Comparative analysis of syngeneic mouse models of high-grade serous ovarian cancer

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Abstract

Ovarian cancers often exhibit high rates of recurrence and poor treatment response. Preclinical
models that recapitulate the heterogeneity of human disease are critical to develop new
therapeutic approaches. While patient-derived models are a powerful tool for testing various
therapeutics, their dependence on immune-compromised mice is severely limiting. Syngeneic
mouse models, however, allow for the generation of tumours comprising the full repertoire of
non-malignant cell types. Here we have performed a comparative analysis of diverse models of
high-grade serous ovarian cancer based on transcriptomic profiling of 22 cell line models, and
intrabursal and intraperitoneal tumours from 12 models. Among cell lines, we identify distinct
features in signalling activity, such as elevated inflammatory signalling in STOSE and OVE16
models, and MAPK/ERK signalling in ID8 and OVE4 models; metabolic features, such as
predicted reduction in glycolysis associated with subsets of engineered ID8 subclones; and
relevant functional properties, including differences in EMT activation, PD-L1 and MHC class I
expression, and predicted chemosensitivity. Finally, we evaluate variability in properties of the
tumour microenvironment among models. We anticipate that this work will serve as a valuable
resource, providing new insight to help in the selection of models for specific experimental
objectives.

Introduction

Approximately 1% of North Americans born with ovaries will lose their lives to ovarian cancer. Despite decades of research, the standard treatment for many of these individuals remains unchanged. The discovery of synthetic lethality upon exposure of homologous recombination-deficient (HRD) malignant cells to PARP inhibition provided a targeted therapy for approximately 50% of patients with high-grade serous ovarian cancer (HGSOC)--the most common and most lethal form of ovarian cancer [1–3]. However, many patients with HRD HGSOC fail to respond to this treatment or develop resistance following prolonged treatment [4]. Developing targeted therapies for the remaining 50% of patients has been challenging due to both the phenotypic and genetic diversity of malignant populations [5,6]. This has put an increased demand on preclinical models to faithfully recapitulate this complexity.

Preclinical models for HGSOC are fortunately abundant. Human-derived models sample genetic diversity of the disease [7,8], but are incapable of being used to model tumours comprising the complete repertoire of non-malignant stromal cells. Successful culture of tumour explants can maintain malignant-stromal interactions *ex vivo*, but these models are not amenable to long-term propagation [9,10]. Establishing patient-derived xenografts in humanized mouse models with adoptive transfer of autologous leukocytes restores components of stromal interactions [11], but it is unclear how accurately these models mirror the progression and therapy response of the native tumour. Thus, human-derived models may be ideal for cell autonomous properties of the malignant population, but are limited in their ability to model cancer progression and the complex interactions within the tumour microenvironment (TME).

Syngeneic mouse models are powerful resources that allow for the generation of tumours in immunocompetent mice. Their ability to model the genetics of human disease is limited, but gene editing strategies can be used to engineer clinically relevant mutations, such as the nearly ubiquitous *TP53* mutation observed in 96% of HGSOC tumours [1]. However, the complex genomic rearrangements observed in HGSOC have been more challenging to model. Despite this limitation, orthotopic tumours can be generated from these models with histological features consistent with human disease, making them a prime resource for studying both the evolution of a complex TME within the ovary and testing of therapeutics that depend on interactions within it.

Various syngeneic models of HGSOC have been developed, but the strategies to establish

them–the cell type of origin, the strategy for malignant transformation, and the engineering of

relevant mutations–have varied. Differences in the experimental progression of these models

have been reported, including differences in growth rate, TME composition, and sensitivity to

treatment [12–16]. Thus, there is a need to comprehensively compare these models in order to

understand their inherent differences. In this study, we have performed transcriptomic profiling

of 22 syngeneic models, as well as tumours derived from select models. We evaluate inherent

differences associated with cell type of origin, the phenotypic divergence associated with

spontaneous transformation from prolonged *in vitro* culture, and the impact of engineering

clinically relevant mutations. We explore how these phenotypes give rise to tumours with unique

TMEs, such as intrabursal STOSE tumours with low stromal content or the lymphocyte-rich ID8-

Trp53^{-/-} model. Together, this work provides insight into the properties of diverse syngeneic

models that can inform the selection of appropriate models for subsequent research and

therapeutic testing.

Results

Transcriptomic profiling of syngeneic mouse models of high-grade serous ovarian

cancer

To develop a resource of transcriptomic data that could provide further insight into models of

HGSOC, we performed RNA-seq on a collection of commonly used mouse ovarian cancer cell

lines (**Figure 1A**). This collection comprises models from both oviductal (OVE/MOE) and

ovarian surface epithelium (OSE), spontaneously transformed (STOSE and ID8) models,

secondary lines derived from ascites, and models engineered with clinically relevant mutations

in tumour suppressor genes or constitutive activation of oncogenes. For select models, we also

sequenced RNA from tumours derived from either intrabursal (IB) or intraperitoneal (IP) injection

of the cells, allowing us to evaluate how properties of the models and TME may affect features

of the resultant tumours (**Figure 1A**).

Across all models, we found transcriptional profiles of biological replicates (n=3-5/model) were

strongly correlated (**Figure 1B**). Unsurprisingly, bulk profiles from tumour samples shared little

similarity to those of pure cell lines (**Figure 1C**). They did, interestingly, cluster according to

whether they were generated through IP or IB injection of cells, likely reflecting inherent

differences in TMEs of these models. In general, IB tumours were more variable, even among

replicates (**Figure 1B**). To evaluate differences in the TME between these two tumour sites, we

used CIBERSORTx [17] to decompose the bulk RNA-seq profiles and predict the relative

proportions of malignant and non-malignant cell types. The inferred contribution of non-

malignant stroma to IB tumours was higher than in IP tumours in all models except STOSE IB

tumours, which had notably high malignant purity (**Figure 1D**). As such, differences that emerge

in each tumour's microenvironment during its development will have a greater impact on the

bulk profiles, contributing to the increased variability among IB samples.

Cell line models exhibit distinct signalling, metabolic, and functional properties

Principal component analysis (PCA) of the cell line samples highlighted the impact of the

models' cell of origin, with the first principal component (PC) separating OSE- and OVE-derived

models (**Figure 2A**). Despite factors such as long-term *in vitro* culture and genetic manipulation,

an imprint of the cells' original identity persisted in culture: various genes uniquely associated

with OSE and OVE identity were among the top loaded genes for PC1, including *Pax8* and *Krt7*

in OVE lines and *Krt19* and *Amhr2* in OSE-derived lines (**Figure 2B**). We performed gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) on PC1 loading-ranked genes to identify properties that distinguish

these distinct epithelial phenotypes. Consistent with their cell of origin, OVE lines appear more

differentiated, with elevated expression of epithelial signatures and MAPK/ERK signalling

(**Figure 2C**) [18]. OSE-derived lines, however, were associated with expression patterns

consistent with a more mesenchymal phenotype (**Figure 2C**).

To further explore biological properties differing among the various models, we collected

transcriptional signatures associated with multiple signalling pathways, biological function, and

metabolic processes (**Supplemental Data 1**) [19–24]. We calculated rank-based signature scores

for each gene set and compared the relative activity between models (**Figure 2D**). This

revealed features that are particularly relevant for the selection of appropriate models for

preclinical studies. For example, the ID8 models had higher proliferative activity (E2F targets),

with elevated oxidative phosphorylation activity and MTORC1 signalling, but they lacked activity

of various cytokine-associated pathways (TGFb, TNFa, NFkB). These features may contribute

to a predicted increase in sensitivity to chemotherapy, but these cells also had reduced

expression of MHC class I components and expressed higher levels of the immunosuppressive

factor PD-L1, which may predict poorer outcomes and/or decreased sensitivity to

immunotherapy. In contrast, JAK-STAT, TGFb, and TNF signalling are elevated in OVE16 and

STOSE cell lines, which may be ideal to model tumours with high levels of inflammation and

chemoresistance (**Figure 2D**). While these inferences are strictly based on expression levels of

relevant genes, the predicted decrease in chemosensitivity of the MOE (originally derived from

OVE4) cell lines relative to ID8 lines is consistent with survival data from carboplatin-treated IP

tumours (**Figure 2E**).

We next examined the impact of p53 mutations on the transcriptional profile of cell lines. We

compared the profiles of each cell line harboring either null or oncogenic point mutations to the

relevant parental line. These mutations, along with possible divergence following their

introduction, resulted in thousands of differentially expressed genes (adj. P-value < 0.05,

|log2FC| > 1). Many of these are specific to individual cell lines, though common effects were

evident, most commonly between the null and point mutants of the same parental line (**Figure

3A,B).** In general, the OVE-derived models exhibited changes that were more similar to one

another than the ID8 line (**Figure 3B**). However, changes associated with the introduction of the

Trp53$^{-/-}$ mutation into the MOE-*Pten*^{shRNA} cell line (originally derived from OVE4 cells) were

distinct from those in the OVE4 model (**Figure 3B**). It is unclear if this can be attributed to an

interaction between *Pten* suppression and loss of p53, or if it is simply due to divergence of the

lines during their manipulation. To assess general features associated with these mutations, we

assessed the genes most commonly affected (**Figure 3C**). We found that commonly

upregulated genes were often associated with developmental-associated gene sets (eg. axon

guidance, integrin-mediated signaling, cartilage development) (**Figure 3D**). Commonly

downregulated changes, however, were strongly associated with inflammatory signalling (eg.

interferon beta response, chemokine signalling), which may dampen the immune response

within the TME (**Figure 3D**).

Spontaneous transformation leads to highly divergent phenotypes in STOSE and ID8

models

The STOSE and ID8 models of HGSOC were both derived from prolonged culture of OSE cells

that led to progressive aneuploidy and, ultimately, the capacity to form malignant tumours [25,26]

(**Figure 4A**). It has been demonstrated that these models produce tumours with distinct

microenvironments [13], but beyond each model having a unique constellation of genomic

aberrations, the phenotypic differences of these lines have yet to be characterized. To begin to

address this, we evaluated genes differentially expressed in the STOSE and ID8 cell lines.

Despite being derived from the same cell type–albeit different mouse strain–we observed

massive divergence in their phenotypes, with 5115 differentially expressed genes (p < 0.05;

|logFC| > 1) (**Figure 4B**). We evaluated GO terms enriched in the genes associated with each

line and found that STOSE were associated with mesenchymal [extracellular matrix (ECM)

organization, migration] and immunoregulatory terms, whereas ID8 cells were primarily

characterized by higher expression of various metabolic pathway components (**Figure 4C**).

Given the challenges of interpreting gene set over-representation with such disparate

expression profiles, we evaluated several specific properties of these cells. First, we inferred

signalling and transcription factor activity in the two models. Consistent with the mesenchymal

and immunoregulatory GO term enrichment, conserved targets of many signalling pathways

were preferentially activated in STOSE, including TGFb, TNFa, NFkB, and MAPK signalling

(**Figure 4D**). Related transcription factors (eg. Smad3/4, Stat3, Twist1, Zeb1) were also

predicted to have higher activity in STOSE (**Figure 4E).** Evidence of signalling patterns specific

to ID8 cells was limited. Wnt targets were more highly expressed, along with transcriptional

activity of the epithelium-associated transcription factors Foxa1 and Foxo1, and Srebf2, which

controls cholesterol homeostasis, consistent with metabolic changes we observed more globally

(**Figure 4E**).

The consistent observation of mesenchymal properties in STOSE cells led us to evaluate the

expression of ECM components in the two models (**Figure 4F**). Many components were reliably

detected but were not differentially expressed between the two models. However, STOSE cells

had elevated expression of a variety of collagens (*Col1a1*, *Col5a3*, *Col4a4*, *Col3a1*, and others)

and ECM glycoproteins, including the canonical mesenchymal marker *Fn1*. Notably fewer ECM

components were preferentially expressed in ID8 cells (eg. *Col11a1*, *Col17a1*, *Igfbp7*, *Fbln2*)

(**Figure 4F**)

To further explore differences in the expression of immunoregulatory factors, we evaluated the

expression of cytokines, chemokines, and their receptors in the two models (**Figure 4G**).

Consistent with GO term enrichment, STOSE cells expressed higher levels of diverse

chemokines and cytokines, including *Il6*, *Il18*, *Tgfb1*, *Ccl7*, and *Csf1*. Similar to ECM

components, fewer factors were more dominantly expressed in ID8 cells. They did, however,

express higher levels of *Il15*, *Cxcl16*, and various cytokine/chemokine receptors (*Ccr7, Ccr4,*

and *Il3ra*) (**Figure 4G**). We predicted that the imbalanced expression of immunoregulatory

factors may lead to differences in the immune infiltration. Using the estimated cell type

proportions from the deconvolution of bulk RNA-seq from the tumours of these cells, we found

that intrabursal injection of STOSE cells consistently yielded higher purity tumours with a

reduced proportion of immune cell infiltration (**Figure 1D**). Among the non-epithelial fraction in

both models, macrophages were more prevalent in STOSE (**Figure 4H**), consistent with their

elevated chemokine expression. These inferences from bulk RNA-seq deconvolution are

consistent with recent flow cytometry-based immunophenotyping and cytokine profiling of these

models [13].

Secondary cell lines derived from ascites stably activate mesenchymal programs

Collecting metastatic cells from mouse tumour models for the purpose of deriving aggressive

sub-lines is a common strategy. Tumours from these sub-lines often progress more rapidly and

metastasize more consistently than parental models. In our cohort of samples, we have

included ascites-derived lines from both STOSE and ID8 intrabursal tumours to evaluate how

they deviate from their parental lines and to determine if independent lines derived from ascites

acquire common traits (**Figure 5A**).

We used PCA to evaluate the relationship between ascites lines and their parental cell lines. For

both STOSE and ID8 lines, the first PC reflected a differentiation axis that separated ascites-

derived lines from the parental model (**Figure 5B,C**). Ascites lines from the ID8 model (28-2, 30-

2) lose activity in biosynthetic pathways (eg. cholesterol, ribogenesis, and isoprenoid pathways),

activating canonical EMT features, including signatures associated with ECM organization,

cytoskeleton remodelling, and TGFb signalling (**Figure 5D**). Notably, there was no particularly

striking reduction in epithelial features in these ascites lines, consistent with a hybrid epithelial-

mesenchymal phenotype [18,27]. The activation of EMT features in STOSE ascites was less

evident, perhaps due to the more-mesenchymal features of the parental lines, but a suppression

of genes associated with epithelial morphogenesis was a prominent trend (**Figure 5E**). Despite

resulting in more aggressive tumours, markers of proliferation were less abundant in ascites

lines from both models (E2F Targets; **Figure 2D**).

Engineering mutations in tumour suppressor genes produces novel phenotypes that

affect the TME

Despite modelling various histological and molecular features of HGSOC, STOSE and ID8

models lack mutations commonly observed in the disease, such as *Trp53*, which is mutated in

96% of HGSOC cases [1]. To better recapitulate the genetics of the disease, various clinically

relevant mutations have been engineered into the ID8 model using the CRISPR-Cas9 system
[28,29]. In our cohort of samples, we have included the ID8-*Trp53-/-* model along with four lines
with a second inactivating mutation in either *Brca1* (23% of HGSOC cases), *Brca2* (11%), *Nf1*
(12%), or *Pten* (7%) [1] (**Figure 6A**).
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PCA of the cell line gene expression profiles highlighted the phenotypic divergence following
introduction of tumour suppressor mutations (**Figure 6B**). Similar to the analysis of ascites-
derived lines, the first PC seemed to reflect an axis of differentiation, with control, *Trp53-/-*, and
Trp53-/-;Nf1-/- ID8 cells having evidence of elevated cholesterol biosynthesis and fructose 6-
phosphate metabolism. The expression of these factors is suppressed in the *Trp53-/-;Pten-/-,*
Trp53-/-;Brca1-/-, and *Trp53-/-;Brca2-/-* cells, which preferentially activate mesenchymal
signatures (**Figure 6B**). Among these less differentiated lines, we found that the *Trp53-/-;Brca1-*
/- model expressed higher levels of monocyte chemotaxis factors whereas the *Trp53-/-;Pten-/-*
model expressed inhibitors of chemotaxis, along with various ECM remodelling factors (collagen
organization, positive regulation of angiogenesis) (**Figure 6B**).
252
We next evaluated whether these features may lead to distinct features in the TME of each
model. Evaluating the bulk RNA-seq profile from whole tumour lysate for each model, we
identified genes differentially expressed among the models and clustered genes based on their
expression across models. Many clusters contained markers highly specific for non-malignant
cell types, reflecting differences in the relative abundance of those cell types across models
(**Figure 6C**). Generic immune/defense signatures–likely associated with total immune
infiltration–were notably deficient in the *Pten*^{-/-} models (**Figure 6C**). The *Brca1*^{-/-} cell line
expressed various monocyte recruitment factors *in vitro* and the *Brca1*^{-/-} and *Brca2*^{-/-} tumours
had evidence of antigen processing expression in their bulk RNA profiles (**Figure 5C**).
Increased chemokine expression and macrophage infiltration in BRCA-mutant tumours is
consistent with recent observations following the addition of a *Brca1*^{-/-} mutation to an OVE-
derived model engineered with *Trp53*[R172H], *Pten*^{-/-}, *Nf1*^{-/-}, and *Myc*[OE] mutations [15]. *Pten*^{-/-}
tumours, and to a lesser extent the *Nf1*^{-/-} model, had increased expression of angiogenic
signatures, further consistent *in vitro* expression patterns (**Figure 6C**). Finally, the *Nf1*^{-/-} model
had a unique enrichment of diverse immunoglobulins, reflecting an abundance of B cells
(**Figure 6C**).
269

Discussion

271 Preclinical models are an invaluable resource to further our understanding of ovarian cancer,
272 enabling the development of strategies to improve patient care. The number of ovarian cancer
273 models is expanding and it has become increasingly unclear which models are most appropriate
274 for specific experimental objectives. Here, we have focused on cataloging and comparing
275 transcriptomic data from a cohort of syngeneic mouse models of HGSOC.
276
Just as the molecular features of human tumours are diverse, these models displayed
remarkable variation. While there has been a great focus on deriving models with mutations that
recapitulate the genetics of human HGSOC, the lack of consistent mutations (beyond *Tp53*) and
the diverse copy number alterations observed in human tumours make this goal intractable and
perhaps irrelevant. This also raises the question of whether it's feasible to develop therapies
that are selective to the genetics of the ~50% of tumours that are HR proficient. Effort in this
direction is certainly critical and it is possible that a collection of targeted therapies could be
utilized in conjunction with genetic screening to deliver personalized treatments to these
patients. However, the challenges introduced by these complex genetics could be curtailed by
focusing on developing therapeutics that are not dependent on them. For example,
perturbations to signalling pathways may be used to sensitize chemoresistant phenotypes [30], or
immunotherapies may be delivered to rejuvenate immune activity within the TME. Certainly
there has been increased effort in this direction over the recent years. Therefore, there is an
urgency to prioritize models based on their ability to recapitulate the general phenotypes and
structural properties of human disease rather than the specific genetics.
292
OSE-derived models have received criticism for not reflecting the likely cell of origin for the
majority of HGSOC. While this criticism is valid, it should not discount the information that these
models have provided or the applicability of these models in future research. Both STOSE and
ID8 are capable of producing ovarian tumours with histological features consistent with human
HGSOC [25,26], and so they – like all models – exhibit various features that are consistent with
human disease, and others that are not. Importantly, they produce tumours with distinct
properties (eg. the characteristically low stromal content of STOSE IB tumours), providing an
opportunity to test therapeutics against diverse TMEs similar to those seen in human tumours.
Similarly, although clinically relevant mutations have been engineered into the ID8 model, it is
unclear if the phenotypic differences are strictly related to specific mutations that have been
engineered or if they reflect divergence that occurred throughout the engineering process. It is

perhaps more relevant that this has produced distinct sub-models with unique TME properties,

such as the vascular rich $Pten^{-/-}$ model or the macrophage-rich $Brca1/2^{-/-}$ models.

Given the importance of recapitulating the TME of human disease, the experimental strategy for

generating tumours is particularly relevant. We demonstrated that orthotopic tumours generated

from intrabursal injection have a consistently more abundant tumour stroma than solid masses

collected following intraperitoneal injection. This may simply owe to differences in tissue

properties (eg. stiffness, adiposity, etc.) between the ovary and sites within the peritoneal cavity

(eg. omentum). IP injection is experimentally convenient and often justified as a model of

metastatic disease, but it is unclear if the resultant lesions faithfully recapitulate those emerging

from the natural metastatic cascade from the ovary to these sites. Specifically, IP injection fails

to impose the selective bottleneck that enriches for cells capable of leaving the adnexa. Rather,

it gives the entire malignant population the opportunity to seed metastases, including cells that

may not be capable of dissemination from a primary tumour. In our analysis, we demonstrated

that ascites-derived cells are quite distinct from the parental population. It is unclear if this

suggests that phenotypic selection is critical to metastatic dissemination or if the peritoneal

cavity simply promotes phenotypic reprogramming.

While we present a relatively large cohort of syngeneic models, this list is by no means

exhaustive and further work is required to examine additional models. The addition of other data

modalities (eg. epigenetic profiling, deeper genetic characterization, scRNA-seq of tumour

models, etc) would also provide valuable information about these models. Together, these initial

comparisons have provided insight into phenotypic differences between the various models that

ultimately affect the properties and progression of the tumours they make. Further validation of

specific functional properties is certainly critical; however, we anticipate that this data will be

particularly useful to aid in the selection of appropriate models for specific experimental aims.

331 Methods

332 Cell lines

Unmodified ID8 cells were provided by Kathy Roby (Roby et al., 2000). ID8-$Trp53^{-/-}$ F3, ID8-

$Trp53^{-/-}Brca1^{-/-}$, ID8-$Trp53^{-/-}Brca2^{-/-}$, ID8-$Trp53^{-/-}Nf1^{-/-}$, ID8-$Trp53^{-/-}Pten^{-/-}$, were generated by

CRISPR-Cas9 mediated knockout, and ID8-C3 (CRISPR control) were generously provided by

Dr. Iain McNeish (Imperial College London) [28,29]. ID8-WT and its derivatives were maintained in

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Corning) + 4% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Hyclone)

and 0.01 mg/mL insulin-transferrin-sodium-selenite solution (ITSS; Roche) as previously

described [28,29]. ID8 ascites-derived lines (28-2, 30-2) were generated by culturing adherent cells

from ascites formed in tumour-bearing mice approximately 60 days following orthotopic injection

of parental ID8 cells.

STOSE cells were generated previously [26] and STOSE ascites-derived (STOSE-A2, A3, A4)

cells were derived from ascites collected from three STOSE-tumour bearing mice. STOSE and

STOSE-A cell lines were maintained in a-MEM (minimal essential media) + 4% FBS and ITSS

and 2µg/ml epithelial growth factor (EGF, R&D). OVE4 and OVE16 were oviductal epithelial cell

lines generated previously [31]. OVE4 were modified by Dr. Joanna Burdette (Univeersity of

Illinois, Chicago) to generate MOE-$Pten^{shRNA}$, MOE-$Pten^{shRNA}$:$Trp53^{R273H}$, and MOE-

$Pten^{shRNA}Kras^{G12V}$, and were maintained in a-MEM + 4% FBS, ITSS, 2µg/ml EGF, and 18.2

ng/mL β-estradiol as previously described [32,33]. OVE4 and OVE16 were transduced with a

lentival vector to expression $Trp53^{R175H}$ to generate OVE4-$Trp53^{175H}$ and OVE16-$Trp53^{175H}$ cell

lines. To generate OVE4-$Trp53^{-/-}$ and OVE16-$Trp53^{-/-}$ lines, OVE cells were transfected with

pSpCas9-Trp53 plasmids using Lipofectamine and subjected to puromycin selection. $Trp53$

deletion and the R175H mutation were validated by Western blot. Mycoplasma testing was

performed prior to animal experiments. Cells were incubated at 37°C with 5% carbon dioxide

Generation of tumours with syngeneic models

Animal experiments to generated orthotopic tumours were carried out using protocols approved

by the Animal Care Committee at the University of Ottawa and conforming to the standards

defined by the Canadian Council on Animal Care (CCAC). FVB/N mice (for STOSE and MOE

cell lines) were acquired from Charles River Laboratories and C57BL/6 mice (for ID8 and

derivatives) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. Orthotopic intrabursal (IB) tumours

were generated by injecting 1.5 x10^5 cells (ID8-WT, ID8-C3,ID8-$p53^{-/-}$, STOSE, MOE-PTEN/p53,

or MOE-PTEN/KRAS) under the ovarian bursa in 2µl phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) as

previously described [26]. Primary tumours were collected when mice reached humane endpoint,

snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 degrees Celsius until RNA extraction.

Procedures to generate IP tumours were approved by the University Animal Care Committee

(UACC) at Queen's University and the CCAC. The various modified ID8 cell lines (5-6 x 10^6,

n=5-10 per genotype) in 350 µL of PBS were transplanted via intraperitoneal injections into

C57BL/6 female mice aged 8 to 10 weeks (Charles River Laboratories).

All mice were maintained in specific pathogen-free conditions. Mice were left untreated until

they reached their endpoint, which for IP tumours was deemed the point at which their

abdominal diameters were approximately 34 mm. The tumours were snap-frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction.

In vivo carboplatin sensitivity

Mice were injected intraperitoneally with 5×10^6 tumor cells resuspended in 100µl PBS. Then, after

25% of tumor establishment for each murine model, mice received bi-weekly injections of

carboplatin at 20mg/kg per mouse for a total of 4 weeks (8 doses). Control groups received saline.

Mice were followed-up for survival assessment until they reach humane endpoint.

RNA collection and library preparation

Total RNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's instructions with the RNeasy

Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen) for the majority of samples. IP tumours collected from mice

injected with ID8-*Trp53*-/-, ID8-*Trp53*-/-; *Brca1*-/-, ID8-*Trp53*-/-; *Brca2*-/-, ID8-*Trp53*-/-;

Nf1-/-, and ID8-*Trp53*-/-; *Pten*-/- cells were isolated at endpoint using the total RNA

Purification Kit (Norgen Biotek Corporation, ON, Canada) as per the manufacturer's

instructions.

RNA-Seq libraries were generated from 250 ng of total RNA as following: mRNA enrichment

was performed using the NEBNext Poly(A) Magnetic Isolation Module (New England BioLabs).

cDNA synthesis was achieved with the NEBNext RNA First Strand Synthesis and NEBNext

Ultra Directional RNA Second Strand Synthesis Modules (New England BioLabs). The

remaining steps of library preparation were done using and the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library

Prep Kit for Illumina (New England BioLabs). Adapters and PCR primers were purchased from

New England BioLabs.

The libraries were normalized and pooled and then denatured in 0.02N NaOH and neutralized

using HT1 buffer. The pool was loaded at 200pM on a Illumina NovaSeq S4 lane using Xp

protocol as per the manufacturer's recommendations. The run was performed for 2x100 cycles

(paired-end mode). A phiX library was used as a control and mixed with libraries at 1% level.

Base calling was performed with RTA v3. Program bcl2fastq2 v2.20 was then used to
demultiplex samples and generate fastq reads

RNA-seq transcript quantification and processing
Pseudoalignment and transcript quantification for each sample was performed using Kallisto
(v0.45.0) [34] with the GRCm38 build of the mouse genome. The R package tximport (v1.24.0)
was used to load transcript quantifications, converting to gene-level transcript estimates.
Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on zero-centered normalized counts from
DESeq2's variance stabilizing vst() transformation. For each independent PCA, only the top
2000 variable genes were used as input. A t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE)
was generated for the whole dataset using the top 10 principal components as input into the
Rtsne() function provided by the Rtsne R package (v0.16)**.**

Differential gene expression
All differential gene expression analysis was performed using DESeq2 (v1.36.0) [35]. To compare
STOSE and ID8 cell lines, the Wald test was used to compute p-values and log fold change
shrinkage was performed using the apeglm estimator [36]. To evaluate differentially expressed
genes among more than two samples (eg. the collection of modified ID8 lines), a likelihood ratio
test was used. Genes with a p-value less than 0.05 and a standard deviation across all tested
samples of greater than 0.5 (effectively providing an effect size threshold) were then clustered
based on their relative expression levels across samples.

GO Term over-representation analysis
Over-representation analysis of GO terms among differentially expressed genes was performed
using the topGO (v.2.48.0) wrapper topGOtable() provided in the pcaExplorer R package
(v2.22.0) [37]. The elim method implemented in topGO was used to reduce redundancy in the list
of enriched gene sets.

Gene set scoring and inference of signalling and transcription factor activity
The R package singscore (v1.16.0) [38] was used to compute gene set activity scores for
individual samples. Scores reflect a rank-based statistic from genes comprising each set similar
to the Wilcoxon rank sum test. Relative scores between samples were calculated by
standardizing scores across samples with a Z-score transformation.

Signalling activity for STOSE and ID8 models was calculated using the R package PROGENy

(v1.18.0) [19] based on the package's pretrained regression models of gene activity associated

with 14 different signalling pathways. The top 500 genes of each model were used for

calculating scores.

Transcription factor activity was inferred using the database of transcription factor targets in the

DoRothEA package (v1.8.0) [39], only including associations with a confidence level of "A" or "B".

The viper method (v.1.30.0) [40] was used to compute activity scores for each individual sample.

To compare activities between STOSE and ID8 samples, a simple linear model was used for

each factor. Only factors with a Benjamini-Hochberg-adjusted p-value of less than 0.05 were

used.

Bulk RNA-seq deconvolution using scRNA-seq

Cell type deconvolution was performed using a publicly available reference scRNA-seq data of

primary orthotopic tumours from both STOSE and ID8 models [13] (NCBI GEO Accession:

GSE183368). The annotated scRNA-seq data was first used to generate cell type references

with CIBERSORTx [17], which was then used to deconvolve the normalized (TPM) quantifications

for each bulk RNA-seq tumour sample using the default parameters. Predicted cell type

proportions were then compared between samples.

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Author Contributions

DPC, AT, JP, MK, and BCV conceived the study. KG, GMR, NS, JWS, MP, KM, JH, and TGS,

performed cell culture experiments and collected RNA for library preparation. KG, GMR, EM,

HM, NS, JWS, MP, AOC, and KM performed animal studies. DPC performed all computational

analysis and drafted the manuscript. All authors revised and finalized the manuscript.

Data Availability

All RNA-seq data is available at the NCBI GEO Accession GSEXXXXXX.

Figure 1. Transcriptional profiling of diverse syngeneic mouse models of HGSOC. A.
Schematic of the study design. RNA-seq was performed on all listed models and 3-5 replicates
were included for each model. **B.** Comparison of spearman correlation coefficients of
transcriptional profiles both within and between models for cell lines, IB tumours, and IP
tumours. **C**. tSNE embedding of the replicated-averaged transcriptional profile of each model. **D.**
Tumour purity estimates from IB and IP tumours based on the estimated proportion of malignant
cells predicted by deconvolving bulk RNA-seq profiles with CIBERSORTx. Cell type profiles
used from deconvolution were derived from scRNA-seq data of STOSE and ID8 tumours [13]. **E.**
Survival Kaplan-Meier plots of FVB/N (MOE-*Pten*shRNA; *Trp53*-/-) and C57BL/6 tumor bearing
mice (ID8-*Trp53*-/-;*Brca2*-/-, ID8-*Trp53*-/-), treated with 20mg/kg carboplatin (red line) or saline
(black dotted line). Curves represents n=10 mice per group per model. Log-rank (Mantel-Cox)
p <0.05.

Figure 2. Comparison of cell line models for HGSOC. A. PCA embedding of the

transcriptional profiles of cell line models. Black points represent individual replicates and

coloured points reflect the average coordinates of model replicates. **B.** Ranked gene loadings

for the first principal component, which separates OSE and OVE-derived cell lines. Select highly

ranked genes are shown. **C.** Over-enrichment analysis of GO terms among the top and bottom

200 ranked genes. P-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. **D.** Relative

(Z-score transformed) gene set scores among cell line models. Relative scores were computed

for each replicate prior to averaging scores for each model. The source and genes associated

with each gene set are listed in **Supplemental Data 1**.

Figure 3. Common and divergent effects of null and point p53 mutations. A. Intersections

of differentially expressed genes associated with p53 mutations. Red and blue text and point

reflect up and down regulated genes, respectively. The top bar chart shows the number of

intersecting genes between the conditions highlighted by connected points below. The number

of differentially expressed genes per condition is shown on the left. **B.** Clustered heatmap of

overlap coefficients associated with up (top) and downregulated (bottom) genes. **C.** The

frequency of cell lines in which genes are differentially expressed. Select commonly affected

genes are highlighted. **D**. GO terms associated with genes up (top) and downregulated (bottom)

in 3 or more cell lines.

Figure 4. Divergence of spontaneously transformed ovarian surface epithelium. A.
Schematic demonstrating the establishment of two spontaneously transformed models of
HGSOC (STOSE and ID8). **B.** Differentially expressed genes between STOSE and ID8 cells.
The x-axis reflects the average quantification (mean counts) for each gene and the y-axis shows
the log2 fold change (log2FC) between the two models. The dashed line reflects a |log2FC|
threshold of 1 and only genes with an adjusted p-value < 0.05 are shown. Select genes are
labelled. **C.** Over-representation analysis of significant genes associated with each cell line. **D.**
Inferred activity of pathways predicted to be differentially active between the two models.
Activity scores were calculated using PROGENy [19]. **E.** Predicted Inferred activity of transcription
factors predicted to be differentially active between the two models. Activity scores were
calculated based on regulons from DoRothEA [41]. **F.** Identical plot to (B), highlighting collagens
(red), glycoproteins (blue), and proteoglycans (green) from the MatrisomeDB[42]. **G.** Identical plot
to (B), highlighting cytokines and their receptors from the KEGG pathway "Cytokine-cytokine
receptor interaction". **H.** Predicted proportion of tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs)
among the non-malignant fraction of IB tumours. Proportions were based on bulk RNA-seq
deconvolution using CIBERSORTx.

Figure 5. Activation of EMT-associated characteristics in ascites-derived lines. **A.**
Schematic of ascites-derived subclones of ID8 and STOSE models. **B**. PCA embedding (left)
and ranked gene loadings for PC1 (right) for the ID8 models. **C.** Same as (B) for STOSE-
derived models. **D.** Over-representation analysis of GO terms associated with the top and
bottom 200 loaded genes for PC1 in the ID8 model. **E.** Same as (D) but for STOSE-derived
models.

Figure 6. Variation among IP tumours of the ID8 model engineered with clinically relevant mutations. A. Schematic of the mutant ID8 lines. All mutations were previously engineered with CRISPR-mediated mutagenesis[28,29]. **B.** PCA embedding of the transcription profile from bulk IP tumour samples. Small points represent individual replicates of each model and the large labelled point is at the average coordinates for each model. Over-represented GO terms among top and bottom loaded genes for both PC1 and PC2 are shown next to the embedding along with Benjamini-Hochberg-adjusted p-values. **C.** Clustered heatmap of the 1544 genes differentially expressed (likelihood ratio test; adj. p-value < 0.05) among tumours from the ID8 models. Selected enriched GO terms for each cluster are shown next to each cluster.

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