A multi-tiered map of EMT defines major transition points and identifies vulnerabilities

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Summary

TGFβ mediated epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) proceeds through hybrid 'E/M' states. A deeper understanding of these states and events which regulate entry to and exit from the E/M states is needed for therapeutic exploitation. We quantified >60,000 molecules across ten time points and twelve omic layers in mammary epithelial cells. Proteomes of whole cells, phosphoproteins, nucleus, extracellular vesicles, secretome and membrane resolved major shifts, E→E/M and E/M→M during EMT, and defined state-specific signatures. Metabolomics identified early activation of arachidonic acid pathway and an enzyme-mediated switch from Cytochrome P450 to Cyclooxygenase / Lipoxygenase branches during E→E/M. Single-cell transcriptomics identified GLIS2 as an early modulator of EMT. Integrative modeling-predicted combinatorial inhibition of AURKB, PP2A and SRC exposed vulnerabilities at E→E/M juncture. Covariance analysis revealed remarkable discordance between proteins and transcripts, and between proteomic layers, implying insufficiency of current approaches. Overall, this dataset provides an unprecedented resource on TGFβ signaling, EMT and cancer.

Short title

Multi-level time-resolved deconstruction of EMT program

Introduction

Epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) regulates cell plasticity during embryonic development, tissue homeostasis and cancer, where polarized epithelial (E) cells dedifferentiate, transition through intermediate E/M hybrid states (E/M) and acquire mesenchymal (M) properties (Nieto et al., 2016). These E/M share several clinically-relevant attributes of circulating tumor cells (CTCs) and are responsible for EMT-associated stemness, chemoresistance, immune evasion and metastasis (Dongre and Weinberg, 2019). Complete molecular characterization of E/M states, and the mechanisms driving E→E/M and E/M→M transitions will enable development of refined mechanistic models and discovery of new therapeutic targets.

Approximately 150 genes are currently described as hallmarks of EMT (MSigDB) (http://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/) that were identified from studies measuring the expression of 'endpoint' markers (e.g. CDH1, MUC1, VIM, FN1) to track the process (Sha et al., 2019). The prevalent view on EMT as a transcriptionally-driven program is debatable (Yang et al., 2020). In fact, the poor correlation between genomic alterations or mRNA levels and (sub)cellular proteoforms during EMT has been noted (Califano and Alvarez, 2017; Liu et al., 2016). This is crucial because EMT is likely an emergent property where the shifts in cell physiology and phenotype are orchestrated by intra- and extra-cellular signaling (Sigston and Williams, 2017), extensive receptor-ligand crosstalk, protein relocalization (Hung and Link, 2011) and metabolic adaptations (Tabassum and Polyak, 2015; Thomson et al., 2019). Attempts made to model EMT primarily invoke gene-regulatory networks (GRNs) controlled by key transcription factors (TFs) and miRNAs. These models are usually based on a restricted number of factors and thus do not capture the multi-layered architecture of signaling during EMT (Hong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014). To date, no EMT-focused studies have simultaneously measured metabolite and gene expression changes at different functional levels (e.g., mRNA, total protein, nucleus, secretome, etc.).

Consequentially, several aspects of EMT remain unclear. This includes dependencies between molecular layers, secreted molecules, and specific signatures at various stages of EMT, kinetics and scope of metabolic reprogramming, dynamics of subcellular protein localizations and ligand-receptor mediated intercellular crosstalk. To bridge these gaps, we employed multiple high-throughput platforms including microarray, scRNAseq and precision mass spectrometry (MS) to quantify molecules spanning 12 distinct layers of biological information. Our ability to integrate this information allowed us to define signatures of E/M states and identify molecular regulators of key transition points.

RESULTS

A comprehensive resource on TGFβ-induced EMT

The human mammary epithelial cell line MCF10A has been widely used to investigate TGFβ (transforming growth factor β) induced EMT (Liu et al., 2019b; Wei et al., 2015). To generate extensive temporally resolved quantitative expression maps of the evolving EMT landscape, cells were treated with TGFβ (TGF-β1; 10 ng/mL) over 12 days (0, 4 hrs, 1–6, 8 & 12 days), spanning multiple 'omics' layers and employing complementary technology platforms (**Fig. 1A-B**, **Fig. S1A-C**). Across all time points, after stringent quality control (see **STAR Methods**), we report nanoLC-MS/MS-based quantifications (**Fig. 1C**, **Table S1**) of 6,540 whole cell (*WC*), 4,198 nuclear (*Nuc*), 2,223 plasma membrane (*Mem*), 1,209 extracellular vesicle (*EV*) and 1,133 secreted (*Sec*) proteins. Using a serial enrichment workflow (see **STAR Methods**) we also quantified the total phosphoproteome (*Phos*; 8,741 high-confidence sites on 2,254 proteins; including 6975 Ser, 962 Thr and 140 Tyr residues), N-glycoproteome (*Glyco*; 549 proteins), acetylome (*Acet*; 349 sites on 165 proteins) and peptidome (*Pep*; 547 peptides from 202 proteins). For proteomics, samples for each point were multiplexed using isobaric tandem mass-tag (TMT-10), enabling higher throughput and robust comparisons. In addition to proteins, we tracked cellular metabolism in the same samples by nanoLC-MS/MS-based untargeted metabolomics, quantifying 8,325 HMDB-indexed endogenous small molecules (*Metabol*). Furthermore, we measured 23,787 gene transcripts (mRNA) and 2,578 microRNAs (miRNA) using microarrays. To assess cellular heterogeneity, we employed scRNAseq to quantify transcriptomes of 1,913 individual cells (>200 cells per time point) undergoing EMT.

In total, we provide temporal quantifications of >60,000 proteins, phosphosites, mRNAs, miRNAs, and metabolites combined, in addition to 9,785 mRNAs in our scRNAseq dataset (**Fig. 1C**). Subcellular enrichments were performed using previously established MS-compatible protocols (see **STAR Methods**), yielding high purity determined through keyword matching against a cellular compartment annotation database (**Fig. S1D**). Quantitative reproducibility across the 3 biological replicates was excellent (**Fig. S1E**). The expression profiles in **Fig. 1D** provide a snapshot of concurrent changes of a given gene over various layers during EMT. We reproduced expected expression behavior for many established markers of EMT, including an increase of M markers VIM, CDH2 and concomitant decrease of E markers SCRIB, MUC1. Using strict criteria for differential expression (Benjamini-Hochberg adj. *p-value* < 0.05; $r^2 \geq 0.6$ & $|log2FC| \geq 1$; see **STAR Methods**) we identified >10,000 significantly regulated molecules (**Table S2**). As such, this study is the largest experimental description of EMT regulome induced by TGFβ, till date.

We found that molecular abundances were highly variable across layers and time-points (**Fig. S1F**) and all layers contributed significantly to the overall variation in the system (**Fig. 1E**). While each layer showed substantive alterations, the magnitudes (**Fig. S1G**), response profiles (**Fig. 1F**) and fraction of differentially expressed molecules (**Fig. 1G**) of each omic data set during the time course varied significantly. These findings provide direct evidence for global reorganization of the cellular architecture during EMT. For example, *Phos* and *Sec* showed the highest fractional change (36% &

128   40%, respectively) (**Fig. 1G**), suggesting extensive intra- and extra-cellular signaling during EMT
129   (Scheel et al., 2011). These results add new depths to our current understanding of TGFβ signaling
130   and EMT (**Fig. 1H, I**).

Integrative multi-tiered topology of EMT reveals key transition points and identifies molecular drivers

Although E→M progression is considered a continuum, distinct stages have been reported for
MCF10A cells (Zhang et al., 2014), and cancer tissues (Liu et al., 2019a; Pastushenko et al., 2018).
Using a phylogenetic clustering approach (Hughes and Friedman, 2009) we estimated 'distances'
between time steps to understand the transition kinetics (**Fig. 2A**). We observed that up to 24 hours
cells maintained their parental E phenotype, while day 2 marked a switch-like exit from the E state,
suggesting that at day 2 the E/M began and continued through Day 6, after which cells gradually
entered the M state. Cells in day 2 to 6 can be further sub-divided into E/M-1 (Day 2/3, late E) and
E/M-2 (Day 4/5/6, early M) states. These cellular reconfigurations were consistent with principal
component analysis of individual layers, such as *Mem*, *Phos* and *WC* (**Fig. S2A**).

Our observations suggest that each molecular layer has a distinct and complementary role in shaping
the transition (**Fig 2B**, **Fig 1E-G**, **Fig S1F, G**). Although, the topology was generally correlated (**Fig.**
2C), pairwise coefficients of determination (adj. R^2) revealed a strikingly low concordance between
total proteins and other proteomic layers (mean R^2 ranging from 0.015 for *Acet* to 0.299 for *Glyco*)
(**Fig. 2D, Upper panel**). The discordance was even stronger between mRNA and various proteomic
layers (mean R^2 ranging from 0.011 for *Pep* to just 0.109 for *WC*) (**Fig. 2D, Lower panel**), which
increased further with EMT progression. Collectively, these observations illustrate that at a systems
level mRNA quantity is a poor proxy of protein abundance. Total protein or mRNA quantities are also
unreliable predictors of a proteins PTMs or subcellular trafficking, which ultimately determines
signaling output.

Next, to model the regulatory patterns of molecules, we employed a 3-step computational workflow.
First, we used a regression strategy for time-course measurements (Conesa et al., 2006) to remove
residual noise (time dimension) and non-reliable (replicates) components. Second, an unsupervised
machine learning approach (self-organizing maps, SOMs) (Wirth et al., 2012) was applied on the
retained molecules to generate time-point specific SOM portraits (**Fig. 2E, Fig. S2B-D**, see **STAR**
Methods for details). SOMs are a powerful integration tool for large and diverse global datasets to
extract fundamental underlying patterns of co-regulation (Lu et al., 2009; Tamayo et al., 1999). Third,
we performed pathway enrichments (Ulgen et al., 2019) of these SOMs to elucidate the functional
themes at each time-step of EMT (**Fig. 2F**).

SOMs traced the temporal unfolding of the transition and provided molecular fingerprints of each
time-step. Molecules ranking high (top 1% i.e., rank ≤ 250 & log2FC ≥ 1) with SOMs for control to day
1 (430 unique molecules) primarily included proteins characteristic of an E state (**Fig. 2E, Table S3**),

such as, ACTG1 (*Mem*; establishes cell junctions and shape) and EPHB2 (*Glyco*; regulates angiogenesis, contact dependent adhesion and migration; tumor suppressor). SOMs for days 6–12 (252 unique molecules) contained established M markers (e.g., CALD1, CDH2, FLNA, FN1, FSTL1, LGALS1, NT5E, TAGLN, TPM1, TPM2, TPM4, VIM). This group included molecules with established roles in cancer and EMT, including miR-5189 (*miR*; targets ARF6 which internalizes CDH1), CALR (*Acet*; Lys 62; calcium homeostasis, promotes metastasis, imparts resistance to anoikis), ALCAM (*Nuc*; prognostic marker in multiple cancers linked to nuclear translocation of β-catenin and stemness), ARHGAP33 (*Sec*; regulates intracellular trafficking), RAPGEF5 (*Sec*; promotes nuclear translocation of β-catenin) and SOCS3 (*Phos*; Thr 3/13; E3 ligase, E3 ligase inhibiting TGFβ signaling). The onset of the major regulatory switch at day 2 is likely driven by molecules peaking at its corresponding SOM (95 molecules) such as miR-675-5p/H19 (*miR*; induces HIF1α, SNAIL activity), LTBP1 (*Sec*; master regulator of integrin-dependent TGFβ activation) and CD44 (*Sec*; signal transduction). Notably, many of the genes/molecules identified in the SOM, to our knowledge, have not been previously linked to TGFβ signaling or EMT, presumably because they do not show clear changes in *mRNA* or *WC* but in 'other' molecular layers, such as *EV* or *Sec* (**Fig. S2E**). This contrasts with most MSigDB hallmarks of EMT for which we captured clear transcriptional profiles (**Fig. S2F**).

Enrichment analysis of active subnetworks (Ulgen et al., 2019) identified 237 significant pathways (**Fig. 2F**, **Table S3**), discretized across sequential steps of EMT. For example, 'Beta oxidation of hexanoyl-CoA to butanoyl-CoA' declined as cells leave E and enter E/M, indicating reprogramming of mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation, consistent with a metastatic phenotype (Ma et al., 2018). Conversely, 'RHO GTPases mediated activation of ROCKs/PAKs/IQGAPs' increased as cells leave E/M and enter M, suggestive of their key role at this stage of EMT (Ungefroren et al., 2018). The E/M specifically were associated with migration-associated pathways such as 'anchoring fibril formation', 'ECM proteoglycans' and 'laminin interactions', consistent with their shared property with CTCs.

Overall, we catalogued complex kinetics of thousands of molecules spanning multiple molecular layers during EMT. Importantly, we predict signatures specific to each stage of EMT, e.g., the E/M, with potential clinical value.

Metabolomics reveals kinetics and predicts novel enzyme-metabolite associations

TGFβ is known to regulate Warburg effect in cancer cells, but may also regulate other metabolic pathways with implications for cancer management (Hua et al., 2019). Active subnetwork analysis of *WC* and *Phos* datasets identified 13 enriched KEGG metabolic pathways during TGFβ-induced EMT (**Fig. S3A**). Notably, significant enrichment (p–*value* ≤ 0.05) was only observed post day 2 for pathways such as Steroid biosynthesis (SHB), Sphingolipid metabolism (SLM) and Glycosaminoglycan degradation (GGM). To evaluate these gene-centric inferences of metabolic phenotypes, we directly profiled intra-cellular small molecules by applying an optimized untargeted metabolomics workflow to the same set of samples. Using stringent criteria (see **STAR Methods**), we

quantified >8,000 putative HMDB-compounds covering a wide range of chemical classes (**Fig. 3A**).

Phylogenetic clustering (**Fig. 3B**) and SOM analysis (**Fig. 3C**) revealed kinetics of metabolic
remodeling prompted by TGFβ. In particular, a distinct temporal separation from parental E cells was
observed as early as 4 hours indicating rapid modulation of cellular metabolism by TGFβ, preceding
changes in most other layers. To glean further insights, we performed integrative network analysis
of metabolite SOMs with differential molecules in *WC* and *Phos* using MetaboAnalyst (Chong et al.,
2019) (**Fig. 3D**). This analysis reiterated several enriched pathways predicted with protein
expression alone, e.g., glycerophospholipid metabolism (GPLM) and lysine degradation (LD).
However, integration of metabolite and protein data within the framework of metabolite SOMs
revealed pathway activities representative of key transition steps of EMT driven primarily by
corresponding metabolite signatures (**Fig. S3B-D**). Indeed, we observed that arachidonic acid
metabolism (AAM), GPLM and LD pathways were activated within 4 hours of TGFβ stimulation,
which was not captured by gene enrichment. Consistent with observations in **Fig 2F**, processes such
as fatty acid metabolism, SHB and SLM appear after day 2, as cells prepare for a metastatic phenotype
(Koundouros and Poulogiannis, 2020).

Pairwise-correlation based integration of metabolite profiles with proteomics measurements from
the same samples could enable mechanistic predictions and aid discovery of novel players. To
explore this, we chose AAM as an example. Arachidonic acid is an omega-6 fatty acid stored as
membrane phosphoglycerolipid. Its cytosolic release enables stoichiometric chain reactions and
results in >100 functionally diverse compounds (Hanna and Hafez, 2018) impacting processes such
as redox state, proliferation, apoptosis and chemotaxis (Tallima and El Ridi, 2018). We computed
Pearson's correlations between abundance of annotated enzymes, in *WC* and *Phos*, and metabolites
of AAM pathway, in *Metabol*, quantified at SOM for 4 hours to day 1 (**Fig. 3E, F**). Overall, we found
that metabolites mapping to AAM either increased linearly (CYP450 branch and thromboxane) or
initially decreased before rising (Lipoxygenase branch and prostaglandin) (**Fig. 3G**), suggesting fine-
tuned regulation of the different branches. Encouragingly, our enzyme-metabolite association map
identified PLA2G4A, the rate-limiting phospholipase of AAM pathway (Hanna and Hafez, 2018),
among the top candidates (**Fig. 3F**). Interestingly, correlation and expression profiles of PLA2G15,
another phospholipase, (**Fig. 3E-G**) indicated a potential enzyme-mediated switch from Cytochrome
P450 to Cyclooxygenase/Lipoxygenase branches during E→E/M.

Overall, these observations provide direct evidence for the kinetics of metabolic reprogramming
during TGFβ induced EMT. We found metabolites and protein signatures coordinating processes
such as AAM, GPLM and LD during key stages of the transition. We also demonstrate how our
enzyme-metabolite correlation map could be used as a resource to predict novel enzymes for
observed metabolic changes.

scRNAseq analysis reveals heterogeneous responses to TGFβ and novel transcriptional regulators of EMT

scRNAseq studies in murine epithelial Py2T cells treated with TGFβ (Krishnaswamy et al., 2018), MCF10A cells undergoing confluence-dependent EMT (McFaline-Figueroa et al., 2019) and LPS-induced EMT in alveolar epithelial cells (Riemondy et al., 2019), provided critical insights into EMT. However, a temporal analysis of EMT to understand the transition states has not been reported.

After quality control, we retained 1,913 single cells with a combined depth of 9,785 genes (**Fig. S4A, Table S1**). As anticipated, many of the top expressing genes (TGFB1, TPT1, KRT6A, TMSB10, MT2A) are key players in EMT (**Fig. S4B**). Interestingly, similar to many primary human tumors (Aiello et al., 2018; Puram et al., 2018), we did not observe an explicit loss of several classical E markers at the transcript level (**Fig. 4A, Fig. S4C**), indicating post-transcriptional regulation. This may be energetically economical for tumor cells by conferring invasive properties without losing capacity for metastatic seeding (Lambert et al., 2017).

To understand the stages of cell differentiation, we took advantage of the multiple time points in our dataset (as opposed to a 'pseudo-time'), using Monocle3 (see **STAR Methods**) and identified 20 cell clusters in 3 disjoint partitions (**Fig. 4B, Fig. S4D**). Partition P2 (12 clusters) represents the primary EMT axis while P1/P3 predominantly expressed genes related to cell cycle (**Fig. S4E**) and were ignored for further analysis. We observed that C3 responded strongly to TGFβ (**Fig. 4C**), C4/6 resisted EMT, C5/C8 are the 'transition' states and C13/14 represented terminal M cells (in terms of hallmark M markers; **Fig. 4C**, **right panel**). Examining clusters C9/18/19 which were composed of cells from nearly all time points, suggests presence of stable M-type cells in MCF10A populations and appears to be transcriptional impasse to TGFβ signaling.

To explore the underlying gene expression program, we used hierarchical clustering to group the individual clusters into 6 subtypes (**Fig. 4C**) and employed SCENIC (Aibar et al., 2017) to infer TFs and GRNs underlying these subtypes (**Fig. D-F; Table S5**). For each subtype, we identified several unique (**Fig. 4E**) or highly active TFs (**Fig. 4F**), including both established and novel players. Several TFs implicated in EMT (TWIST2, FOXK2, ZEB1, ID2, MSX1, ING4) were over-represented in S4-S6, corresponding to later stages of EMT. In contrast, direct evidence of mechanistic links of TFs enriched in early stages of EMT (i.e., S3, S4) are lacking, indicating gaps in current EMT models. Using human TF–binding arrays (see **STAR Methods, Fig. 4G**) we confirmed elevated activity of three S3 TFs, GLIS2, SP1 and ZNF266 upon TGFβ induction (**Fig. 4H**). In addition to providing experimental evidence to our predictions, the TF-binding array also identified several other TFs potentially playing important roles at the early stages of EMT (**Fig. 4I**).

Overall, we provide a high-resolution temporal map of gene expression programs of individual cells as they respond to TGFβ signaling and undergo EMT. More generally, our data suggests that most transcriptional changes occur at early time points (also **Fig. 2D, Lower panel**), followed by further adaptations driven predominantly by secondary or post-transcriptional mechanisms.

Spatial regulation of proteins and inter-cellular communication during EMT

Regulation of protein distribution is a crucial signaling mechanism (Ferrell, 1998), but remains insufficiently understood in EMT. The average pairwise Pearson's correlation between proteins quantified in various cellular compartments (CCs) ranged between $r = 0.12$ to 0.58 indicating fine-tuned regulation of protein distributions (**Fig. 5A**). We found 3,965 proteins localizing to ≥2 CCs (**Fig. S5A**), which we categorized into 2 classes as follows: Class I proteins (1,424) displayed a correlated trend ($r \geq 0.4$) consistently across all CC pairs suggesting regulation primarily at or before the translation step (**Fig. 5B, C; Table S5**). Class II proteins (1,205) displayed anti-correlated trends ($r \leq -0.4$) between any two CCs, active post-translational control of their asymmetric distributions (**Fig. 5D, E; Table S5**).

The Bromodomain and ExtraTerminal (BET) cofactors, BRD2 and BRD4, were identified as Class II proteins, with contrasting kinetic profiles (**Fig. 5F**). Using TF-binding arrays, we verified enhanced global recruitment of BRD4, but not two other cofactors p300 and LSD1, (**Fig. 5G**) indicating its importance during EMT. Indeed, treatment with a pan-BET inhibitor JQ-1 suppressed EMT (**Fig. 5H**). Another notable Class II protein was SCRIB (**Fig. 5I**), which regulates apical-basal polarity and directional migration by acting as a molecular scaffold through protein-protein interactions (Bonello and Peifer, 2019). Using an *in* vivo proximity ligation (BioID) screen of SCRIB ((**Fig. S5B**, see **STAR Methods**), we identified multiple novel interactors (**Table S6**) of which many have known roles in EMT (**Fig. 5J**). Using immunoprecipitation, we verified interactions of SCRIB with SNAP23 and ARHGEF7 (**Fig. 5K**).

Regulation of extracellular signals is important for EMT (Scheel et al., 2011). Subtypes within a cell population can differ in their capacity to send and receive signals, with implications for metastasis and drug resistance (Kim et al., 2018; Tabassum and Polyak, 2015). To map the inter-cellular communication between subgroups of cells during TGFβ-induced EMT, we integrate proteomics and scRNAseq data to perform a systems-wide survey of ligand-receptor (L-R) pair mediated crosstalk (**Fig. 5L**).

First, using a database of >2,500 curated binary L-R interactions (Ramilowski et al., 2015), we searched for pairs of L and R in our *Sec* and *Mem/Glyco* datasets, respectively, assuming that co-directional expression changes in L and/or R of a pair (FDR adj. *p-value* < 0.05 and combined L-R |log2FC| ≥1) can indicate biological role. Currently, at least two L-R pairs are implicated in TGFβ-induced EMT in several tissue models (Heldin et al., 2012). Our analysis detected 67 upregulated and 12 downregulated L-R pairs at any given time point (**Fig. 5M, Table S7**) following TGFβ treatment. Notably, none of these pairs have been directly implicated in TGFβ signaling or EMT, although individually many of the identified L or R occur frequently in the context of EMT and/or cancer. For instance, LAMC2 with its 7 receptors (CD151, COL17A1, ITGA2, ITGA3, ITGA6, ITGB1, ITGB4) exhibit significant alteration during EMT. LAMC2 is overexpressed in cancers (Garg et al., 2014) and its silencing can reverse EMT (Moon et al., 2015; Pei et al., 2019). The cognate receptors, CD151, ITGA3, ITGA6 and ITGB1 synergize with TGFβ signaling to promote metastatic behavior (Pellinen et al.,

2018; Sadej et al., 2010; Shirakihara et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017).

Next, by systematically comparing the expression patterns of L & R (identified above) among the 16
clusters (identified in our scRNAseq dataset), we obtained cell-cell communication networks (sender
→ receiver) (**Fig. 5N, Fig. S5C, Table S7**). For example, C13 cells, which appeared at day 3 and
showed highest M genes expression (**Fig. 4C**), produced the receptor CD44 to its cognate ligand
MMP7 expressed by C17 (**Fig. S5D**). Together, this suggests that communication between cell
subgroups (C17:MMP7 → C13:CD44) may exist during EMT which can have potential ramifications
for tumor growth (Tabassum and Polyak, 2015). Encouragingly, several of these identified L-R pairs
showed strong correlation (**Fig. 5O**) in human breast invasive carcinoma samples (Cancer Genome
Atlas Network, 2012; Cerami et al., 2012).

Our study provides a comprehensive analysis of TGFβ-triggered subcellular trafficking as cells
undergo EMT. Such translocations, potentially driven by differential PPI, could mediate the tight
coordination between functional modules (e.g., SCRIB complex) and EMT phenotypes such as
cytoskeletal rearrangement (Huang et al., 2012). We also uncovered novel cell-cell communication
pathways via L-R interactions in driving EMT, representing an untapped clinical opportunity.

Modeling phosphoproteome dynamics during EMT reveals kinase susceptibilities

Phosphoregulatory mechanisms are a key aspect of TGFβ signaling and EMT. We confidently
quantified 8,741 phosphosites (p-sites; 6,975 Ser, 962 Thr and 140 Tyr residues) (**Fig. S6A-C**) over a
dynamic range of 10^6 orders of magnitude (**Fig. S6D**), and phospho–STY frequencies (**Fig. S6E**) in
line with previous reports (D'Souza et al., 2014) mapping to 2,254 proteins (**Fig. S6F**). Of all p-sites,
3,138 (35.8%) were differentially regulated in at least one time point (**Fig. S6G**). At protein level,
different patterns of regulation were noted; some proteins, such as DEK, VIM and MISP, were
regulated at ~90% of detected sites, some proteins, such as CAV1, CAMK2 and GOLGA1, showed a
~50% mixture of regulated and unregulated sites, while others such as AHNAK, PML and BCLAF1
showed ~2% differential sites (**Fig. 6A**). Interestingly, the fraction of regulated p-sites in several
proteins, e.g., VIM, increased with EMT progression (**Fig. 6B**).

We observed that in ~50%, p-sites dynamics were not explained ($r ≤ 0.4$) by a corresponding change
at the protein level (**Fig. 6C, D**). Interestingly, for ~26%, a directionally opposite change between
phosphorylation and the corresponding protein abundance was noted ($r ≤ –0.1$), suggesting effects
on protein stability. Phospho-regulated proteins were enriched for '*nucleus*', '*cytoskeleton*' and '*focal
adhesion*' annotations (**Fig. 6E**) reflecting the importance of CC remodeling during EMT.

We also computed correlations between nuclear localization profiles (*Nuc*) and phosphorylation
kinetics (*Phos*) of individual proteins (**Fig. 6F, G**). For instance, phosphorylation of MICAL3 at T684
and S685 regulates CSCs by promoting symmetric division (Tominaga et al., 2019). The pattern of
phosphorylation at residues T684, S685 and S687 (**Fig. 6D,** MICAL3) which are located at the

consensus NLS motif of MICAL3 suggests a role in regulating nuclear translocation and/or retention
at E/M→M transition. Indeed, the bipartite NLS motif of MICAL3 interacts with Importin-α and the
p-sites T684, S685, S687 are directly adjacent to the binding interface (**Fig. 6H**).

To analyze stage-specific kinase activities we generated a ternary model which distinguishes active
kinases into 3 broad stages (i.e., E, E/M, and M) of EMT (**Fig. 6I, Fig. S6H**). An example that illustrates
the utility of this model are AKT isoforms that have distinct and opposing roles during cancer
development (Hinz and Jücker, 2019). We predict AKT1 is strongly associated with the E-stage, which
is consistent with its role in maintaining the E phenotype (Li et al., 2016). In fact, depletion of AKT1
in MCF10A cells promoted TGFβ-induced E→E/M transition (Iliopoulos et al., 2009). Our model
further predicts key roles for AKT2 and AKT3 at E/M→M transition. Indeed, AKT2 and AKT3 were
associated with tumor invasiveness, stemness and sensitivity to drug treatment (Chin et al., 2014),
key characteristics of the E/M populations (Dongre and Weinberg, 2019). Among several other
kinases (**Fig. S6J**), our ternary model predicts critical roles for PRKCA and AURKB at the junction of
E→E/M and E/M→M transitions. PRKCA is reportedly a hub and therapeutic target for EMT-induced
breast CSCs (Tam et al., 2013). Similarly, inhibition of AURKB was found to reverse EMT and reduce
breast cancer metastasis *in vivo* (Zhang et al., 2020).

Overall, we reveal the rich intricacies of the phosphoregulome during EMT, identified functional p-
sites, predict novel kinase susceptibilities, and provide a mechanistic framework to enhance
understanding of the signaling mechanisms during EMT.

Integrative systems causal model of EMT identifies mechanistic vulnerabilities

Systems biology approaches that combine multiple molecular types (proteins, miRNAs, metabolites)
into a framework of established knowledge allow for a rich assessment of a biological context (Hawe
et al., 2019; Karczewski and Snyder, 2018). Using experimentally validated functional priors
(compiled from ENCODE, PhosphoSitePlus, SignaLink 2.0, SIGNOR 2.0, HINT, miRTarBase and
MetaBridge), we combined causal inference and PCSF (Prize Collecting Steiner Forest) (Akhmedov
et al., 2017) to construct hierarchical mechanistic models of the EMT program (**Fig. 7A**, see **STAR
Methods**). The final 'EMT network' comprised of 3,255 edges connecting 2,217 molecules, including
723 kinase/phosphatase–substrate, 1,407 TF–target, 746 miRNA–target and 31 metabolite–gene
interactions.

One of the potential applications of the EMT network is to discover signaling paths from TGFBR1/2
to any gene(s) of interest within the network. As a demonstration, we queried several genes (FN1,
MMP7, CD44, SCRIB, TWISTNB, ZEB1, SNAI2) and recovered previously known and unknown paths
to them putatively active at multiple stages of EMT (**Fig. 7B**). Next, to identify key factors driving
EMT, we extracted 'controller' nodes exerting a significant influence on EMT network topology (see
STAR Methods). Survival analysis against a large publicly available dataset of primary breast cancers
with long-term patient outcomes (Cancer Genome Atlas Network, 2012) showed a significant

association between tumors with altered expression of these controllers and shortened overall survival (**Fig. 7C**). Not surprisingly, a few of them are established key regulators of metastasis (**Fig. 7D**), providing independent support to our model. Unlike controllers, however, the non-controller nodes were poorly represented in EMT literature (**Fig. 7E**), again highlighting gaps, and potentially identifying new regulatory processes.

We queried the EMT network to identify the signaling context in which these controllers are active at various key stages of EMT, which could also provide clues into mechanistic vulnerabilities (**Fig. 7F**). As cells are stimulated with TGFβ, the TFs SMAD2 and SMAD3 are activated, as expected. Another early responder was RHO GTPase RAC1, an effector of both KRAS (Wu et al., 2014) and TGFβ signaling (Ungefroren et al., 2018), suggesting potential crosstalk. The downstream effector of RAC1, MAPK14 (p38 MAPK), was also regulated early in EMT, suggesting cooperation between RAC1 and MAPK pathways (Santibáñez et al., 2010). Our model suggests SMAD3 regulates two other TF hubs, CEBPB (CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein β) and FOXA1. Loss of CEBPB reportedly switches TGFβ signaling from growth-inhibiting to EMT-inducing (Johansson et al., 2013), while FOXA1 is reportedly a key TF during EMT (Wang et al., 2013). We observed that STAT3 is suppressed at later stages of EMT. A recent study in KRAS-driven lung and pancreatic cancer found that STAT3 is required for maintaining the E state and is lost during acquisition of M phenotypes (D'Amico et al., 2018).

The EMT network directly predicts novel avenues for blocking EMT. To assess this, we performed a morphometry-based screening where we treated MCF10A cells with TGFβ in combination with drugs which were predicted to inhibit several of the controller nodes active at E→E/M transition (**Fig. 7G, see STAR Methods**). Our analysis using a custom-built and publicly accessible image analysis software (Ochs et al., 2019) (**Fig. 7G**) showed noticeable efficacy of LB100+Barasertib, LB100+PP1 and Sonidegib+Autocamtide in reverting the elongated (= 'eccentric') phenotype of EMT-induced cells (**Fig. 7H**), thus providing direct experimental evidence to our predictions.

Overall, our EMT network recapitulates known signaling pathways, uncovers novel routes of information flow to known regulators of EMT, identifies new signaling players and pathways, makes substantial and provocative novel predictions and reveals cohesive time-resolved regulatory patterns and mechanistic links between both controllers and non-controllers.

DISCUSSION

EMT and cancer are *emergent systems* (Sigston and Williams, 2017) wherein progression through various stages is regulated by intricate networks of intra- and extra-cellular signaling within and between cells. The key to understanding such complex biological phenomena are establishing experimental workflows that integrate multiple tiers of biological information (Karczewski and Snyder, 2018).

Theoretical discussions on EMT are often guided by the Waddington metaphor of a ball (=cell) rolling over a phenotypic landscape, which is dynamically shaped by multiple parameters: topologies of

signaling networks, molecular stochasticity, extraneous cooperating and opposing forces (e.g., EMT
inducing and/or inhibitory ligands, interaction with other cells) (Li and Balazsi, 2018). By integrating
several molecular layers, SOMs and 'neighbor joining' approaches revealed the kinetics of cell-fate
transitions and major phenotypic switch points driven by TGFβ. Several studies have indicated
molecular and phenotypic granularity in EMT continuum and suggested existence of discrete
metastable E/M (Sha et al., 2019). Many current EMT markers are biased toward the later stages of
EMT, when the process is approaching completion (Song et al., 2019). Consequently, the molecular
nature of E/M is still poorly understood. Our time-course integrative SOM allowed us to trace the
temporal unfolding and uncover the molecular nature of the E→M transition.

While previous omics studies have measured either one or two molecular layers to describe EMT,
our multi-tiered datasets enabled the discovery of several new aspects of EMT which were not
captured by previous approaches. For example, the correlation between *mRNA* and proteins were
weak. Strikingly, correlations between the various *proteomics layers* were also found to be quite poor,
indicating that systems behavior cannot readily be extrapolated by any single layer (e.g., mRNA or
total proteome), but instead needs an integrated analysis of several molecular layers. We show that
TGFβ-induced EMT is only partially driven by transcription, where several E genes are repressed
only post-transcriptionally, while transcripts of M genes are upregulated but mostly during earlier
time points. At later stages, post-translational mechanisms become more prominent in driving the
process, suggesting that the regulatory control of EMT may be more flexible than previously
appreciated. Similarly, our results also predict the mechanistic importance of protein subcellular
localization during EMT. A comparison of proteins detected in *EV*, *Sec*, *Glyco*, *Mem* and *Nuc* indicated
extensive regulation of protein localizations. Further, previous studies on EMT have largely focused
on cell-autonomous signaling, whereas multiple inter-cellular signaling mechanisms are evident
from our integrative analysis. Indeed, we found both *EV* and *Sec* to be extensively regulated during
EMT. Once considered as cellular 'garbage bins', their active participation in signaling and crosstalk
is increasingly recognized (H. Rashed et al., 2017). Our results demonstrating limited qualitative
overlap between *EV* and *Sec* hint at a potentially overlooked mechanistic distinction and provides
opportunities for new biological insights. We utilized our *Mem*, *Glyco* and *Sec* datasets to provide a
repertoire of 79 putative new L-R pairs with potential roles during EMT, which should be validated
in future studies. By combining these results with the scRNAseq profiles, we were able to define an
extensive network of inter-cellular communications.

In conclusion, we have established a comprehensive multi-tiered molecular landscape of TGFβ-
induced EMT. This study aims to provide a valuable resource which is accessible through an
interactive website (https://srphanse.shinyapps.io/EMTAPP_2/) (**Fig. S7**) and will strongly
complement hypothesis-driven research with direct implications for epithelial cancers.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Main figure legends

Figure 1. A multi-dimensional resource on TGFβ-induced EMT

(A) MCF10A cells were exposed to TGFβ for the indicated time points. A major premise of the study was to characterize various cell-states and the transition points through which EMT occurs.

(B) Samples from 3 biological replicates were aliquoted and multiple technology platforms were employed to quantify various molecular layers.

(C) An overview of numbers of molecules quantified in various layers.

(D) Expression snapshots of some well-known EMT markers. Heatmaps show log2FC values (relative to Control, FDR = 0.05).

(E) Variance explained by each layer over 4 principal components.

(F) Ridge plot showing differential molecules, as % of total quantified, for each layer.

(G) Pie chart showing the overall fraction (in %) of differential molecules (yellow portion) relative to all molecules quantified in each layer.

(H) Overlap between established EMT databases (MSigDB, www.gsea-msigdb.org; dbEMT2.0, http://dbemt.bioinfo-minzhao.org) and differential proteins and miRNAs (adj. *p-value* < 0.05; $r^2 \geq 0.6$ & $|log2FC| \geq 1$) from this study.

(I) Differential molecules (proteins, miRNAs, metabolites) from this study were used to assess the number of coherent functional modules, i.e., biological interactions or network edges, by employing the Prize-Collecting Steiner Forest algorithm on an interaction network compiled from PathwayCommons, miRTarBase and STITCH.

Figure 2. The topological architecture of EMT

(A) Neighbor-joining was applied as a distance metric to reveal the similarities between timepoints, considering all bulk measurements, excluding *mRNA* (see text).

(B) Combined pseudo-eigenvalues space of all datasets, indicating the contribution of each dataset to the eigenvalue (variance).

(C) Matrix correlations between each pair of datasets.

(D) Line plots show the distribution of adjusted coefficient of determination (R^2) values between layers as a function of time points.

(E) *Left panel.* SOM-portraits characterizing expression landscape of the samples. Color gradient refers to over- or under-expression of metagenes (=cluster of genes) in each time-point compared to the mean expression level of the metagene in the pool of all time-points: red = high, yellow/green = intermediate levels and blue = low (see **STAR Methods** for details). *Middle panel*. Representative examples that appeared among the highest-ranking features (top 1%) in each time-point. *Right panel*. Barplot shows the number of features that were contributed by each layer among the highest-ranking features (top 1%) in time-point.

(F) Heatmap depicts sample-wise pathway scores, which were derived from subnetwork-based pathway enrichment analysis using the highest-ranking molecules (top 1%) for each SOM.

Figure 3. Dynamics of TGFβ-induced metabolic adaptations

(A) Barplot showing the 'class' distribution of quantified metabolite features as defined in HMBD. Also shown are the relative proportions of differentially expressed features for each class (*p-value* ≤ 0.01, absolute log2FC ≥ 1).

(B) Neighbor-joining tree for the *Metabol* dataset.

(C) SOM analysis of the *Metabol* dataset.

(D) Top 10% of metabolite features of each SOM were grouped based on clusters in `B` and used for "Network analysis" using MetaboAnalyst (https://www.metaboanalyst.ca).

(E) Identified metabolites of AAM pathway in SOM for 4 hours to day 1 were taken and Pearson's correlation computed with known metabolic enzymes (KEGG) quantified in the *Phos* & *Prot* datasets.

(F) The plot shows enzymes ranked according to their Pearson's correlation with metabolites of AAM pathway, as detected in this study.

(G) Schematics of information flow from TGFβ signaling to AAM pathway, mediated by known enzymes. Heatmaps and line plots display 'standardized' expression values over the time points.

Figure 4. scRNAseq analysis reveals cellular dynamics and novel TFs for EMT

(A) Violin plots showing expression of well-known EMT hallmarks in each time point.

(B) UMAP of scRNAseq by Monocle3. Dots represent single cells and are colored by inferred clusters, while trajectories depict cells during EMT.

(C) Heatmap showing the number of cells (in log2 scale) in each cluster of partition P2. Mean expression of some well-known E and M markers in each cluster are also shown.

(D) The plot shows all TFs ranked according to their SCENIC score. TF names are shown for the 5 TFs with the highest scores and some well-known EMT associated TFs.

(E) Tree displays unique TFs identified by SCENIC for each subtype. TFs highlighted in 'bold' are known players in EMT as of dbEMT2.0. The genes in the outer circle are representative examples used by SCENIC to infer TF activity.

(F) Barplot shows the inferred activities of top 15 TFs based on SCENIC scores in each subtype.

(G) Schematics of the human TF-binding array workflow (see **STAR Methods** for details).

(H) & (I) Density plots of ∂B-scores of indicated TFs. Two-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed to evaluate the significance of distribution differences between Control and TGFβ treated conditions.

Figure 5. Spatial regulation of proteins and intercellular communication

(A) The schematic summarizes correlations based on Pearson's coefficients between the indicated layers. Each pie chart depicts the fraction of differential proteins (orange slice) with respect to all proteins quantified in the layer. The dotted lines indicate correlation of overlapping proteins between layers.

(B) The plot displays top 25 Class I proteins. Each pair is represented by a different shape, as shown.

(C) Expression profiles of top 3 Class I proteins. Each colored line represents a molecular layer, as shown.

761   (D) The plot displays top 25 Class II proteins. Each pair is represented by a different shape, as
762   shown.
763   (E) Expression profiles of top 3 Class II proteins. Each colored line represents a molecular layer,
764   as shown.
765   (F) Expression profiles of BRD2 and BRD4 in various layers, as indicated. Legend as in E
766   (G) Density plots of ∂B-scores of indicated co-factors. Two-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was
767   performed to evaluate the significance of difference in distributions.
768   (H) Phase-contrast images after 6 days of TGFβ treatment in presence or absence of active JQ-1
769   (100 nM) or its inactive analogue.
(I) Expression profile of SCRIB in various layers, as indicated. Legend as in E
(J) PPI network of SCRIB interactors identified using BioID.
(K) Immunoblots showing interactions of a few SCRIB partners identified using BioID.
(L) Schematics of analysis pipeline for discovering active L-R pairs (see **STAR Methods**).
(M)Heatmap showing combined log2FCs of L-R pairs in the *Sec* and *Mem/Glyco* datasets.
(N) Network plot showing L-R interactions detected between different P2 cell clusters.
(O) Scatter plot of correlations between indicated gene-pairs in Breast invasive carcinoma
777   samples. Regression line is shown in red.

778 **Figure 6. Phosphoproteome dynamics during EMT**

779   (A) Fraction of detected p-sites on a protein that are regulated during EMT.
780   (B) Detected p-sites on VIM and their expression during EMT. The gray lines indicate all p-sites
781   that are catalogued in PhosphoSitePlus database.
782   (C) Distribution of Pearson's correlation between expression of proteins and the p-sites detected
783   on them.
784   (D) Schematic showing two examples each where expression of proteins and p-sites showed
785   either low (≤−0.1; CDS2, CBX1) or high (≥0.4; MISP, MICAL3) correlation.
786   (E) Gene ontology enrichment of genes with at least a single regulated p-site at any time point.
787   (F) Distribution of Pearson's correlation between expression of proteins detected in *Nuc* layer
788   and the p-sites detected on them in the *Phos* layer. A few EMT hallmarks are highlighted.
789   (G) Heatmaps of expression profiles of indicated molecules in *Nuc* and *Phos* layers.
790   (H) Structural model of MICAL3 p-sites, NLS and Importin-α.
791   (I) Ternary plot of kinase activity scores binned into 3 broad stages of EMT, i.e., E, ICS, and M.
792   (J) *Top*. Expression of PRKCA as detected in various layers. *Bottom*. Pathway enrichment of all
793   differential substrates of PRKCA detected in our dataset.
794   (K) *Top*. Expression of AURKB as detected in various layers. *Bottom*. Pathway enrichment of all
795   differential substrates of AURKB detected in our dataset.

796 **Figure 7. Integrative systems causal model of EMT**

797   (A) Schematics of network and causal inference workflow. Non-redundant genes with most
798   significant expression (Hotelling's T^2 statistic) profiles were used for the analysis.
799   CausalPath-estimated logical networks were used to augment a custom-built confidence-
800   weighted scaffold interactome which was then used to solve the Steiner forest problem using

the OmicsIntegrator software. Only differential molecules (relative to Control, FDR adj.*p-*
value ≤ 0.05, |log2FC| ≥ 1) were considered as 'prizes'.
(B) A subgraph showing the signaling context of well-known EMT players 'queried' on the EMT
network.
(C) Kaplan-Meier plots comparing prognostic performance of MSigDB hallmarks and
'controllers' identified in this study, as indicated.
(D) Overlap between established EMT databases (as in Figure 1) and the 'controllers' identified
in this study.
(E) Overlap between the EMT databases and the 'non-controllers' identified in this study.
(F) A simplified schematic showing the hierarchical relationships between several bottleneck
genes at different stages of EMT, as indicated.
(G) Workflow for morphometric screening of drug combinations. The tool GENIMASEG is
available here: https://figshare.com/articles/software/GenImaSeg_Tool_zip/14371778
(H) The barplot of results of the above experiment indicates varying degrees of synergy or
antagonism between inhibitors, in influencing EMT-associated changes in cell shape
(eccentricity). Error bars indicate spread of datapoints across all quantified cells in each
condition.

Supplementary figure legends

Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. A multi-dimensional resource on TGFβ-induced EMT

(A) TGFβ treatments were staggered, at defined time periods, such that all plates were harvested
at the same time. Cells were serum starved for 16 hours before harvesting.
(B) Phase-contrast images of MCF10A cells at different time points. Scale bar = 100 μm.
(C) For maximizing efficiency while maintaining compatibility with technology-specific
protocols, after harvesting cells were collected in 4 aliquots per replicate, as shown.
Conditioned media were also collected.
(D) Upper panel – Barplots showing percentage of quantified proteins with annotation in the
'Cellular Component' category. Lower panel – Boxplots showing intensity values (log2) of
proteins (= markers) commonly used to assess sub-cellular fractionation purity. Box edges
correspond to 25th and 75th percentiles, whiskers include extreme data points.
(E) Cumulative distribution (%) of Pearson's coefficients across the samples (= time points).
Significant overlap between the 3 biological replicates, shown as 3 colors, indicates high
reproducibility.
(F) Heatmaps of molecular expression profiles of indicated layers. The mean of all quantified
molecules across the 3 replicates was used.
(G) Violin plots showing the spread of log2FCs of molecules at each time point (relative to
Control) for each layer.

Figure S2. Related to Figure 2. The topological architecture of EMT

(A) PCA of the various molecular layers. Time points are shown with different shapes and
colors. Points with similar shape/color indicate biological replicates.

(B) The population map presents the number of genes mapped to each individual metagene.
(C) The plot summarizes co-variance structure of datasets at the metagene level.
(D) The plot shows correlation of expression patterns of individual genes and the metagenes in
which they are contained.
(E) Temporal expression profiles of a few example genes identified in SOM analysis. Each colored
line represents a molecular layer, as shown.
(F) Temporal expression profiles of a few example genes enlisted as 'EMT hallmarks' in MSigDB
database. Each colored line represents a molecular layer, as shown.
848

Figure S3. Related to Figure 3. Dynamics of TGFβ-induced metabolic adaptations

850   (A) The heatmap displays the results of active subnetwork analysis using differential molecules
851   in *Prot* and *Phos* datasets.
852   (B) – (D) Metabolite-metabolite interaction networks, using MetaboAnalyst, for indicated
853   clusters. High connectivity indicates co-regulation of functionally related metabolites.

Figure S4. Related to Figure 4. scRNAseq analysis reveals cellular dynamics and novel TFs for EMT

(A) An outline of the QC pipeline employed for scRNAseq data analysis.
(B) The plot shows top 25 most expressed genes. Each row corresponds to a gene and each bar
corresponds to the expression of the gene in single cells.
(C) Expression of indicated genes in *mRNA* layer.
(D) Developmental trajectories of MCF10A cells in response to TGFβ, inferred by Monocle3.
Clusters are indicated by colors.
(E) Heatmap showing aggregate expression of groups of genes (=Modules) with similar
expression pattern across the *partitions*, by Monocle3. Modules 9/12 were highly expressed
in P1/P3 and were enriched for 'Cell cycle' related GO annotations.

Figure S5. Related to Figure 5. Spatial regulation of proteins and intercellular communication

(A) The plot shows number of common genes (intersection size, *y* axis) between layers as
indicated. Only differential genes in each layer ('Set size', FDR ≤ 0.05; adj. *p-value* ≤ 0.05; r^2 ≥
0.6 & |log2FC|, relative to Control, of ≥ 1) were considered for the analysis.
(B) Schematics of the BioID experiment performed to discover novel SCRIB partners induced by
TGFβ signaling.
(C) Circos plot showing L-R interactions between the P2 clusters.
(D) UMAP plots of scRNAseq data highlighting the co-expression patterns of MMP7 and CD44.

Figure S6. Related to Figure 6. Phosphoproteome dynamics during EMT

(A) An outline of QC pipeline for *Phos* data analysis.
(B) Enrichment efficiency for TiO_2 workflow employed for the study.
(C) About 74% of all detected p-sites were reliably localized (=Class I) by MaxQuant.
(D) Quantifications of p-sites were achieved with a dynamic range of 10^6 orders of magnitude.
(E) Proportions of number of phosphate moieties in each detected p-site.
(F) Number of phosphoproteins regulated over the time course.

(G) Magnitudes of log2FC values for p-sites over the time course.

(H) The plot shows all kinases ranked according to their KSEA enrichment. Mean of |z-score|

881   values over all time points were taken.

882   **Figure S7. Related to Figure 7. Integrative systems causal model of EMT**

883   (A) A snapshot of the companion website which can be interactively and freely accessed at

884   (https://srphanse.shinyapps.io/EMTAPP_2/).

Figure 1

A Experimental design and premise

MCF10A cells: TGFβ (10 ng/mL)

Control 4 hrs 1 2 3 4 5 6 8 12 days

Epithelial → Intermediate hybrids → Mesenchymal

Epithelial **E**
Hybrid **E/M**
Mesenchymal **M**
Transition points ◉

Protein layers / Metabolites / miRNA / mRNA
Topological relations
Transition kinetics
Molecular landscape Discriminants

B Data acquisition, technologies and platforms

Single-cell RNA sequencing
Barcode cells
Library preparation
ddSeq SC seq
Cells / Genes / Time Points
Data matrices

Bulk Transcriptome, Metabolites & Proteome
mRNA miRNA
Metabolome
WC proteome †
Phosphorylation
Nuclear region
N-Glycosylation *
Membrane
Secretome
Exosome
Peptidome
10-plex (TMT labelling)
Microarray
nLC/Q-Exactive HF-X
basic RP fractionation
Time points / Genes
Data matrix
Ion spectrum

C Datasets (this study, 10 time points)

Proteomics

Component	Peptides	Genes (signif. up/dn) **	PTM sites * (signif. up/dn) **
Whole cell proteome (WC)	552,716	6,540 (403/470)	--
Nuclear region (Nuc)	286,162	4,198 (298/259)	--
Membrane (Mem)	35,870	2,223 (149/131)	--
Peptidome (Pep)	735	202 (31/31)	--
Secretome (Sec)	27,136	1,133 (247/200)	--
Extracellular vesicles (EV)	20,438	1,209 (149/123)	--
Glycosylated proteins (Glyco)	6696	590 (17/26)	--
Phosphorylation (Phos)	149,469	2,254	8,741 (1,536/1,602)
Total unique proteins	--	7,632	--

Transcriptomics

Single cell	Matrix	**Total RNA**	Genes (signif. up/dn)
Number of cells ***	1,913	mRNA	23,787 (2,441/1,993)
mRNA	9,785	mi-RNA	2,574 (178/118)

Metabolomics

	Features (MS1 peaks)	HMDB indexed	KEGG indexed
Features (Level 2) ****	27,759	8,325 (610/468)	1,118 (65/59)

* Unique PTM sites remaining after QC steps; ** relative to `Control`; absolute log2FC ≥ 1, FDR ≤ 0.05, r² ≥ 0.6;
*** Number of cells & genes remaining after QC steps **** Level 2 identifications (Salek et al., 2013)

D MultiOmic profiles of EMT markers

Epithelial markers: CDH13, SCRIB, ABLIM2, MUC1
Mesenchymal markers: CDH2, CALD1, VIM, PDLIM4

EV / Sec / Glyco / Mem / Phos / Acet / Pep / WC / Nuc / mRNA
4 hours / Day 1 / Day 2 / Day 3 / Day 4 / Day 5 / Day 6 / Day 8 / Day 12

log2FC Down — Up

E Variance contribution

Layers: EV, Mem, Metabol, miRNA, mRNA, Nuc, Pep, Phos, Prot, Sec
Variance
PC 1 / PC 2 / PC 3 / PC 4
Principal components (PC)

F Differential molecules over time points

WC / Sec / Phos / Pep / Nuc / mRNA / miRNA / Metabol / Mem / Glyco / EV
4 hours / Day 1 / Day 2 / Day 3 / Day 4 / Day 5 / Day 6 / Day 8 / Day 12

G Differential molecules as % of total detected

Differential / No change

Acet 7% / 93%	EV 23% / 77%	Glyco 8% / 92%	Mem 13% / 87%
Metabol 13% / 87%	miRNA 11% / 89%	mRNA 20% / 80%	Nuc 13% / 87%
Pep 19% / 81%	Phos 36% / 64%	WC 14% / 86%	Sec 40% / 60%

H Comparison to current knowledge

Proteomics:
This study 1,667 / dbEMT2 703 / 213
MSigDB 365 / 126 / 46 / 73

ACTN4, CD82, CDH1, CDH2, CLDN7, CLU, CTNND1, F11R, F3, FN1, FOXO1, IGFBP7, IRF6, ITGB1, ITGB4, JUN, LGALS1, LOX, LOXL2, MMP2, MUC1, NUMB, OCLN, PCDH9, PKP3, PLA2G4A, ROCK1, S100A8, SCEL, SERPINE1, SERPINF1, SKP1, SLC9A3R1, SPARC, TIMP3, TNC

microRNAs:
This study 1,066 / dbEMT2 56 / 93

MIR106B, MIR130A, MIR130A, MIR130B, MIR130B, MIR132, MIR141, MIR141, MIR145, MIR149, MIR149, MIR150, MIR150, MIR15A, MIR17, MIR193A, MIR193A, MIR200A, MIR200A, MIR200B, MIR20A, MIR221, MIR221, MIR222, MIR23B, MIR23B, MIR23B, MIR29C, MIR301A, MIR30A, MIR30B, MIR30D, MIR331, MIR331, MIR345, MIR345, MIR424, MIR452, MIR491, MIR491, MIR506, MIR506, MIR612, MIR675, MIR675

I Enhanced discovery of coherent functional modules

Prize-Collecting Steiner Forest / Number of biological interactions

Day 12, Day 8, Day 6, Day 5, Day 4, Day 3, Day 2, Day 1, 4 hours

WC / Phos / Nuc / Sec / Mem / EV / Pep / Glyco

Current knowledge (MSigDB)

Figure 2

Figure 3

A Metabolite classes

B Neighbor joining

C SOMs (for metabolites)

D Integrative network analysis (SOM metabolites + Differential Prot & Phos)

E Metabolite-Enzyme correlation (AAM; SOM 4 hours & day 1)

F Enzymes ranked by correlation (Pearson's r ≥ 0.7)

G Dynamics of metabolites & enzymes in AAM pathway

Figure 4

A Expression of hallmark transcripts (scRNAseq)

B Differentiation trajectory

Clusters: 3 4 5 6 8 12 13 14 16 17 18 19 20

C Cell dynamics

D Cumulative TF activity across all cell clusters

E Unique TFs for each subtype

F Top 15 enriched TFs in each subtype

G Schematic of human TF–binding array

H δB–score distributions

I δB–score distributions

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1. Related to Figure 1

A Treatment scheme

B Morphological changes over time points

C 10 time points. Biological triplicates

D Enrichment performance

E Quantitative accuracy across replicates

F Expression profiles (scaled)

G Magnitudes of differential expression

Figure S2. Related to Figure 2

Figure S3. Related to Figure 3

A

GeneSet enrichment of metabolic pathways
using active subnetworks

B

Metabolite-metabolite interaction network
of metabolites identified in SOM for **4 hours to day 1**

C

Metabolite-metabolite interaction network
of metabolites identified in SOM for **day 2 to day 4**

D

Metabolite-metabolite interaction network
of metabolites identified in SOM for **day 5 to day 12**

Figure S4. Related to Figure 4

A scRNAseq QC pipeline

C Bulk mRNA expression

B Top 25 expressing genes

Distribution of expression across cells

D Differentiation trajectory

E Module and pathway enrichment of the partitions

Figure S5. Related to Figure 5

A

Overlap between various molecular layers

B

BioID of SCRIB

C

L–R crosstalk between cell clusters

D

Expression in scRNAseq dataset

Figure S6. Related to Figure 6

A
Total detected
11,215

Poetntial contaminant
Reverse hits
Missing values
Localization prob < 0.75
8741

B Enrichment efficiency

Phosphopeptides –77%

All other peptides
–23%

C Phosphosite localization probability

Class I sites –74%

Other sites
–26%

D Dynamic range

Dynamic range ~10^6

99.33%

% sites covered

Phosphosite intensity (Log2)

E Freq of pSTY per PSM

76812
56274
5712
209
1

Number of PSMs

Number of pSTY per PSM
(All samples)

F Regulated proteins

Up

Down

No. of proteins

4 hour
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
Day 6
Day 8
Day 12

G FC values

Log2 FC

4 hour
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
Day 6
Day 8
Day 12

H Kinase activity

Mean of KSEA scores across all time points

Ranked kinases