CRACD loss promotes small cell lung cancer tumorigenesis via EZH2-mediated immune evasion

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Keywords: CRACD, CRAD, KIAA1211, small cell lung cancer, immune evasion, EZH2, PRC2, immunotherapy

Competing Interest Statement: The authors declare that they have no conflict of competing interests.

Abstract

The mechanisms underlying immune evasion and immunotherapy resistance in small cell lung cancer (SCLC) remain unclear. Herein, we investigate the role of CRACD tumor suppressor in SCLC. We found that CRACD is frequently inactivated in SCLC, and *Cracd* knockout (KO) significantly accelerates SCLC development driven by loss of *Rb1*, *Trp53*, and *Rbl2*. Notably, the Cracd-deficient SCLC tumors display CD8+ T cell depletion and suppression of antigen presentation pathway. Mechanistically, CRACD loss silences the MHC-I pathway through EZH2. EZH2 blockade is sufficient to restore the MHC-I pathway and inhibit CRACD loss-associated SCLC tumorigenesis. Unsupervised single-cell transcriptomic analysis identifies SCLC patient tumors with concomitant inactivation of CRACD, impairment of tumor antigen presentation, and downregulation of EZH2 target genes. Our findings define CRACD loss as a new molecular signature associated with immune evasion of SCLC cells and proposed EZH2 blockade as a viable option for CRACD-negative SCLC treatment.

Introduction

SCLC accounts for 13% of all lung cancers, and remains a particularly lethal disease, with a 5-year survival rate of 7%. It is estimated to cause approximately 30,000 patient deaths annually in the United States (1, 2). Major contributing factors to the high mortality rate of SCLC patients include the high prevalence of metastasis at the time of diagnosis, which limits therapeutic options, and nearly universal disease relapse associated with resistance to further therapies (3, 4). Notably, immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) approaches designed to target tumors expressing neoantigens are effective in only ~13% of patients with SCLC—a small subset, given that the high mutation burden of SCLC tumors should be sufficient to trigger a robust immune response from cytotoxic T lymphocytes (5-7).

While it remains unclear what underlies the refractoriness of SCLC to ICB and how to stratify patient tumors by the degree of response to ICB, recent studies have explored emerging molecular subtypes of SCLC tumors, classified based on the actions of key lineage transcription factors (ASCL1, NEUROD1, and POU2F3) and inflammation (8-11). However, the current classification system has not been robust enough to reliably predict immunotherapy response. Therefore, understanding how SCLC cells evade immune surveillance and become resistant to immunotherapy is imperative to improve the durability of ICB in responding patients, and to inform strategies to increase the fraction of patients benefitting from ICB.

We recently discovered a tumor suppressor gene called *CRACD* (Capping protein inhibiting regulator of actin dynamics, *CRAD/KIAA1211*) (12). CRACD is ubiquitously expressed in epithelial cells and binds to and inhibits capping proteins (CAPZA and CAPZB), which are negative regulators of actin polymerization (12). CRACD promotes actin polymerization, which is crucial for maintaining the cadherin-catenin-actin complex of epithelial cells. *CRACD* is recurrently mutated or transcriptionally downregulated in cancer cells, which results in reduction of

filamentous actin (F-actin) and disruption of the cadherin-catenin-actin complex (12). These alterations cause loss of epithelial cell integrity and decrease the cytoplasm-to-nucleus volume ratio; cells become "small". A pathological consequence of these alterations is evident in the intestine, where CRACD inactivation hyperactivates WNT signaling via β-catenin release from the cadherin-catenin-actin complex and accelerates intestinal tumorigenesis (12).

CRACD is also frequently inactivated in SCLC, which led us to hypothesize that CRACD is a tumor suppressor restricting SCLC tumorigenesis. To test the hypothesis, we interrogated the impact of CRACD loss on SCLC development using preneoplastic cells and genetically engineered mouse models (GEMMs) and through immune cell profiling and single-cell transcriptomic analysis of human SCLC tumors. Our findings nominate CRACD as a new tumor suppressor of SCLC and implicate CRACD loss as a new molecular signature relevant to SCLC immune evasion.

Results

CRACD inactivation in the SCLC subtype

CRACD is mutated in 11-16% of SCLC patient tumors and SCLC cell lines, ranking in frequency after *RB1* and *TP53* but more frequently than *RBL2*, *CREBBP,* and *EP300* among validated tumor suppressor genes (Fig. 1A-C, fig. S1)(12-16). CRACD expression was also lower in SCLC tumors than in healthy lung tissue samples (Fig. 1D).

We also examined scRNA-seq datasets of 19 SCLC patient tumor samples and 8 normal human lung samples from previous studies (10, 17) (Fig. 1E, Table S1, S2). A pair-wise correlation analysis showed that SCLC tumor datasets could be divided into two major groups (SC1- and SC2-types) (Fig. 1F). The SC1-type SCLC tumors were clinically associated with recurrence (2 of 3) and metastasis (1 of 3), whereas the SC2-type tumors were mainly associated with primary tumors (6 of 16) and metastases (7 of 16) (Fig. 1G). A copy number variation analysis showed higher genomic instability in the SC2-type than in the SC1-type tumors (Fig. 1H, I). According to the ANPY classification (9), the SC1-type was mainly categorized as ASCL1-type (Fig. 1J). Intriguingly, *CRACD* expression was notably downregulated in the SC1-type compared to the SC2 (Fig. 1K). These results suggest that CRACD inactivation occurs in a specific subtype of SCLC patient tumor cells.

CRACD inactivation accelerates SCLC tumorigenesis

Having observed the CRACD inactivation in SCLC, we hypothesized that CRACD loss-of-function plays a role in SCLC tumorigenesis. To test this hypothesis, we first determined whether *Cracd* knockout (KO) promotes the transformation of preneoplastic precursor cells of SCLC (preSCs). The preSCs were derived from early-stage neuroendocrine (NE) lesions developed in an *Rb1/Trp53*-mutant mouse model of

SCLC and upon an oncogenic event, such as *L-Myc* amplification or *Crebbp/Ep300* loss progress to an invasive and fully malignant tumor (13, 18, 19). Utilizing the CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing strategy to generate *Cracd* KO mice as previously described (12), we targeted exon 2 of *Cracd* in preSCs (fig. S2). *Cracd* KO preSCs readily transformed into aggregates and spheres that are typical of SCLC cells in culture and formed subcutaneous tumors in an allograft model significantly faster than did control preSCs (Fig. 2A-E). We also utilized a GEMM in which $Rb1^{fl/fl}$, $Trp53^{fl/fl}$, and $Rbl2^{fl/fl}$ alleles (RPR2) were conditionally deleted on the background of *Cracd* wild-type (WT) alleles or germline *Cracd* KO (*Cracd*, *Rb1*, *Trp53*, and *Rbl2* quadruple KO [CRPR2]) (20, 21). CRPR2 mice showed marked increases in tumor burden and number and mitotic index of SCLC tumors compared to those of RPR2 mice (Fig. 2F-K), indicating that *Cracd* KO accelerates SCLC tumor development *in vivo*. These results strongly suggest that CRACD plays a tumor suppressor role in SCLC development.

Cracd KO increases tumor cell phenotypic diversity

To explore the mechanisms by which CRACD loss accelerates SCLC tumorigenesis, we performed single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) of SCLC tumors isolated from the lung tissues of RPR2 and CRPR2 mice (fig. S3A). Two datasets (RPR2 and CRPR2) were integrated and annotated for each cell type (Fig. 3A, B, S3). Epithelial tumor cell clusters were selected for further unsupervised sub-clustering (Fig. 3B, Table S3). While 13 different cell clusters (clusters 2 and 4-15) were found in RPR2 tumors, 15 types of cell clusters (clusters 1-15) were identified in CRPR2 tumors (Fig. 3C). Overall, clusters 4-15 showed relatively higher expression of NE markers (*Ascl1*, *Calca*, and *Chga*) than clusters 1-3. Clusters 8-10 and 12 were enriched with cell proliferation markers (*Pcna*, *Pclaf*, and *Mki67*) (Fig. 3C). Relative to RPR2 tumors, CRPR2 tumors showed an increased ratio of cell clusters 4, 6, and 7. Conversely, cluster 8 was markedly reduced in CRPR2 tumors. In addition, three cell clusters (1, 3, and 14) were almost exclusively observed in CRPR2 tumors (Fig. 3C, D).

Since *Cracd* KO affects the diversity of cell phenotypes seen in CRPR2 tumors, we explored whether it might affect tumor cell plasticity by inferring cell lineage trajectories using the RNA velocity algorithm (22). The analysis using the scVelo package (22) failed to identify significant differences in cell lineage trajectories between RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors (fig. S4A). However, a computational method that predicts cell fate transitions based on differential geometry using the Dynamo algorithm (23) suggested that CRPR2 tumors exhibited a more complex pattern of cell lineage trajectories than did RPR2 tumors (fig. S4B, Movie S1). Partition-based graph abstraction analysis further supported that CRACD loss increased phenotypic cell diversity (fig. S4C). We next assessed the effect of *Cracd* KO on cell de-differentiation using the CytoTRACE algorithm, which infers cell state (differentiation vs. de-differentiation) (24). Most cell clusters of CRPR2 tumors showed relatively higher cell de-differentiation potential, i.e., less differentiation than did those of RPR2 tumors (Fig. 3E, F). The scRNA-seq analysis from the allograft tumors derived from *Cracd* WT and KO preSCs also predicted that *Cracd* KO altered cell lineage trajectories (fig. S5, S6, Table S4, Movie S1).

To understand how CRACD loss enhances tumor cell diversity, we identified key transcriptional circuits activated in cell clusters of CRPR2. A comparative geneset enrichment assay (GSEA) showed that compared to RPR2, the genesets of distinct cell clusters of CRPR2 were associated with activation of the epithelial-mesenchymal transition, hypoxia, MYC, and E2F pathways (Fig. 3G, H, fig. S7). It is noteworthy that the cell clusters 1 and 2 in CRPR2 tumors were enriched with the SCLC genesets (fig. S7), reiterating the relevance of CRACD inactivation to human SCLC. Recent studies classified SCLC into four major subtypes (*ASCL1*, *NEUROD1*, *POU2F3*, and *YAP1*) (9, 11). Compared to RPR2, *Cracd* KO tumors (CRPR2) were enriched in *Ascl1* and *Calca* expression, resembling the transcriptional signature of the ASCL1-subtype of SCLC (Fig. 3I).

Depletion of CD8+ T cells in *Cracd* KO SCLC tumor

Given that immune cells play crucial roles in tumorigenesis by creating a tumor-favorable environment or killing tumor cells (25, 26), we next examined the impact of CRACD loss on the tumor microenvironment. Using scRNA-seq, we profiled immune cells in RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors that developed in the GEMMs (Fig. 4A-C, fig. S8). CRPR2 tumors harbored strikingly fewer CD8$^+$ T cells (6.86% [170 of 2477 cells]) than did RPR2 tumors (65.06% [3484 of 5355 cells]) while showing a slightly higher ratio of naïve T cells to total cell numbers (26.52% [657 of 2477 cells] versus 20.24% [1084 of 5355 cells]) (Fig. 4C-E), which was also confirmed by immunostaining for CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. 4F, G). Of note, the number of whole T cells and apoptotic cells remained similar between RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors (fig. S9). In addition, the expression of T cell exhaustion markers (*Pd-1* and *Pd-l1/2*) was not affected by *Cracd* KO in CRPR2 tumors compared to in RPR2 tumors (fig. S10A, B). Moreover, compared to RPR2 tumors, CRPR2 tumors displayed a higher number of monocytes (Fig. 4C, D). Given that myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) inhibit T cell activation and proliferation (27, 28), we also examined the impact of CRACD loss on MDSCs. Compared to RPR2, CRPR2 tumors showed an upregulation of MDSC marker gene expression in myeloid cells (Fig. 4H, fig. S10C). Consistent with the results from the autochthonous model, scRNA-seq-based immune profiling of preSC-derived allograft tumors also displayed a decrease in CD8$^+$ T cells and an increase in myeloid cells in *Cracd* KO allograft tumors relative to *Cracd* WT tumors (fig. S11, S12). These results suggest that CRACD loss induces immune landscape remodeling, which is most notable for marked CD8$^+$ T cell loss.

Silencing of the MHC-I pathway in *Cracd* KO SCLC

The altered landscape of immune cells in *Cracd* KO SCLC tumors (Fig. 4) compelled us to determine the underlying mechanism of CD8$^+$ T cell loss. We examined the inferred intercellular communication networks between immune cells and SCLC tumor cells (RPR2 vs. CRPR2) using a CellChat package (29). Overall, CRPR2 tumors showed fewer and weaker cellular interactions among different cell types than RPR2 tumors

(Fig. 5A). In the information flow maps, CRPR2 tumors displayed upregulated putative signaling pathways mainly between tumor cells and B and myeloid cells, compared to RPR2 tumors (Fig. 5B). Notably, the antigen processing and presentation–related pathways were significantly downregulated in CRPR2 tumors relative to in RPR2 tumors mostly between SCLC tumor and CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. 5B). The information flow predicted by CellChat nominated differentially regulated pathways between RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors (Fig. 5C). According to the absolute values and fold changes of information flow, the most downregulated pathway in CRPR2 was the MHC-I pathway (Fig. 5C, fig. S13). The circle plots validated that the MHC-I pathway was barely detected in CRPR2 tumors but was prevalent in RPR2 tumors (Fig. 5D). Moreover, the GSEA confirmed the marked downregulation of the gene sets associated with the antigen processing and presentation, MHC-I pathway, and T cell receptor signaling (Fig. 5E, fig. S14). Since CRPR2 tumors displayed depleted CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. 4), it is plausible that the impaired MHC-I pathway fails to activate CD8$^+$ T cells. We examined the expression of the MHC-I pathway–related genes. In line with the CellChat results, i.e., loss of the MHC-I pathway, the genes (*H2-Q1/2/4* and *H2-T3*) encoding the α chain of the mouse MHC-I complex were downregulated in CRPR2 tumors compared to RPR2 tumors (Fig. 5F). These data indicate that *Cracd* KO impairs antigen presentation by silencing the MHC-I pathway.

EZH2-mediated suppression of the MHC-I pathway in CRACD inactivation-associated SCLC

Accumulating evidence suggests that the suppression of antigen processing and presentation is one of the immune evasion mechanisms of cancer cells (30-32). Recent studies showed that the MHC-I pathway is modulated by EZH2 (33-37). Intriguingly, GSEA of differentially expressed genes (DEGs; CRPR2 vs. RPR2) showed the association of the CRPR2 gene signatures with the genesets modulated by EZH2 and the polycomb repressive complex 2 (PRC2) (Fig. 6A). As the catalytic subunit of PRC2, EZH2 induces di- or tri-methylation of histone H3 (H3K27me2/3), repressing

transcriptional activation. Since EZH2 was shown to promote SCLC (38), these data led us to examine the role of EZH2 in suppressing the MHC-I pathway by CRACD loss. Immunofluorescent staining and immunoblot-based quantification showed that compared to RPR2 tumors, CRPR2 tumors exhibited increased H3K27me2/3, histone marks for gene repression while reduced H3K27ac, a histone marker for gene activation (Fig. 6B-D). GSK343, an EZH2 inhibitor, de-repressed the expression of *H2-Q1/2/4* and *H2-T3* in the murine SCLC cell line derived from CRPR2 tumors (Fig. 6E). Similarly, the human SCLC cell line (NCI-H2081) that carries a frame-shift mutation in *CRACD* (Q168Tfs*17) showed upregulation of *HLA-A/B/C* transcription by EZH2 inhibition (Fig. 6F). These results suggest that CRACD loss suppresses the MHC-I pathway via EZH2-mediated epigenetic repression. Next, we tested whether EZH2 inhibition suppresses CRACD-inactivated SCLC tumorigenesis in vivo. Under an EZH2 inhibitor (GSK343) treatment, RPR2 and CRPR2 cells did not show a difference in cell growth in vitro (Fig. 6G). However, compared to RPR2, EZH2 inhibition (GSK343) markedly suppressed CRPR2 tumorigenesis in allograft models (Fig. 6H). Not surprisingly, immunostaining for CD8$^+$ T cells showed increased CD8$^+$ T cells infiltrations in tumor niche (Fig. 6I). Moreover, total T cell number also increased in EZH2 inhibited tumors (Fig. 6J). These results implied that EZH2 inhibition may derepress CD8$^+$ T cells infiltrations induced by CRACD KO in allograft models.

To determine the relevance of the findings in *Cracd KO* SCLC in mice to human disease, we re-analyzed scRNA-seq datasets of SCLC patient tumors. Based on the marked downregulation of *CRACD* in the SC1-type (Fig. 1), we determined whether SC1-type SCLC patient tumors recapitulate the distinct features of CRPR2. The SC1-type tumors expressed relatively lower levels of the genes encoding MHC-I and several of the antigen processing and presentation pathway components (*HLA-A*, *B*, *C*, *E*, *LMP2/LMP7*, and *TAP1/2*), EZH2 target genes, and PRC2 target genes compared to the SC2-type tumors (Fig. 6K, L), also confirmed by the GSEA results (Fig. 6M). Additionally, we observed the correlated transcriptional expression between *HLA-A/E* and *CRACD* in SCLC (Fig. 6N). Mechanical pulling force driven by the actin

cytoskeleton is required for NOTCH signaling activation (39, 40). NOTCH signaling antagonizes PRC2-mediated gene repression (41, 42). Indeed, NOTCH signaling module score was relatively lower in the SC1-type where CRACD and the MHC-I pathway were downregulated, compared to SC2 (fig. S15).

We also sought molecular signatures specifying the SC1/2. The SC1-type tumors were enriched with the expression of *AGR2* (anterior gradient 2), *CEACAM6* (carcinoembryonic antigen–related cell adhesion molecule 6), *GPRC5A* (G protein-coupled receptor class C group 5 member A), and *LGALS3* (lectin, galactoside-binding, soluble 3) genes. Exclusively, the SC2-type tumors showed the upregulation of *BAZ1A*, *TMSB15A*, *HTATSF1*, and *KIF1A* (Fig. 6O). Of note, four genes (*AGR2*, *CEACAM6*, *GPCR5A*, and *LGALS3*) mainly expressed in the SC1-type are associated with poor prognosis in several solid cancers (43-46). Together, these results strongly suggest that CRACD inactivation suppresses the MHC-I pathway via EZH2.

Discussion

In this study, we report that genetic ablation of *Cracd* accelerates SCLC tumorigenesis and enhances tumor cell diversity in both allograft and autochthonous models that harbor deletions of *Rb1*, *Trp53*, and *Rbl2* alleles. Moreover, *Cracd* depletion results in a significant reduction of CD8+ T cells within the tumor microenvironment, which is driven by EZH2-mediated inhibition of the MHC-I pathway in tumor cells. Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of human SCLC validates the co-occurrence of CRACD inactivation, MHC-I pathway downregulation, and reduced expression of EZH2/PRC2 target genes. Defining the temporal specificity of a tumor suppressor throughout the course of tumor development is pivotal to understanding SCLC pathogenesis. Using the SCLC GEMM, which provides a window into early- and late-stage tumor development, our study elucidates a tumor suppressive role for CRACD in SCLC progression and immune evasion. These findings provide novel insights into SCLC tumorigenesis and establish a new SCLC mouse model lacking T cell-based immune surveillance.

ICB-based immunotherapy is a promising approach for cancer therapy (47-50). But, it is challenged by primary and acquired therapy resistance (51-53). The determinants of durable therapeutic benefit from ICB in patients with SCLC are not well understood, and identifying these determinants could inform strategies to overcome therapeutic resistance and personalize SCLC therapy. The animal models of *Cracd* KO SCLC and transcriptomic analysis of murine and human tumors suggest that loss of CRACD is associated with inactivation of MHC-I expression in tumor cells. This cell-intrinsic change may render tumor cells evasive to CD8+ cytotoxic T cells and result in the loss of T cells in the tumor microenvironment, also known as "cold tumors" (54).

Single-cell transcriptomic analysis defined an SC1-type of human SCLC characterized by inactive CRACD, EZH2-mediated gene repression, and a suppressed

MHC-I pathway, distinct from the SC2-type with active CRACD and a functional MHC-I pathway. Given the MHC-I pathway suppression in the SC1-type, it is likely that SC1-type patients may not exhibit a favorable response to T cell-based ICB (i.e., non-responders). Restoring the MHC-I pathway in such tumors, for example, by EZH2 inhibition, may be a strategy to reverse the immune-cold phenotype typical of human SCLC. Targeting other vital epigenetic regulators, notably the lysine demethylase LSD1, has also been shown to restore the MHC-I pathway and sensitize SCLC to ICB (55, 56). Whether MHC-I expression in SC1-type tumors can be restored by LSD1 inhibition remains to be determined. This study introduces a new approach to stratify SCLC patients based on CRACD inactivation, defining a potential predictive molecular signature for the effectiveness of T cell-based ICB such as anti-PD-1 and CTLA-4 immunotherapies.

The broad transcriptional impact of CRACD inactivation is intriguing, given the known role of the capping protein in regulating actin dynamics. In transforming intestinal epithelial cells and colon cancer cells, the loss of CRACD results in β-catenin release from the cadherin-catenin-actin complex, which then activates a β-catenin-mediated oncogenic transcription program (12). However, it is unlikely that this CRACD/β-catenin axis explains an enhancement of SCLC tumorigenesis, as we recently demonstrated that the β-catenin pathway is dispensable for SCLC tumor development (57).

Although the molecular mechanisms by which loss of CRACD influences transcription remain to be determined, one mechanism may relate to its role in regulating the NOTCH signaling. Mechanical pulling force driven by the actin cytoskeleton is necessary for activation of NOTCH signaling through receptor endocytosis, ligand-receptor binding, and NOTCH cleavage (39, 40, 58). Moreover, NOTCH signaling antagonizes EZH2-mediated gene repression (41, 42). Thus, it is plausible that CRACD inactivation inhibits NOTCH signaling, which subsequently induces EZH2-mediated gene silencing of the MHC-I pathway for SCLC's immune

evasion. In line with this, the SC1-type where CRACD is downregulated and T cells are depleted exhibits relatively lower module scores for NOTCH signaling and the MHC-I pathways (Fig. 6I, fig. S15). Moreover, *Cracd* KO SCLC mouse tumors (CRPR2) showed the MHCI-1 pathway downregulation with T cell depletion (Fig. 4, 5). The detailed molecular mechanisms by which CRACD inactivation aberrantly controls the transcription of genes related to oncogenic trajectories and the MHC-I pathway remain to be determined in future studies.

Collectively, our integrative approaches identify CRACD as a tumor suppressor of SCLC and demonstrate that CRACD inactivation in SCLC is correlated with inhibition of the antigen presentation pathway and a marked reduction in T cell infiltration. This study provides novel insight into the mechanisms of SCLC development and immune evasion.

Author Contributions

S.Z., K.-B.K., Y.H., K.-S.P., and J.-I.P. conceived and designed the experiments. S.Z., K.-B.K., Y.H., D.-W.K., B.K., Y.H.B., N.A.K., Y.E.H., G.Z., J.Z., and S.J. performed the experiments. S.Z., K.-B.K., Y.H., J.M.C., C.M.R., K.-S.P., and J.-I.P. analyzed the data. J.M.C. and C.M.R. provided the sequencing files and technical support for scRNA-seq analyses. S.Z., K.-S.P., and J.-I.P. wrote the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Pierre D. McCrea, Malgorzata Kloc, Rachael Miller, and Adriana Paulucci for their insightful comments and to Ann Sutton (Research Medical Library, MD Anderson) for editing the manuscript. This work was supported by the Cancer Prevention and Research Institute of Texas (RP210028 to G.Z., RP200315 to J.-I.P.), the National Cancer Institute (R35 CA263816 to C.M.R.; U01 CA224293 to K.-S.P.; R01 CA193297 and R03 CA256207 to J.-I.P.), and an Institutional Research Grant (MD Anderson to J.-I.P.). The core facilities at MD Anderson (DNA Sequencing and Genetically Engineered Mouse Facility) were supported by National Cancer Institute Cancer Center Support Grant (P30 CA016672). The Research Histology Core at the University of Virginia was supported by National Cancer Institute Cancer Center Support Grant (P30 CA044579). The core facilities at Baylor College of Medicine (Cytometry & Cell Sorting Core and Single Cell Genomics Core) were supported by CPRIT (RP180672, RP200504) and the National Institutes of Health (CA125123, RR024574).

Materials and methods

Mammalian cell culture

Human embryonic kidney 293T (HEK293T) and NCI-H2081 used in this study were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). The murine preSC cells have been previously described (18, 59). HEK293T and preSC cells were maintained in a Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 1% penicillin and streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). NCI-H2081 was maintained in DMEM: F-12 medium (5% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 0.005 mg/mL Insulin, 0.01mg/mL Transferrin, 30 mmol/L Sodium selenite, 10 mmol/L Hydrocortisone, 10 mmol/L β-estradiol, 2 mM L-glutamine). Cells were cultured at 37°C in a humidified incubator supplied with 5% CO_2 air. Mycoplasma contamination was examined using the MycoAlert mycoplasma detection kit (Lonza). See SI Appendix, Table S1 for reagent information.

CRISPR/Cas9-based gene knockout

CRISPR/Cas9 mediated *Cracd* KO in preSC cells was performed according to Zhang laboratory's protocol (60). Control sgRNA sequence target EGFP: 5'-GGGCG AGGAG CTGTT CACCG-3'; sgRNA sequence target *Cracd*: 5'-ACACA CGGCC ATTTT GGTCA-3'. sgRNA sequence is based on our previous study (12).

Virus production and transduction

HEK293T cells in a 10-cm dish were co-transfected with 5 µg of constructs, 5 µg of plasmid Δ8.2 (Plasmid #8455, Addgene), and 3 µg of plasmid VSVG (Plasmid #8454, Addgene). Cells were incubated at 37°C, and the medium was replaced after 12 h. Virus-containing medium was collected 48 h after transfection and supplemented with 8 µg/mL polybrene to infect target cells in 6-well dishes. After 6 h, the medium was changed. After 48 h, the infected cells were selected with 2 µg/mL puromycin.

qRT-PCR

RNAs were extracted by TRIzol (Invitrogen) and used to synthesize cDNAs using the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Biorad). qRT-PCR was performed using an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR machine with the primers listed in SI Appendix, Table S4. Target gene expression was normalized to that of mouse *Hprt1* and human *HPRT1*. Comparative $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ methods were used to quantify qRT-PCR results. See SI Appendix, Table S4 for primers information.

Cell proliferation and viability assays

We counted the number of cells using a hematocytometer (Bio-Rad) on growth days according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cell proliferation was determined by crystal violet staining or Cell Counting Kit-8 (Dojindo Laboratories) according to the manufacturer's protocol. For crystal violet staining, plates were rinsed with Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde solution for 20 min, and stained

 with crystal violet solution (0.1% crystal violet, 10% methanol) for 20 min, followed by rinsing with tap water.

Immunoblotting

Whole-cell lysates of cells were prepared using radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer with protease inhibitors for 30 min at 4°C, followed by centrifugation (4°C, 13,200 r/min for 15 min). Supernatants were denatured in 5 × Sodium dodecyl-sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (200 mmol/L Tris-HCl [pH 6.8], 40% glycerol, 8% SDS, 200 mmol/L dithiothreitol, and 0.08% bromophenol blue) at 95°C for 5 min, followed by Sodium dodecyl-sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). We used 2% non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline and Tween-20 (25 mmol/L Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 125 mmol/L NaCl, and 0.5% Tween-20) for immunoblot blocking and antibody incubation. SuperSignal West Pico and Femto reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were used to detect horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies. Detailed information on the antibodies is shown in SI Appendix, Table S1.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

Cells were fixed for 20 min in 4% paraformaldehyde and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 (in PBS) for 10 min. After three PBS washes, cells were blocked with 2% bovine serum albumin (BSA) for 30 min at ambient temperature. Cells were then incubated with antibodies diluted in 2% BSA at 4°C overnight. After three PBS washes, the cells were incubated with 1 µg/mL Alexa Fluor 488/647-conjugated secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) by shaking at ambient temperature in the dark for 1 h. Cells were washed three times with PBS in the dark and mounted in Prolong Gold Antifade Reagent (Invitrogen). Immunofluorescent staining was observed and analyzed using confocal or fluorescent microscopes (Zeiss) and ZEN software (Zeiss).

Animals

Immunocompromised (BALB/c athymic nude) mice and C57BL/6 mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (Maine, USA). Compound transgenic mice $Rb1^{lox/lox}$ $Trp53^{lox/lox}$ $Rbl2^{lox/lox}$ (RPR2) mice have been previously described (59). For SCLC tumor induction, the lungs of 10-week-old mice were infected with adenoviral Cre via intratracheal instillation as previously described (59, 61). Multiple cohorts of independent litters were analyzed to control for background effects, and both male and female mice were used. Ad-Cracd-Cre particles were produced in Vector Development Laboratory at Baylor College of Medicine. Mice were euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation followed by cervical dislocation at the indicated time. Tumors were harvested from euthanized mice, fixed with 10% formalin, embedded in paraffin, and sectioned at 5-µm thickness. The sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin for histological analysis. All mice were maintained in compliance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center and the University of Virginia School of Medicine. All animal procedures were performed based on the guidelines of the Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care and institutional (MD

Anderson and the University of Virginia) approved protocols. This study was compliant with all relevant ethical regulations regarding animal research.

Allograft assay

C57BL/6 mice (4 months old) were purchased from the Institutional Veterinary Medicine and Surgery Facility (MD Anderson Cancer Center). Each mouse (n = 6) was subcutaneously injected with 1×10^6 cells into both flanks. 3 mice were injected with *Cracd* WT cells, the other 3 mice were injected with *Cracd* KO cells. Mice were maintained in the Division of Laboratory Animal Resources facility at MD Anderson. Tumor volume was monitored and calculated by measuring with calipers every 3-4 days (volume = [length × width^2] / 2). Tumor burden was calculated by measuring all tumor lesions within the lung to account for the complete tumor burden. Twenty days after transplantation, mice were euthanized, tumors were photographed, and collected to proceed paraffin-embedding for immunostaining or for single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq).

Mouse lung tumor and allograft tumor preparation

Prior to processing, mouse SCLC and allograft tumors were decontaminated under the dissecting microscope by removing any normal and connective tissues. Then, tumors were transferred to a dry dish and minced into pieces with blades. The tissue was digested in Leibovitz's medium (Invitrogen) with 2 mg/mL Collagenase Type I (Worthington), 2 mg/mL Elastase (Worthington), and 2 mg/mL DNase I (Worthington) at 37 °C for 45 min. The tissue was triturated with a pipet every 15 min of digestion until homogenous. The digestion was stopped with FBS (Invitrogen) to a final concentration of 20%. The cells were filtered with a 70 µm cell strainer (Falcon) and spun down at 5,000 r/min for 1 min. The cell pellet was resuspended in red blood cell lysing buffer (Sigma) for 3 min, spun down at 5,000 r/min for 1 min, and washed with 1 mL ice-cold Leibovitz's medium with 10% FBS. Cells were resuspended in 1 mL ice-cold Leibovitz's medium with 10% FBS and filtered with a cell strainer (20 µm). Dead cells were removed with Dead Cell Removal Kit (Miltenyi Biotec) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Live cells were collected for 10× Genomics library preparation.

scRNA-seq library prep

Single-cell Gene Expression Library was prepared according to the guideline for the Chromium Single Cell Gene Expression 3v3.1 kit (10× Genomics). Briefly, single cells, reverse transcription (RT) reagents, Gel Beads containing barcoded oligonucleotides, and oil were loaded on a Chromium controller (10× Genomics) to generate single-cell GEMS (Gel Beads-In-Emulsions), where full-length cDNA was synthesized and barcoded for each single cell. Subsequently, the GEMS were broken and cDNAs from each single cell were pooled, followed by cleanup using Dynabeads MyOne Silane Beads and cDNA amplification by PCR. The amplified product was then fragmented to optimal size before end-repair, A-tailing, and adaptor ligation. The final library was generated by amplification. The library was performed at the Single Cell Genomics Core at BCM.

scRNA-seq - raw data processing, clustering, and annotation

The Cell Ranger was used for demultiplexing, barcoded processing, and gene counting. The R package Seurat(62) and Python package Scanpy(63) were used for pre-processing and clustering of scRNA-seq data. UMAP was used for dimensional reduction, and cells were clustered in Seurat or Scanpy. Each cluster was annotated based on marker gene information (see SI Appendix, Table S3, S5, the list of marker genes of each cell cluster). Datasets were pre-processed, normalized separately, and annotated based on their marker gene expression. Scanpy was used for human dataset preprocessing and integration. Each dataset was normalized separately and clustered by the "Leiden" algorithm (64). Scanpy was used to concatenate the *Cracd* WT vs. KO dataset and preSC Cracd WT vs. KO samples. Cells with less than 100 genes expressed and more than 20% mitochondrial reads were removed. Genes expressed in less than 20 cells were removed. Gene expression for each cell was normalized and log-transformed. The percentages of mitochondrial reads were regressed before scaling the data. Dimensionality reduction and Leiden clustering (resolution 0.5 ~ 1) was carried out, and cell lineages were annotated based on algorithmically defined marker gene expression for each cluster (sc.tl.rank_genes_groups, method='wilcoxon'). The list of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in *CRPR2 and preSC Cracd KO* was generated by comparing KO vs. WT (sc.tl.rank_genes_groups, groups=['KO'], reference='WT', method='wilcoxon'). More information about the software and algorithms used in this study is shown in SI Appendix, Table S6.

Cell lineage trajectory analysis

RNA velocity(65) was used to predict the future state of individual cells and cell lineage tracing. Cells were filtered, and dimensional reduction was performed following the default parameters using the scVelo and Scanpy packages. RNA velocity was calculated through dynamical model and negbin model, and cells were clustered using the "Leiden" algorithm. RNA velocity for all datasets was performed with the same parameters (n_neighbors=10, n_pcs=40). Velocity streams were analyzed and plotted by scVelo (dynamical model) (22) and Dynamo (negbin model) (23). Velocity pseudotime analysis was done and plotted with the scVelo package (22) to show the cell state (differentiation vs. de-differentiation) of each cell. PAGA(66) analysis was performed and visualized with scVelo package to predict developmental trajectories and explores the connectivity between different cell clusters.

Proportion difference analysis

Differences in clusters from the two datasets were analyzed and plotted using the pandas package (67). Each cell cluster from the integrated dataset was grouped and cluster differences between the two datasets were compared.

Gene set enrichment analysis (GESA)

GSEA was done using the R package "fgsea" (68) based on the DEG list generated by Scanpy. The enrichment value was calculated and plotted with the fgsea package (permutation number = 2,000).

Cell-cell communication analysis
For ligand-receptor interaction-based cell-cell communication analysis of scRNA-seq datasets the 'CellChat' (29) package in R (https://www.r-project.org) was used. The integrated dataset was processed using the Seurat package, then clustered and annotated dataset were analyzed by CellChat with default parameters (p-value threshold = 0.05). Epithelial cells were used as a source group, and immune cells were used as target groups.

Pathway score analysis
Scanpy with the 'scanpy.tl.score_genes' function was used for the pathway score analysis (63). The analysis was performed with default parameters and the reference genes from the gene ontology biological process or the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes database (69, 70). The gene list for the score analysis is shown in SI Appendix, Table S6.

Human scRNA-seq data analysis
The scRNA-seq data set of 19 human SCLC patients samples (Patients information is shown in SI Appendix, Table S1) (10) from Human Tumor Atlas Network (HTAN, https://humantumoratlas.org/) was downloaded and analyzed according to the code provided in the original study. The scRNA-seq data set of the 8 normal human lungs (GSE122960, SI Appendix, Table S2) (17) was extracted from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database and analyzed with Scanpy and Python. First, to match the gene names of our mouse CRPR2 dataset with those of human datasets, we converted mouse gene names into human gene names using the R package biomaRt, which converted 16,780 genes into human genes. The converted CRPR2 dataset and 27 human datasets were concatenated, normalized, and clustered in Scanpy. Batch effects were corrected using "Harmony" (71) algorithm. Then, the dendrogram and correlation matrix heatmap were plotted with Scanpy. The dendrogram shows the distance of each dataset based on principal component analysis, and the correlation matrix heatmap shows Pearson correlation by a color spectrum.

Copy number variation analysis
To detect the genomic stability of groups SC1 and SC2, we performed copy number variations (CNVs) analysis from the gene expression data using the Python package infercnvpy (https://icbi-lab.github.io/infercnvpy/index.html#). We ran infercnvpy on SC1 and SC2 groups using the Normal group (8 human normal lung datasets) as a reference dataset. The gene ordering file containing the chromosomal start and end position for each gene was generated from the human GRCh38 assembly. Chromosome heatmap and CNV scores in the UMAP were plotted with infercnvpy.

Public sequencing database

All TCGA cancer patients' sequencing data referenced in this study were obtained from the TCGA database at cBioPortal Cancer Genomics (http://www.cbioportal.org). Cancer cell line sequencing data from Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE) were extracted from the cBioPortal Cancer Genomics (http://www.cbioportal.org).

Data availability

scRNA-seq data are available via the GEO database (GSE218544; log-in token for reviewers: efsxisoijvwzhuh).

Code availability

The code used to reproduce the analyses described in this manuscript can be accessed via GitHub (https://github.com/jaeilparklab/CRACD_SCLC_scRNAseq) and will also be available upon request.

Statistical analyses

GraphPad Prism 9.4 (Dogmatics) was used for statistical analyses. The Student's *t*-test was used to compare two samples. *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Error bars indicate the standard deviation (s.d.) otherwise described in Figure legends.

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Figures legends

Figure 1. CRACD inactivation in SCLC

A, Somatic alterations in *CRACD*, *TP53*, *RB1*, *RBL2*, *CREBBP*, and *EP300* in 249 SCLC patient samples. The diagram was generated using OncoPrinter at www.cbioportal.org/oncoprinter.jsp).

B, Distribution and frequency of *CRACD* mutations found in 102 SCLC cell lines and 249 SCLC patient samples, illustrated along the length of protein. The diagram was generated using the Broad Institute Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia [CCLE] and cBioPortal databases.

C, Types of *CRACD* mutations found in SCLC patients and cell lines.

D, Levels of *CRACD* transcripts in healthy and SCLC patient samples from the TCGA database; **: $P = 0.002$.

E, UMAPs of SCLC tumor cells from 19 SCLC patient tumor samples (54,633 cells) and 8 normal lung samples (24,041 cells). Each dot represents a single cell, colored by a human sample ID (left) and SCLC vs. normal (right).

F, Correlation matrix plot showing pair-wise correlations among the human normal lung and 19 patient tumor samples. The dendrogram shows the distance of each dataset on the basis of principal component analysis, and the Pearson correlation is displayed with a color spectrum. Groups of patients were categorized by dendrogram and correlation.

G, Sankey plot shows the correlation between group SC1- and SC2-type and RU1108a and clinical information (cancer type and stage).

H, I, A copy number variation analysis of SC1- and SC2-type tumors. Copy number variation plot showing the distribution of genomic alterations (gains and loss) in SC1- and SC2-type tumors compared with healthy human lung samples (H). Copy number variation scores were projected into the UMAP of the scRNA-seq dataset from healthy human lung samples and SC1- and SC2-type samples (I).

J, Dot plot showing NE marker gene expression in 19 SCLC patient samples. ANPY (*ASCL1*, *NEUROD1*, *POU2F3*, and *YAP1*)-based classification was noted at the top. Of note, SC1-type patients belong to the A-type of SCLC.

K, Downregulation of *CRACD* gene expression in SC1-type compared to SC2-type; violin plot showing *CRACD* gene expression between SC1- and SC2-type patient scRNA-seq datasets.

Figure 2. *Cracd* KO accelerates SCLC development in vitro and in vivo

A-C, Mouse preSCs were engineered to target *Cracd* alleles using CRISPR-mediated gene editing and characterized for cell morphology (A), short-term proliferation (B), and colony-forming ability (C). Of note, *Cracd*-targeted preSCs readily formed aggregates and spheres typical of SCLC cells.

D, Representative images of allograft tumors (arrows) derived from preSCs (*Cracd* WT vs. KO) in the flanks of athymic nude mice.

E, Quantification of tumor development (tumor weight / days taken to reach end-point) in the allograft model.

F-I, Analysis of autochthonous mouse models: RPR2 (*Rb1, Trp53, Rbl2* triple KO) vs. CRPR2 (*Cracd, Rb1, Trp53, Rbl2* quadruple KO). Representative images of whole lungs (RPR2 vs. CRPR2) (F) and hematoxylin-and-eosin–stained lung sections (G). Tumor burden (H) and proliferative cell quantification (I).

J, Immunostaining of MKI67 in RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars = 40 μm.

K, Quantification of immunostaining results (**J**). Representative images are shown. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test; error bars: standard deviation (SD).

Figure 3. Increased intratumoral heterogeneity in *Cracd* KO SCLC tumors

A, UMAPs of the scRNA-seq datasets of RPR2 and CRPR2 SCLC tumors.

B, UMAPs of subsets of cells from the global level (left) to SCLC tumor epithelial cells (right). Each dot represents a single cell, colored by cell type. Tumor epithelial cells (RPR2 and CRPR2) were replotted into another UMAP (right).

C, UMAPs of cell types within RPR2 (left) and CRPR2 cell subsets (right). The top two genes that were highly expressed in each cluster were used for cell cluster annotation of the UMAPs.

D, Comparison of proportions of different cell types between the RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets.

E, CytoTRACE scores of RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets were analyzed and plotted.

F, Boxplots of the cell differentiation potential of each cell cluster based on the CytoTRACE score analysis; diff.: cell differentiation; **: $P < 0.01$; ***: $P < 0.001$.

G, GSEA of gene sets associated with the epithelial-mesenchymal transition pathway and hypoxia pathway in cluster 4 in CRPR2 datasets compared to in RPR2 scRNA-seq datasets; NES, normalized enrichment score.

H, Feature plots displaying the expression of epithelial-mesenchymal transition marker *Vim* and *Fn1*, hypoxia marker *Hif1a*.

I, Violin (left) and feature (right) plots visualizing *Ascl1* and *Calca* expression between RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets.

Figure 4. Immune landscape remodeling in *Cracd* KO SCLC tumors

A, UMAPs of cells from the global level (left; modified from Figure 3B) and immune cell subsets (right) in RPR2 and CRPR2 scRNA-seq datasets. Each dot represents a single cell, colored by cell type.

B, UMAP of re-clustered whole immune cells of integrated RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets (left). Each cluster represents different immune cell types. Feature plots displaying the expression of T cell marker *Cd3d* and *Cd3g*; B cell marker *Cd79a;* NK cell marker Nkg7; Myeloid cell marker *Lyz2* and *Cd68* (right).

C, UMAPs of RPR2 (left) and CRPR2 subsets (right) show different immune cell types.

D, Comparison of cell proportions of each immune cell type between RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets, color-coded by clusters and cell types.

E, Feature plots of *Cd8a* and *Mki67* expression in immune cells between RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets.

F, G, Analysis of tumor-infiltrated CD8+ T cells. Immunostaining of RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors with anti-CD8 antibody (F). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Quantification of CD8+ T cell counts per 660 μm^2 in RPR2 and CRPR2 tumor tissue (G). Representative images are shown. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test; error bars: SD.

H, Dot plot showing the expression level of MDSC marker genes (*Itgam*, *Cd14*, *Clec4d*/*e*, *Il1b*, *Arg2*, *Wfdc17*, and *Cd300ld*) in RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets.

Figure 5. MHC-I pathway downregulation by *Cracd* KO

A, Total cell-cell interactions (left) and interaction strength (right) from RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors were analyzed using the CellChat package.

B, Chord plots showing up-regulated (left) and down-regulated (right) signaling pathways in the CRPR2 scRNA-seq dataset compared to the RPR2 dataset, analyzed using CellChat. The inner bar colors represent the cell clusters that receive signals. The inner bar size is proportional to the signal strength received by the cell clusters. Chords indicate ligand-receptor pairs that mediate the interaction between two cell clusters. The chord size is proportional to the signal strength of the given ligand-receptor pair. Of note, for a CellChat analysis, RPR2 and CRPR2 scRNA-seq datasets were reanalyzed and reannotated with the R package Seurat. Tumor cells were subclustered into nine clusters for CellChat.

C, Overall information flow (upper) and relative information flow (lower) of each signaling pathway in RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors, analyzed using CellChat.

D, Circle plots displaying the inferred network of the MHC-I signaling pathway in RPR2 (left) and CRPR2 tumors (right); the thickness of each line connecting the cell clusters indicates the interaction strength, analyzed using CellChat.

E, GSEA of gene sets associated with the MHC-I pathway in CRPR2 datasets compared to in RPR2 scRNA-seq datasets; NES, normalized enrichment score.

F, Dot plot displaying the expression level of the MHC-I pathway–related genes in the RPR2 and CRPR2 datasets.

Figure 6. EZH2-mediated epigenetic suppression of the MHC-I pathway in CRACD-inactivated SCLC subtype.

A, GSEA of DEGs (from CRPR2 vs. RPR2 scRNA-seq datasets).

B-D, Impact of *Cracd* KO on histone modification of mouse SCLC tumors. Immunostaining of SCLC tumors (RPR2 vs. CRPR2) for H3K27ac, H3K27me2, and K3K27me3 (B). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Histone modifications were quantified by analyzing fluorescence intensity per 660 µm^2 using ZEN software (Zeiss) (C). Scale bars = 40 µm. Immunoblotting shows the impact of *CRACD* KO on H3K27ac, H3K27me2, and H3K27me3 in whole-cell lysates of RPR2 and CRPR2 tumors (D). The representative images are shown. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test; error bars: SD.

E, F, De-repression of the MHC-I pathway–associated genes by EZH2 inhibition. RT-qPCR analysis of genes related to the mouse MHC-I pathway after 72 hr of treatment of the CRPR2 cell line (derived from mouse SCLC tumors) with 20 µmol/L GSK343, an EZH2 inhibitor (E). RT-qPCR analysis of genes related to the human MHC-I pathway after 72 hr of treatment of a human SCLC cell line (NCI-H2081) with GSK343 (20 µmol/L) (F). Data are expressed as mean ± SD (n = 3 independent assays). Of note, GSK inhibition upregulated the expression of the MHC-I-encoding genes (*H2-Q1/2/4* and *H2-T3* [mouse]; *HLA-A/B/C* [human]).

G, Assessment of in vitro response of RPR2 and CRPR2 cells to GSK343; 72 hr after GSK343 treatment, cell viability was measured using Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8), error bars: SD.

H, Suppression of in vivo tumorigenesis of CRPR2 cells by EZH2 inhibition. Mice subcutaneously injected with CRPR2 cells were treated with vehicle or GSK343 (20 mg/kg, every other day from 5 days after transplantation; intraperitoneal injection). Average tumor volumes at the indicated time points are plotted. error bars: SD.

I, Immunostaining of CRPR2 allograft tumors with anti-CD8 antibody (left), Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Quantification of CD8$^+$ T cell counts per 210 µm^2 in CRPR2 tumor tissue (right). Representative images are shown. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test; error bars: SD.

J, Tumor-infiltrated T cells were stained with CD3, a marker for T cells (left), and T cells were counted per 210 µm^2 in CRPR2 tumor tissues (right). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Representative images are shown. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test; error bars: SD.

K, Dot plot showing the expression of the MHC-I pathway genes, EZH2 target genes, and PRC2 target genes, in human SCLC tumor samples (SC1- and SC2-type).

L, Violin plot visualizing the expression of the MHC-I pathway–related genes (*HLA-A, B, C, E*, and *TAP1/2*) between SC1- and SC2-type patient datasets.

M, GSEA of gene sets associated with EZH2 targets, PRC2 targets, the MHC-I pathway, and antigen-processing and presentation in SC1- compared to SC2-type tumors.

N, Correlation scatter plot analysis showing the relationship between *CRACD* and MHC-I genes (*HLA-A*, *B*, *C*, *E*, and *TAP1/2*). Pearson's correlation analysis (using GraphPad Prism) showed a positive transcriptional correlation between *CRACD* and MHC-I genes (*HLA-A*, *B*, *C*, *E*, and *TAP1/2*) in SCLC patient tumor cells that express both CRACD and MHC-I genes (*HLA-A*, *B*, *C*, *E*, and *TAP1/2*). r, Pearson correlation coefficient. *P* values were calculated using the Student's *t*-test.

O, Representative marker gene expression of SC1- and SC2-type tumors were visualized for each patient. Genes that were specifically expressed in each group were selected from the differentially expressed gene analysis using the Wilcoxon method.

Figure 1

Figure 2

A preSC cells
Rb1/Trp53 dKO

Cracd WT   *Cracd* KO

5 mm

B Day 2   Day 4   Day 6

sgCtrl

20 µm   20 µm   20 µm

sg*Cracd*

20 µm   20 µm   20 µm

C preSC cells

- sgCtrl
- sg*Cracd* #1
- sg*Cracd* #2

Cell number (x10^6)
Day

D preSC allografts

sgCtrl

sg*Cracd*

2 cm

E
P = 0.031

Tumor weight (g) / day

sgCtrl   sg*Cracd*

F *Rb1, Trp53, Rbl2* tKO (RPR2)

Cracd +/+ (RPR2)   *Cracd* -/- (CRPR2)

Dorsal

5 mm   5 mm

Ventral

5 mm   5 mm

G RPR2   CRPR2

5 mm   5 mm

40 µm   40 µm

H
P < 0.001

Relative tumor burden

RPR2   CRPR2

I
P < 0.001

Relative # of pHH3+ cells per tumor area

RPR2   CRPR2

J RPR2   CRPR2

MKI67 DAPI

40 µm   40 µm

K
P < 0.001

MKI67+ cells per 660 µm²

RPR2   CRPR2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6