells

(Figure 3B). Using CRISPR activation (CRISPRa), we up-regulated endogenous

*hMaTAR20* expression using three different sgRNAs (Figure 3G). We observed increased

cell proliferation and viability as well as increased migration compared to control cells

(Figure 3H-I). In summary, our results show that *hMaTAR20* is a driver of cell proliferation

and migration in human breast cancer cells, recapitulating the phenotype we observed

with *MaTAR20* in the mouse system.

**cET ASO shows improved knockdown efficiency *in vitro***

To determine the effect of *MaTAR20* reduction on tumor progression, and to

investigate whether ASOs are a viable strategy to systemically reduce *MaTAR20*, we

performed *in vivo* experiments in transgenic mouse models of breast cancer. First, we

designed a constrained ethyl (cET) ASO targeting *MaTAR20*. In comparison to MOE

ASOs (Figure 1), cET ASOs show increased potency *in vivo* (38) and are the chemistry

of choice for tissues less sensitive to ASO modulation with several clinical trials currently

ongoing (39).

Before introducing the cET ASO into animals, we tested its knockdown (KD)

efficiency *in vitro*. Concentrations as low as 250 nM were sufficient to achieve >60%

knockdown of *MaTAR20* within 24 h in 4T1 cells (Figure 4A), and we observed KD

efficiencies of >95% using 500 nM after 72 h (Figure 4B). These results compare

favorably to concentrations of 4-5 µM of MOE ASOs achieving ~50% KD in organoids

(Figure 1) and ~70% KD in primary cells (7). Knockdown of *MaTAR20* using the cET ASO

resulted in significantly reduced cell proliferation and invasion (Figure 4C-D), however, it

is possible that the difference in proliferation impacts on the readout of the invasion assay

as well. These results agree with our observations using MOE ASOs (Figure 1) and

*MaTAR20* promoter deletions in mouse (Figure 2) as well as our findings for *hMaTAR20*

(Figure 3).

**Knockdown of *MaTAR20 in vivo* leads to a reduction in tumor growth and induces**

**tumor necrosis**

To further investigate the potential of cET ASOs targeting *MaTAR20* in mammary

tumors, we injected 100 mg/kg/week of either *MaTAR20* cET or a negative control ASO

(scrambled = scASO cET) into MMTV-PyMT (C57BL/6) mice after palpable tumor

formation (n=7 for scASO, n=8 for *MaTAR20* ASO; Figure 5A). We achieved an 80%

reduction of *MaTAR20* in the tumors on average, further highlighting the potency of the

cET chemistry (Figure 5B). We initiated ASO injections on animals with comparable

average tumor burden in both cohorts and observed a 30% overall reduced tumor burden

in *MaTAR20* cET treated mice over the course of eight weeks (Figure 5C). While mice in

the *MaTAR20* cET group eventually went on to develop tumors, tumor onset was delayed

in comparison to the scASO cET group. Furthermore, when comparing the growth curves

of similarly sized tumors that developed at the same time in both cohorts, tumors in the

*MaTAR20* cET group grew slower compared to scASO cET treated mice, resulting in a

difference of 75% after 8 weeks (Figure 5D). After all mice reached the study endpoint,

we carried out hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of the fixed tumors to investigate

potential histo-pathological differences. Notably, tumors in the *MaTAR20* cET treated

group showed severe necrosis compared to the control group (Figure 5E).

To confirm that the human orthologue of *MaTAR20* acts similarly to the mouse

lncRNA in an *in vivo* situation, we xenografted one of our loss-of-function models, the

modified MDA-MB-231-LM2 cells into the mammary fat pad of nude mice. We observed

reduced tumor growth and increased tumor necrosis (Figure 5F-G), further confirming the

functional role of the *hMaTAR20* in tumor progression.

**Knockdown of *MaTAR20 in vivo* leads to reduced metastatic burden**

The MMTV-PyMT model is highly aggressive, with a metastasis incidence rate of

>80% (25). We examined the lungs in our *in vivo* study post-mortem for macro-metastatic

nodules. While 7/7 mice in the scASO group developed at least one macro-metastatic

nodule, only 4/7 mice in the *MaTAR20* ASO cohort presented macro-metastatic lesions

(Supplementary Figure S5A). We went on to examine the histo-pathology of the four lungs

that developed metastasis by H&E staining and discovered that metastases in the

*MaTAR20* ASO treated group showed cystic, differentiated nodules compared to the solid

masses detected in the scASO cohort (Supplementary Figure S5B-C). We suggest that

metastatic nodules in animals that received the *MaTAR20* cET may have developed prior

to treatment start, and that the cystic phenotype is a consequence of systemic *MaTAR20*

knockdown, impacting already existing metastases. Alternatively, the observed

differences could be due to reduced overall tumor burden.

To independently validate our animal studies, we performed a second *in vivo*

experiment using *MaTAR20* MOE ASO1 and injected it into MMTV-PyMT (FVB) mice

(Supplementary Figure S5D). Similar to the cET experiments in C57/Bl6, we observed

reduced tumor growth for the *MaTAR20* ASO group compared to the scASO group from

around week 4 of treatment (Supplementary Figure S5E). H&E staining of tumor sections

revealed that animals in the *MaTAR20* MOE group also developed more necrotic tumors

compared to control animals (Supplementary Figure S5G). In addition, we observed a

reduction of macro-metastatic nodules in the lungs of 3/4 mice receiving *MaTAR20* MOE

ASO1 (Supplementary Figure S5F), confirming the trend of reduced metastasis upon

*MaTAR20* knockdown.

Immunohistochemistry staining of the tumor sections for Ki67 revealed slightly

reduced levels in both MOE and cET cohorts. We did not observe a consistent trend when

staining for the apoptosis marker cleaved caspase 3, indicating that the tumors likely

undergo necrosis rather than programmed cell death (Supplementary Figure S6A-B). In

summary, our *in vivo* experiments show that systemic reduction of *MaTAR20* using ASOs

leads to delayed mammary tumor onset, reduced tumor growth, increased tumor necrosis

and reduced metastasis.

**MaTAR20 expression level correlates with VEGF expression**

We set out to identify the molecular mechanism by which *MaTAR20* impacts tumor

cell growth and invasion. As our RNA-FISH and subcellular fractionation assays indicated

that *MaTAR20* is a nuclear-retained lncRNA (Figure 1), we hypothesized that it may act

by impacting gene expression. First, we performed a computational co-expression

analysis using lncRNA2function (40). Similar approaches have been previously applied

successfully to identify the molecular role of other lncRNAs (41). Notably, we observed a

strong enrichment for pathways involved in angiogenesis, with the top 7 most enriched

pathways being related to vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) signaling (Figure

6A), including "Signaling by VEGF", "VEGF hypoxia and angiogenesis" and "Sorafenib

Pharmacodynamics", a multi-kinase inhibitor that has been shown to act on VEGF

receptor (VEGFR) (42). Due to this striking ontology enrichment, we set out to

experimentally assess if *MaTAR20* and VEGF expression correlate. We determined by

qRT-PCR that Vegf-A and Vegf-B are reduced in tumors of MMTV-PyMT mice that

received the *MaTAR20* cET ASO compared to the scASO control group (Figure 6B).

Immunohistochemistry staining of tumor sections confirmed this trend on the protein level

(Supplementary Figure S6C-D). We also assayed CD31 staining in the tumors to probe

for differences in angiogenesis and observed reduced CD31+ cells in *MaTAR20* ASO

treated animals (Supplementary Figure S6E), which may point to a reduced number of

blood vessels being formed upon *MaTAR20* loss.

We used RNA extracted from whole tumors for the qRT-PCR validations described

above. While MMTV-PyMT tumors generally contain a high percentage of cancer cells

(Figure 5E, Supplementary Figure S5E), qRT-PCR from whole tumors cannot distinguish

between expression changes in tumor or stromal cells. To investigate whether VEGF

expression was reduced in the same cell type as *MaTAR20*, we measured VEGF

expression in 4T1 cells with successful *MaTAR20* KD (Figure 4A/B). Indeed, we observed

a 35% reduction of Vegf-B (Figure 6C), while Vegf-A was not expressed at levels sufficient

for reliable qPCR detection in these cells (Ct > 30). We also tested Vegf-B expression in

our three knockout cell lines (Figure 2), and observed a statistically significant, 40-60%

down-regulation of Vegf-B compared to control cells (Figure 6D). Upon ectopic

expression of *MaTAR20* in the KO cells, Vegf-B levels were up-regulated (Supplementary

Figure S7A). Based on convergent results obtained from four independent experiments

(ASO KD *in vitro*, *in vivo*, CRISPR/Cas9 promoter deletions and rescue assays), we

conclude that down-regulation of *MaTAR20* correlates with reduced VEGF expression

levels and may be associated with reduced tumor angiogenesis.

***MaTAR20* loss leads to alterations in cancer signaling and adhesion pathways**

To identify how *MaTAR20* impacts Vegf signaling, we further investigated the

molecular mechanism by which the lncRNA acts. First, we performed differential RNA-

seq, comparing *MaTAR20* KO to control cells. A total of 223 genes were differentially

expressed (p < 0.05), with 129 genes down- and 94 genes up-regulated in the KO cells

(Figure 7A, Supplementary Figure S7B, Supplementary Table S2). Interestingly, one of

the most up-regulated genes was *Vascular endothelial growth inhibitor* (*Vegi*), also known

as *Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-like cytokine 1A (TL1A)/TNF superfamily member 15*

(*Tnfsf15*). In agreement with our co-expression analysis (Figure 6A), we observed an

overall dysregulation of the VEGF signaling pathway and of hypoxia-inducible factor 1

(HIF-1) signaling, another pathway essential for angiogenesis (43) (Supplementary Table

S3). In addition, pathways involved in cancer signaling such as the MAPK, PI3K-Akt and

TNF axes were altered, as were several cell adhesion pathways, including "Focal

adhesion" and "Tight junctions" (Supplementary Table S3). Several of these pathways

were previously identified in our co-expression analysis as well (Figure 6A). Differential

expression of important cell signaling genes likely contributes to the altered phenotypes

we observed upon *MaTAR20* loss, such as reduced organoid branching and tumor cell

growth. Changes in cell adhesion pathways may explain the enhanced adhesion

phenotype observed in *MaTAR20* KO cells (Figure 2E), along with reduced migration and

metastatic burden upon KD of the lncRNA.

**_MaTAR20_ regulates gene expression by direct binding to _Tnfsf15_**

RNA-seq identifies all differentially expressed genes upon *MaTAR20* loss, both

effects due to direct binding and regulation of the gene by *MaTAR20*, as well as any

secondary or tertiary downstream effects. To hone in on direct targets of *MaTAR20*, we

performed Chromatin Isolation by RNA Purification (ChIRP, (44)) using two separate

pools of nine tiling oligonucleotides each. Both pools were able to enrich *MaTAR20*, with

pool 2 showing overall better pull-down performance (Figure 7B). The difference in

enrichment could be due to one or several oligonucleotides in pool 1 being obstructed

from binding to *MaTAR20*, caused by secondary structures or competition with putative

protein interaction partners. A negative control pull-down reaction for the mRNA

*cyclophilin B* (*CycloB*) was performed as well to control for unspecific binding of nucleic

acids to biotinylated oligonucleotides and/or streptavidin beads (Figure 7B).

We performed three independent replicates of ChIRP-seq with both probe pools

and *CycloB* negative control probes, and compared genes bound to *MaTAR20* in both

pools. The highest genomic peak score in both pools was as expected to the *MaTAR20*

locus itself, a similar observation was made in regard to *MaTAR25* lncRNA (13). Both

pool 1 and pool 2 were enriched for genes involved in cancer signaling and adhesion

pathways that were also identified in our RNA-seq analysis, such as PI3K-Akt and MAPK

signaling, "Focal adhesion" and "ECM-receptor interactions" (Supplementary Table S4).

The more efficient pool 2 pull-down was also enriched for VEGF and HIF-1 signaling

pathways (Supplementary Table S4). On an individual gene level, we assigned the

identified peaks to the nearest gene and were able to identify 574 genes bound by

*MaTAR20* in pool1 and 2,514 genes in pool 2 (excluding *MaTAR20* itself, as well as all

genes that were also found to bind to the negative control *CycloB* probe set)

(Supplementary Table S5), with an overlap of 182 target genes bound by *MaTAR20* in

both probe pools (Figure 7C, Supplementary Table S5).

Comparing RNA-seq and ChIRP-seq results, two genes were identified to be direct

binding partners of *MaTAR20* and also differentially expressed in *MaTAR20* KO cells

(Figure 7D): *Tnfsf15* and *Rab27b*. While *Tnfsf15* was significantly up-regulated upon

*MaTAR20* loss, *Rab27b* was repressed (Figure 7E). Up-regulation of *Tnfsf15* was

confirmed at the protein level in immunohistochemistry assays on tumor sections from

*MaTAR20* ASO treated animals (Supplementary Figure S6F). To further establish a direct

relationship between *MaTAR20* and *Tnfsf15* expression levels, we performed rescue

assays over-expressing ectopic *MaTAR20* in KO cells and observed decreased

expression of *Tnfsf15* as compared to the *MaTAR20* KO cells treated with just the

bavkbone plasmid (Supplementary Figure S7C).

We performed ChIRP-qPCR at the *Tnfsf15* gene locus to validate direct binding of

the lncRNA (Figure 6F). Our *MaTAR20* ChIRP-seq data identified two putative lncRNA

binding regions, one about 5 kb downstream and the second about 15 kb downstream of

the *Tnfsf15* gene (Supplementary Figure S7D). We designed two primer pairs for each

region (p1 and p2 for -15 kb, p3 and p4 for -5 kb), and a primer pair for a negative control

region in between the two putative binding sites, at about -10 kb. Cyclo B probes served

as a negative control for all tested regions, representing background noise. Our results

indicate that both *MaTAR20* probe pools were able to specifically detect the lncRNA at

the -5 kb site, while only the more efficient pool2 could also enrich for MaTAR20 at the -

15 kb region. This may indicate higher levels of MaTAR20 binding to the *Tnfsf15* -5 kb

site, which likely represents a *Tnfsf15* enhancer element. Overall, our results confirm that

*MaTAR20* can regulate gene expression by directly binding to target genes such as

*Tnfsf15*.

Based on our findings, we conclude that *MaTAR20* reduces or inhibits the

expression of *Tnfsf15* by directly binding to its genomic locus. Tnfsf15 is a cytokine that

has been described to inhibit VEGF expression (45) and, more generally, VEGF driven

angiogenesis (46). Therefore, we hypothesize that loss of *MaTAR20* leads to reduced

tumor angiogenesis (Figure 8). The proposed molecular mechanism agrees with the

observed phenotype: delayed tumor onset, smaller tumors and increased necrosis,

combined with lower metastatic burden in the lungs.

**Discussion**

Here, we investigated *MaTAR20*, a lncRNA expressed at high levels in mammary

tumors. Loss of *MaTAR20* by either ASO-mediated knockdown or CRISPR/Cas9 genome

editing in mammary tumor cells leads to reduced proliferation, invasion and organoid

branching *in vitro*. In mouse models of BC, treatment with ASOs targeting *MaTAR20*

causes delayed tumor onset, reduced tumor growth and overall reduced metastatic

burden to the lungs. We were able to confirm the observed phenotype using different

ASO sequences, different ASO chemistries (MOE and cET), and in different mouse

background strains (FVB and C57/Bl6). Furthermore, our studies of human *MaTAR20* in

two loss-of-function and one gain-of-function models further corroborate that this lncRNA

is a driver of BC cell growth and migration and may represent a promising new therapeutic

target. We propose that ASOs targeting *MaTAR20* could be a viable new adjunct therapy,

as we obtained highly efficient lncRNA knockdown in tumors upon subcutaneous delivery.

We did not observe any adverse reactions in other mouse tissues or the animal overall,

potentially because *MaTAR20* is expressed at highest levels in the tumor, restricting the

effect of *MaTAR20* KD mostly to tumor tissue. Additional detailed studies of the human

orthologue *hMaTAR20* (7) will be essential to investigate the potential of the lncRNA as

a new therapeutic target in breast cancer. We observed cystic, differentiated metastases

in *MaTAR20* ASO-mediated mice, suggesting the treatment may have potential to impact

already existing metastases in the lungs. Future investigation of the impact of *MaTAR20*

on already existing metastatic nodules will be of particular value, as patients with

advanced disease would benefit from a therapeutic approach that is able to attack and/or

prevent the formation of metastases.

Our molecular data indicates that the nuclear-retained lncRNA *MaTAR20* drives

tumor growth and metastasis by impacting the expression of important cancer signaling

pathways and cell adhesion molecules. These findings are reflected in the observed

reduction of cell proliferation, migratory potential and formation of cell protrusions in 2D

and 3D cell culture systems. One particular pathway that stood out across all our analyses

is VEGF signaling and angiogenesis, seemingly centering on Vegf-B in our system.

VEGF-B produced by cancer cells has been described to lead to leaky vascular networks,

which in turn enables the tumor to invade its surrounding tissue with high efficiency (47).

In addition, high VEGF-B levels were associated with poor prognosis (47). Inhibition of

tumor-specific VEGF-B has been suggested as an interesting approach to inhibit cancer

progression and metastasis, with VEGF-B knockdown leading to reduced pulmonary

metastasis in a mouse model of melanoma (47). As *MaTAR20* also leads to reduced lung

metastatic nodules, we hypothesize that it may do so by regulating Vegf-B expression. In

addition, non-angiogenic functions of VEGF-B have been described previously in the

context of invasive BC, which could also play a role here (48).

Our ChIRP assays indicate that *MaTAR20* does not directly bind to the *Vegf-B*

gene, but to a number of other angiogenesis-related genes such as *angiopoietin 2*, among

many others. Of the 182 genes identified by ChIRP-seq analysis, two also show altered

expression in *MaTAR20* KO cells: *Tnfsf15* and *Rab27b*. Tnfsf15 is a cytokine usually

expressed in established vasculature but down-regulated in cancer lesions to allow for

neovascularization (46,49,50). Vegf and Tnfsf15 serve opposing functions, with carefully

balanced expression modulation of both factors playing key roles in vascular and immune

homeostasis. We suggest that *MaTAR20* regulates the balance of these proteins by

directly binding to the *Tnfsf15* locus and repressing the gene during tumor progression

(Figure 8). Reduced Tnfsf15 levels allow the tumor to recruit blood vessels, which is

essential for sustained tumor growth and enables intravasation of cancer cells into the

circulation, leading to metastasis (Figure 8A). In the absence of *MaTAR20*, we

hypothesize that Tnfsf15 expression will be re-activated and neovascularization of the

tumor is inhibited, which would agree with our observed reduction in Vegf-A, Vegf-B and

CD31+ cells (Figure 8B). In BC, high levels of Tnfsf15 in clinical samples were associated

with disease-free survival and overall better prognosis (51). This further solidifies our

hypothesis that tumor-specific up-regulation of Tnfsf15 via ASO-mediated *MaTAR20*

knockdown could be a promising therapeutic approach. As the lncRNA is expressed in

high levels only in cancer lesions, we suggest that consequences of *MaTAR20* KD,

including reduced neovascularization, are restricted to tumor tissue as well, representing

an attractive new approach of tumor-specific inhibition of angiogenesis.

In addition to regulating angiogenesis, Tnfsf15 has also been described to be

involved in dendritic cell maturation and T-cell co-activation (50). Future studies are

required to conclude if loss of *MaTAR20* also impacts immune cells in a cancer context,

or if the observed phenotype is in fact driven by reduced vascularization. Further

investigation is also required into the second identified *MaTAR20* target gene, *Rab27b*.

The small secretory GTPase has been described to control vesicle exocytosis and to

deliver pro-invasive growth regulators into the tumor microenvironment (52), and has

recently been associated with VEGF signaling in cancer as well (53). Rab27b has been

reported to promote proliferation and invasiveness of ER+ BC cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*,

and has been associated with lymph node metastasis and differentiation grade in ER+

human tumors (54). We observed that loss of *MaTAR20* leads to reduced Rab27b

expression, which may further contribute to the decrease in proliferative and migratory

potential we observed here. Future studies will elucidate the detailed regulatory

mechanism of Rab27b by *MaTAR20*.

**Acknowledgements**

We thank members of the Spector and Diermeier labs for critical discussions and advice

throughout the course of this study. We thank Dr. Mikala Egeblad (CSHL) for providing

MMTV-PyMT mice and Dr. Fred R. Miller (Wayne State University) for providing 4T1

cells. We acknowledge the CSHL Cancer Center Shared Resources (Microscopy, Flow

Cytometry, Animal, Histology, and Next-Gen Sequencing) for services and technical

expertise (NCI 2P3OCA45508). We thank David Jackson (CSHL) and Zachary Lippman

(CSHL) for facilitating access to the SEM instruments. MCF10A and T47D cells used in

this study were a generous gift of the Dunbier lab (Department of Biochemistry,

University of Otago). We would also like to thank Robert Porteous and the Histology

facility at the University of Otago and Bronwyn Carlisle (Department of Biochemistry) for

her assistance with the *MaTAR20* model illustration (Figure 8).

**References**

1.  Siegel RL, Miller KD, Fuchs HE, Jemal A. Cancer Statistics, 2021. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians. American Cancer Society; 2021;71:7–33.

2.  Gupta RA, Shah N, Wang KC, Kim J, Horlings HM, Wong DJ, et al. Long non-coding RNA HOTAIR reprograms chromatin state to promote cancer metastasis. Nature. 2010;464:1071–6.

3.  Prensner JR, Iyer MK, Balbin OA, Dhanasekaran SM, Cao Q, Brenner JC, et al. Transcriptome sequencing across a prostate cancer cohort identifies PCAT-1, an unannotated lincRNA implicated in disease progression. Nat Biotechnol. 2011;29:742–9.

4.  Tseng Y-Y, Moriarity BS, Gong W, Akiyama R, Tiwari A, Kawakami H, et al. PVT1 dependence in cancer with MYC copy-number increase. Nature. 2014.

5.  Xing Z, Lin A, Li C, Liang K, Wang S, Liu Y, et al. lncRNA directs cooperative epigenetic regulation downstream of chemokine signals. 2014;159:1110–25.

6.  Arun G, Diermeier S, Akerman M, Chang K-C, Wilkinson JE, Hearn S, et al. Differentiation of mammary tumors and reduction in metastasis upon Malat1 lncRNA loss. Genes & Development. 2016;30:34–51.

7.  Diermeier SD, Chang K-C, Freier SM, Song J, Demerdash El O, Krasnitz A, et al. Mammary Tumor-Associated RNAs Impact Tumor Cell Proliferation, Invasion, and Migration. Cell Reports. 2016;17:261–74.

8.  Chakravarty D, Sboner A, Nair SS, Giannopoulou E, Li R, Hennig S, et al. The oestrogen receptor alpha-regulated lncRNA NEAT1 is a critical modulator of prostate cancer. Nature Communications. Nature Publishing Group; 2014;5:5383–16.

9.  Sang L-J, Ju H-Q, Liu G-P, Tian T, Ma G-L, Lu Y-X, et al. LncRNA CamK-A Regulates Ca2+-Signaling-Mediated Tumor Microenvironment Remodeling. Molecular Cell. Elsevier Inc; 2018;72:71–7.

10. Hu Q, Ye Y, Chan L-C, Li Y, Liang K, Lin A, et al. Oncogenic lncRNA downregulates cancer cell antigen presentation and intrinsic tumor suppression. Nature Immunology. Springer US; 2019;:1–24.

11. Luo H, Zhu G, Xu J, Lai Q, Yan B, Guo Y, et al. HOTTIP lncRNA Promotes Hematopoietic Stem Cell Self-Renewal Leading to AML-like Disease in Mice. Cancer Cell. Elsevier Inc; 2019;:1–24.

12. Silva-Fisher JM, Dang HX, White NM, Strand MS, Krasnick BA, Rozycki EB, et al. Long non-coding RNA RAMS11 promotes metastatic colorectal cancer progression. Nature Communications. 2020;11:2156.

13.　Chang K-C, Diermeier SD, Yu AT, Brine LD, Russo S, Bhatia S, et al. MaTAR25
lncRNA regulates the Tensin1 gene to impact breast cancer progression. Nature
Communications. Springer US; 2020;:1–19.

14.　Yan X, Hu Z, Feng Y, Hu X, Yuan J, Zhao SD, et al. Comprehensive Genomic
Characterization of Long Non-coding RNAs across Human Cancers. Cancer Cell.
Elsevier Inc; 2015;28:529–40.

15.　Ransohoff JD, Wei Y, Khavari PA. The functions and unique features of long
intergenic non-coding RNA. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology. Nature
Publishing Group; 2018;19:143–57.

16.　Huarte M. The emerging role of lncRNAs in cancer. Nature Medicine.
2015;21:1253–61.

17.　Arun G, Diermeier SD, Spector DL. Therapeutic Targeting of Long Non-Coding
RNAs in Cancer. Trends Mol Med. 2018;24:257–77.

18.　Gutschner T, Hammerle M, Eissmann M, Hsu J, Kim Y, Hung G, et al. The
Noncoding RNA MALAT1 Is a Critical Regulator of the Metastasis Phenotype of
Lung Cancer Cells. Cancer Research. 2013;73:1180–9.

19.　Ewald AJ. Isolation of mouse mammary organoids for long-term time-lapse
imaging. Cold Spring Harb Protoc. 2013;2013:130–3.

20.　Park J, Wysocki RW, Amoozgar Z, Maiorino L, Fein MR, Jorns J, et al. Cancer
cells induce metastasis-supporting neutrophil extracellular DNA traps. Sci Transl
Med. 2016;8:361ra138.

21.　Nowak DG, Katsenelson KC, Watrud KE, Chen M, Mathew G, D'Andrea VD, et al.
The PHLPP2 phosphatase is a druggable driver of prostate cancer progression.
The Journal of Cell Biology. 2019;218:1943–57.

22.　Minn AJ, Gupta GP, Siegel PM, Bos PD, Shu W, Giri DD, et al. Genes that
mediate breast cancer metastasis to lung. Nat Cell Biol. 2005;436:518–24.

23.　Tanenbaum ME, Gilbert LA, Qi LS, Weissman JS, Vale RD. A Protein-Tagging
System for Signal Amplification in Gene Expression and Fluorescence Imaging.
Cell. Elsevier Inc; 2014;159:635–46.

24.　Liang C-C, Park AY, Guan J-L. In vitro scratch assay: a convenient and
inexpensive method for analysis of cell migration in vitro. Nat Protoc. 2007;2:329–
33.

25.　Guy CT, Cardiff RD, Muller WJ. Induction of mammary tumors by expression of
polyomavirus middle T oncogene: a transgenic mouse model for metastatic
disease. Molecular and Cellular Biology. 1992;12:954–61.

26. Bankhead P, Loughrey MB, ndez JXAFX, Dombrowski Y, McArt DG, Dunne PD,
et al. QuPath: Open source software for digital pathology image analysis. Sci
Rep. Springer US; 2017;:1–7.

27. Dobin A, Davis CA, Schlesinger F, Drenkow J, Zaleski C, Jha S, et al. STAR:
ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics. 2012;29:15–21.

28. Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W. HTSeq--a Python framework to work with high-
throughput sequencing data. Bioinformatics. 2015;31:166–9.

29. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion
for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;15:550.

30. Luo W, Friedman MS, Shedden K, Hankenson KD, Woolf PJ. GAGE: generally
applicable gene set enrichment for pathway analysis. BMC Bioinformatics.
2009;10:161.

31. Luo W, Brouwer C. Pathview: an R/Bioconductor package for pathway-based
data integration and visualization. Bioinformatics. 2013;29:1830–1.

32. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature
Methods. 2012;9:357–9.

33. Heinz S, Benner C, Spann N, Bertolino E, Lin YC, Laslo P, et al. Simple
Combinations of Lineage-Determining Transcription Factors Prime cis-Regulatory
Elements Required for Macrophage and B Cell Identities. Molecular Cell. Elsevier
Inc; 2010;38:576–89.

34. Diermeier SD, Spector DL. Antisense Oligonucleotide-mediated Knockdown in
Mammary Tumor Organoids. BIO-PROTOCOL. 2017;7.

35. Tuveson D, Clevers H. Cancer modeling meets human organoid technology.
Science. American Association for the Advancement of Science; 2019;364:952–5.

36. Shamir ER, Ewald AJ. Three-dimensional organotypic culture: experimental
models of mammalian biology and disease. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell
Biology. Nature Publishing Group; 2014;15:647–64.

37. Aslakson CJ, Miller FR. Selective events in the metastatic process defined by
analysis of the sequential dissemination of subpopulations of a mouse mammary
tumor. Cancer Research. 1992;52:1399–405.

38. Pallan PS, Allerson CR, Berdeja A, Seth PP, Swayze EE, Prakash TP, et al.
Structure and nuclease resistance of 2′,4′-constrained 2′-O-methoxyethyl (cMOE)
and 2′-O-ethyl (cEt) modified DNAs. Chem Commun. The Royal Society of
Chemistry; 2012;48:8195–10.

39.  Shen X, Corey DR. Chemistry, mechanism and clinical status of antisense
oligonucleotides and duplex RNAs. Nucleic Acids Res. 2018;46:1584–600.

40.  Jiang Q, Ma R, Wang J, Wu X, Jin S, Peng J, et al. LncRNA2Function: a
comprehensive resource for functional investigation of human lncRNAs based on
RNA-seq data. BMC Genomics. 2015;16 Suppl 3:S2.

41.  Guttman M, Amit I, Garber M, French C, Lin MF, Feldser D, et al. Chromatin
signature reveals over a thousand highly conserved large non-coding RNAs in
mammals. Nature [Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2009;457:223–7. Available
from: http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/nature07672

42.  Wilhelm SM, Adnane L, Newell P, Villanueva A, Llovet JM, Lynch M. Preclinical
overview of sorafenib, a multikinase inhibitor that targets both Raf and VEGF and
PDGF receptor tyrosine kinase signaling. Mol Cancer Ther. 2008;7:3129–40.

43.  Semenza GL. Targeting HIF-1 for cancer therapy. Nat Rev Cancer. Nature
Publishing Group; 2003;3:721–32.

44.  Chu C, Qu K, Zhong FL, Artandi SE, Chang HY. Genomic Maps of Long
Noncoding RNA Occupancy Reveal Principles of RNA-Chromatin Interactions.
Molecular Cell. Elsevier Inc; 2011;44:667–78.

45.  Zhang K, Cai H-X, Gao S, Yang G-L, Deng H-T, Xu G-C, et al. TNFSF15
suppresses VEGF production in endothelial cells by stimulating miR-29b
expression via activation of JNK-GATA3 signals. Oncotarget. Impact Journals;
2016;7:69436–49.

46.  Yang G-L, Li L-Y. Counterbalance: modulation of VEGF/VEGFR activities by
TNFSF15. Signal Transduction and Targeted Therapy. Springer US; 2018;:1–7.

47.  Yang X, Zhang Y, Hosaka K, Andersson P, Wang J, Tholander F, et al. VEGF-B
promotes cancer metastasis through a VEGF-A–independent mechanism and
serves as a marker of poor prognosis for cancer patients. Proceedings of the
National Academy of Sciences. 2015;112:E2900–9.

48.  Gunningham SP, Currie MJ, Han C, Robinson BA, Scott PA, Harris AL, et al.
VEGF-B expression in human primary breast cancers is associated with lymph
node metastasis but not angiogenesis. J Pathol. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd;
2001;193:325–32.

49.  Deng W, Gu X, Lu Y, Gu C, Zheng Y, Zhang Z, et al. Down-modulation of
TNFSF15 in ovarian cancer by VEGF and MCP-1 is a pre-requisite for tumor
neovascularization. Angiogenesis. Springer Netherlands; 2011;15:71–85.

50.  Zhang Z, Li L-Y. TNFSF15 Modulates Neovascularization and Inflammation.
Cancer Microenvironment. 2012;5:237–47.

51.  Parr C, Gan CH, Watkins G, Jiang WG. Reduced vascular endothelial growth
inhibitor (VEGI) expression is associated with poor prognosis in breast cancer
patients. Angiogenesis. 2006;9:73–81.

52.  Hendrix A, Maynard D, Pauwels P, Braems G, Denys H, Van den Broecke R, et
al. Effect of the Secretory Small GTPase Rab27B on Breast Cancer Growth,
Invasion, and Metastasis. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2010;102:866–80.

53.  Tsuruda M, Yoshino H, Okamura S, Kuroshima K, Osako Y, Sakaguchi T, et al.
Oncogenic effects of RAB27B through exosome independent function in renal cell
carcinoma including sunitinib-resistant. Dahiya R, editor. PLoS ONE.
2020;15:e0232545–20.

54.  Li Z, Fang R, Fang J, He S, Liu T. Functional implications of Rab27 GTPases in
Cancer. Cell Communication and Signaling; 2018;:1–8.

**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1: *MaTAR20* is a tumor-specific, nuclear-retained lncRNA**

**A:** Schematic overview of the *MaTAR20*/*Gm13387* locus (UCSC Browser, mm10) GENCODE vM18 annotation in green.

**B:** Abundance (FPKM) of *MaTAR20* in ENCODE mouse tissue and HER2+ mammary tumors.

**C:** Single molecule RNA FISH of MaTAR20 in primary MMTV-PyMT cells. Top panel: merge, middle panel: MaTAR20 (red), bottom panel: DAPI (blue).

**D:** Cellular fractionation assay followed by qRT-PCR.

**E:** ASO-mediated knockdown of MaTAR20 in primary MMTV-PyMT organoids. Two specific ASOs were tested for MaTAR20, and a scASO was used as negative control. Bars denote the mean of at least two biological replicates +/- SD.

**F:** Quantification of organoid branching upon MaTAR20 knockdown. Bars denote the mean of at least three biological replicates +/- SD.

**G:** Exemplarily images of organoids quantified in F.

**H:** Exemplarily SEM micrograph of organoids quantified in F.

**Figure 2: *MaTAR20* KO cells show reduced proliferation and cell adhesion**

Statistical significance was determined with a two-way ANOVA; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

**A:** Schematic overview of the knockout strategy. Guide RNAs (gRNAs) are indicated in red, +/- indicate genomic position relative to the *MaTAR20* transcription start site.

**B**: qRT-PCR to determine relative *MaTAR20* expression in *MaTAR20* promoter deletion

cell lines. KO = promoter deletion of 748 bp (combination of gRNAs "+12" and "-736"),

Ren = negative control, integration of Cas9 and a gRNA targeting *Renilla* luciferase. Bars

denote the mean of at least six biological replicates +/- SEM.

**C**: Cell proliferation assay. Number of cells determined after 24, 48 and 72h. Data points

denote the mean of at least two biological replicates +/- SEM.

**D:** Cell cycle profiles of NST-DAPI stained cells, comparing Ren control cells to KO1 and

KO2.

**E:** Scanning electron micrograph of control (Ren) or CRISPR/Cas9-modified cells (KO).

Scale as indicated.

**Figure 3: Human *MaTAR20* (*hMaTAR20*) drives cell proliferation and migration**

Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates +/- SEM. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p$

$< 0.001$.

**A:** Analysis of *hMaTAR20* expression in TCGA data, by subtype. LumA = luminal A, LumB

= luminal B, NL = normal-like breast cancer.

**B:** RNA-FISH of *hMaTAR20* on a tissue microarray (TMA), comparing expression in

breast cancer to corresponding normal breast tissue.

**C:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *hMaTAR20* expression in CRISPR/Cas9 edited T47D

cells. M888: control cell line with non-targeting sgRNA. KO C9 and KO V2: individual

single cell sorted colonies of T47D cells with a deletion in exon 1.

**D:** Cell proliferation assay comparing growth curves of the M888 negative control to the

two *hMaTAR20* KO clones.

**E:** Left: quantification of T47D spheroid branching (left). Right: exemplary images of the

negative control M888 (top) and the KO C2 clone (bottom). For each biological replicate,

n = 100 spheroids were analyzed (n = 300, total).

**F:** Quantification of T47D scratch assay.

**G:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *hMaTAR20* expression in MCF10A cells. The

endogenous *hMaTAR20* gene was up-regulated using CRISPRa using three specific

sgRNAs: -200, -270 and -390 (numbers denote the distance from the TSS). A non-

targeting sgRNA for *Renilla* luciferase served as a negative control (Ren).

**H:** Cell proliferation assay comparing growth curves of the Ren negative control to the

three *hMaTAR20* CRISPRa cell lines.

**I:** Quantification of MCF10A scratch assay.

**Figure 4: cET ASO-mediated knockdown of *MaTAR20* in 4T1 cells lead to reduced**

**cell proliferation and invasion**

Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates +/- SEM. Statistical significance was

determined with a two-tailed Student's t-test; $* p < 0.05$, $** p < 0.01$, $*** p < 0.001$.

**A:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *MaTAR20* expression. 24 h post treatments with cET

ASOs (concentrations as indicated).

**B:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *MaTAR20* expression. 72 h post treatments with 0.5

µM cET ASOs.

**C:** Proliferation assay. Cells were counted 24 h and 72 h post treatment with 0.5 µM cET

ASOs.

**D:** Invasion assay. Fluorescence units 24 h post treatment with 0.5 µM cET ASOs.

**Figure 5: cET ASO-mediated knockdown of *MaTAR20 in vivo* lead to reduced tumor growth and metastatic burden**

Statistical significance was determined with a two-tailed Student's t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

**A:** MMTV-PyMT (C57/Bl6) mice were treated for 8 weeks with cET ASOs (100 mg/kg/week), either scASO (cET) or *MaTAR20* cET1. Bars / lines denote the mean of biological replicates +/- SEM. N= 33 tumors from 7 mice for scASO (cET); n = 26 tumors from 8 mice for *MaTAR20* cET1.

**B:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *MaTAR20* expression in tumors.

**C:** Average number of tumors per mouse in each treatment group.

**D:** Average tumor burden in $mm^3$ per week in each treatment group.

**E:** Hematoxylin and Eosin staining of tumor sections. Top left: scASO (cET) treated tumor (whole tumor). Top right: scASO (cET) treated tumor, 10x. Bottom left: *MaTAR20* cET1 treated tumor (whole tumor). Bottom right: *MaTAR20* cET1 treated tumor, 10x.

**F:** Tumor growth curves of MDA-MB-231-LM2 cells were xenografted into nude mice. Ren: a non-targeting negative control (n=10); -277: *hMaTAR20* CRISPRi cell line (n=9). Data points denote the mean of biological replicates +/- SEM.

**G:** Quantification of tumor necrosis, based on H&E staining. Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates +/- SEM.

**Figure 6: *MaTAR20* impacts VEGF expression**

Statistical significance was determined with a two-tailed Student's t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** p

< 0.01.

**A:** Co-expression analysis to identify *MaTAR20* associated pathways. The 15 most

significant pathways are shown.

**B:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative Vegf-A and Vegf-B expression in tumors. MMTV-

PyMT mice were treated for 8 weeks with cET ASOs (100 mg/kg/week), either scASO

(cET) or *MaTAR20* cET1.

**C:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative Vegf-B expression in 4T1 cells. 72 h post

treatments with 0.5 µM cET ASOs. Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates

+/- SEM.

**D:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative Vegf-B expression in *MaTAR20* KO cells. Bars

denote the mean of two biological replicates +/- SEM.

**Figure 7: RNA-seq and ChIRP-seq identify *Tnfsf15* as a direct *MaTAR20* target gene**

**A:** RNA-seq. Heatmap of significantly differentially expressed genes comparing

*MaTAR20* KO and Ren cells. N1-3 indicate three independent biological replicates.

**B:** ChIRP-seq. qRT-PCR to determine the efficiency of the ChIRP assay. Both *MaTAR20*

probe pools enrich *MaTAR20*, with Pool 2 being more efficient. "Cyclo B" indicates a

separate pull-down experiment with oligonucleotides specific for the *cyclophilin B* mRNA,

which was used as a specificity control. Percentage of MaTAR20 or CycloB pull-down in

relation to input is shown. Bars denote the average of at least 3 replicates +/- SD.

**C:** ChIRP-seq. Venn diagram illustrating the overlap of ChIRP-seq performed with Pool1

vs Pool2 probes. Genes also identified in the negative control (Cyclo B) pull-down were

removed from the target lists. 183 genes overlap between both ChIRP probe pools, with

Pool1 enriching more genes than Pool 2 overall. All ChIRP experiments were performed

in three independent replicates.

**D:** Venn diagram illustrating the overlap of the 182 target genes identified by ChIRP-seq

and the 223 differentially expressed genes according to RNA-seq. 2 genes are both direct

genomic binding partners of *MaTAR20* and are differentially expressed upon *MaTAR20*

loss.

**E:** RNA-seq. Expression of Tnfsf15 and Rab27b, comparing the mean log2 fold-change

in the two *MaTAR20* KO cell lines ("MaTAR20 KO") to the mean log2 fold-change of the

Ren negative control cell lines ("Control").

**F**: qRT-PCR to validate direct *MaTAR20* binding to the *Tnfsf15* locus. Four tiling primer

pairs were designed to two putative *MaTAR20* binding regions in proximity to the *Tnfsf15*

gene. A negative control region, located between p1/p2 and p3/p4, shows no *MaTAR20*

enrichment. CycloB probes control for unspecific binding at all tested sites. Bars denote

the mean of at least two biological replicates +/- SD.

**Figure 8: *MaTAR20* knockdown leads to smaller, necrotic tumors and reduced**

**metastasis**

**A:** During cancer progression, tumors secret pro-angiogenic factors to recruit blood

vessels. Increased vasculature allows for steady tumor growth while also increasing the

chances for metastatic spread.

**B:** In the absence of *MaTAR20*, tumor growth is slowed down, tumor necrosis increases,

and metastasis is reduced. We hypothesize that this could be due to the observed down-

regulation of *Vegf-B*, which may in part be caused by direct binding of *MaTAR20* to

*Tnfsf15*. Additional players such as protein binding partners may be of importance and

will be elucidated further in future studies.

**Figure S1:**

**A:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *MaTAR20* expression in MMTV-PyMT tumors of

different size. "Small" tumors: <200 mm$^3$, n=7; "medium" tumors: 300 - 1000 mm$^3$, n=4;

"large" tumors: >1500 mm$^3$, n=3.

**Figure S2:**

**A:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative *MaTAR20* expression in mouse mammary tumor

cell lines. Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates +/- SD.

**B:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative expression of individual MaTAR20 isoforms in

*MaTAR20* promoter deletion cell lines. KO = promoter deletion of 748 bp (combination of

gRNAs "+12" and "-736"), Ren = negative control, integration of Cas9 and a gRNA

targeting *Renilla* luciferase.  Bars denote the mean of two biological replicates +/- SD.

**C:** Correlation of *MaTAR20* expression (all isoforms, based on six biological replicates,

Figure 2B) and Cas9 expression, as determined by qRT-PCR in three biological

replicates.

**Figure S3:**

**A:** Cell proliferation assay. Number of cells determined after 48 h. Statistical significance

was determined comparing KO cells transfected with a *MaTAR20* Tx1 (KO+MaTAR20)

to KO cells transfected with an empty backbone (KO+bb) and untransfected KO cells.

Control Ren cells are shown for reference. Error bars denote SD, and a two-tailed

Student's t-test was performed comparing KO+bb to KO+*MaTAR20*; * p < 0.05.

**B:** Cell proliferation assay comparing *MaTAR20* isoform 1 and isoform 2 after 24 and 48

h. Cell counts normalized to KO cells transfected with empty vector (bb). Bars denote the

mean of at least two biological replicates +/- SD. Statistical significance was determined

with a two-tailed Student's t-test comparing KO+bb to KO+*MaTAR20*; * p < 0.05, ** p <

0.01.

**Figure S4:**

**A:** RNA-FISH of *hMaTAR20* on a tissue microarray (TMA), comparing expression in

breast cancer of different grades to corresponding normal breast tissue. Statistical

significance was determined with a one-way ANOVA; *** p < 0.001.

**B:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *hMaTAR20* expression in a panel of breast cancer

cells. Bars denote the mean of three biological replicates +/- SEM. Statistical significance

was determined with a one-way ANOVA ;**** p < 0.0001.

**C:** RNA-FISH of *hMaTAR20* in MDA-MB-231-LM2 (LM2).

**D:** qRT-PCR to determine relative *hMaTAR20* expression in MDA-MB-231-LM2 (LM2)

cells. Ren: control cell line with non-targeting sgRNA. -277; -390: CRISPRi *hMaTAR20*

knockdown cell lines, numbers denote distance to the TSS. Bars denote the mean of at

least three biological replicates +/- SEM. Statistical significance was determined with a

two-tailed Student's t-test; * p < 0.05.

**E:** Quantification of LM2 scratch assay. Bars denote the mean of at least three biological

replicates +/- SEM. Statistical significance was determined with a two-tailed Student's t-

test; * $p < 0.05$.

**F:** Cell proliferation assay comparing growth curves of the Ren negative control to the two

*hMaTAR20* KD cell lines. Data points denote the mean of at least three biological

replicates +/- SEM.

**G:** Quantification of LM2 spheroid branching. For each biological replicate, n = 100

spheroids were analyzed (n = 300, total). Bars denote the mean of at least three biological

replicates +/- SEM. Statistical significance was determined with a two-tailed Student's t-

test; * $p < 0.05$.

1018

**Figure S5:**

**A:** Related to Figure 5, cET experiments: quantification of macro-metastatic nodules,

displayed is the average number per lung.

**B:** Related to Figure 5, cET experiments: Hematoxylin and Eosin staining of fixed lung

sections.

**C:** Related to Figure 5, cET experiments: quantification of metastases by area. Bars

represent the mean +/- SEM.

**D:** MMTV-PyMT (FVB) mice were treated for 6 weeks with MOE ASOs (150 mg/kg/week),

either scASO or *MaTAR20* ASO1. Bars / lines denote the mean of biological replicates

+/- SEM.

**E:** Average tumor burden in $mm^3$ per week in each treatment group, tumor size 100-200

$mm^3$, n=5 tumors.

**F:** Quantification of macro-metastatic nodules, displayed is the average number per lung.

Insets show exemplary images of lungs from scASO and ASO1 treated animals.

**G:** Hematoxylin and Eosin staining of tumor sections. Left: scASO treated tumor. Right:

*MaTAR20* ASO1 treated tumor.

1035

**Figure S6:**

Immunohistochemistry on tumors from animals treated with either scASO or *MaTAR20*

ASO. "MOE" = animals in the 2'MOE ASO cohort, "cET" = animals in the cET ASO cohort.

Lines within boxplots indicate the median. The y-axis indicates the percentage of each

tumor section stained with the respective antibody given a defined detection threshold

(0.2 for CD31, 0.5 for all other antibodies). Two technical replicates were measured for

each tumor. The axis indicates which ASO chemistry was used (MOE or cET).

**A:** Ki67 staining

**B:** Cleaved caspase-3 staining

**C:** Vegf-A staining

**D:** Vegf-B staining

**E:** CD31 staining

**F:** Tnfsf15 staining

1049

**Figure S7:**

**A:** qRT-PCR to determine the relative *Vegf-B* expression in 4T1 *MaTAR20* KO cells. Cells

were transfected either with *MaTAR20* Tx1 (KO+MaTAR20) or an empty backbone

(KO+bb). Bars denote the mean of at least three biological replicates +/- SD. Statistical

significance was determined with a two-tailed Student's t-test; * p < 0.05

**A:** Top 10 up-and down-regulated genes in *MaTAR20* KO cells compared to Ren control

cells.

**B:** Like A, for *Tnfsf15*.

**C:** UCSC Browser image illustrating *MaTAR20* binding to the *Tnfsf15* locus.

1059
1060

**Figure 1**

**Figure 2**

**Figure 3**

**Figure 4**

**Figure 5**

**A**

-log10 (adj. p-value)

| | 0.0 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.0 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Signaling by VEGF | | | | | | | |
| VEGF binds to VEGFR leading to receptor dimerization | | | | | | | |
| VEGF and VEGFR signaling network | | | | | | | |
| VEGF ligand-receptor interactions | | | | | | | |
| VEGF hypoxia and angiogenesis | | | | | | | |
| VEGFR3 signaling in lymphatic endothelium | | | | | | | |
| Sorafenib Pharmacodynamics | | | | | | | |
| Actions of nitric oxide in the heart | | | | | | | |
| EPO signaling | | | | | | | |
| IL-7 signaling | | | | | | | |
| VEGF | | | | | | | |
| Focal adhesion | | | | | | | |
| Cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction | | | | | | | |
| JAK STAT pathway and regulation | | | | | | | |
| PI3K-Akt signaling pathway | | | | | | | |

**B**

**Vegf-A**

Relative gene expression

scASO cET    MaTAR20 cET

*

**Vegf-B**

Relative gene expression

scASO cET    MaTAR20 cET

*

**C**

Relative Vegf-B expression

Untreated    scASO cET    MaTAR20 cET

*

**D**

Relative Vegf-B expression

Ren    KO1    KO2

*    **

**Figure 6**

**Figure 7**

**Figure 8**

**A**

**Figure S2**

**Figure S3**

**Figure S4**

**Figure S5**

Figure S6

**A**

Vegf-B

**B**

| Top10 up | | |
|---|---|---|
| Gene ID | log2FC | adj. p-value |
| Galm | 3.65 | 3.53E-19 |
| Gm17094 | 2.45 | 3.32E-06 |
| Pla2g5 | 2.41 | 5.21E-06 |
| Slc9a7 | 2.18 | 7.06E-05 |
| Ank2 | 2.17 | 1.57E-06 |
| Vegi | 2.16 | 3.17E-05 |
| Ophn1 | 2.10 | 0.0001 |
| Prrx2 | 2.07 | 0.0002 |
| Zswim5 | 2.00 | 1.30E-06 |
| Gm6526 | 1.95 | 0.0010 |

| Top10 down | | |
|---|---|---|
| Gene ID | log2FC | adj. p-value |
| Zfp518a | -4.67 | 1.63E-34 |
| Cobl | -4.31 | 2.21E-26 |
| Sh3tc2 | -4.06 | 1.07E-19 |
| Mall | -3.44 | 1.00E-16 |
| Sirpa | -2.83 | 9.58E-12 |
| Calhm2 | -2.78 | 6.22E-11 |
| Ccdc122 | -2.75 | 4.49E-12 |
| Eva1b | -2.72 | 4.35E-09 |
| Apc2 | -2.62 | 4.21E-08 |
| Sowahb | -2.51 | 1.84E-09 |

**C**

Tnfsfs15

**D**

**Figure S7**

**A**

**Figure S2**

**A**

**B**

**Figure S3**

**Figure S4**

**Figure S5**

Figure S6

**A**

Vegf-B

**B**

| Top10 up | | |
|---|---|---|
| Gene ID | log2FC | adj. p-value |
| Galm | 3.65 | 3.53E-19 |
| Gm17094 | 2.45 | 3.32E-06 |
| Pla2g5 | 2.41 | 5.21E-06 |
| Slc9a7 | 2.18 | 7.06E-05 |
| Ank2 | 2.17 | 1.57E-06 |
| Vegi | 2.16 | 3.17E-05 |
| Ophn1 | 2.10 | 0.0001 |
| Prrx2 | 2.07 | 0.0002 |
| Zswim5 | 2.00 | 1.30E-06 |
| Gm6526 | 1.95 | 0.0010 |

| Top10 down | | |
|---|---|---|
| Gene ID | log2FC | adj. p-value |
| Zfp518a | -4.67 | 1.63E-34 |
| Cobl | -4.31 | 2.21E-26 |
| Sh3tc2 | -4.06 | 1.07E-19 |
| Mall | -3.44 | 1.00E-16 |
| Sirpa | -2.83 | 9.58E-12 |
| Calhm2 | -2.78 | 6.22E-11 |
| Ccdc122 | -2.75 | 4.49E-12 |
| Eva1b | -2.72 | 4.35E-09 |
| Apc2 | -2.62 | 4.21E-08 |
| Sowahb | -2.51 | 1.84E-09 |

**C**

Tnfsfs15

**D**

**Figure S7**