Signaling events at TMEM doorways provide potential targets for inhibiting breast
cancer dissemination

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Running Title: TMEM doorway associated targets to inhibit metastasis

Abstract:

Tumor cell intravasation is essential for metastatic dissemination, but its exact mechanism is

incompletely understood. We have previously shown that in breast cancer, the direct and stable

association of a tumor cell expressing Mena, a Tie2^{hi}/VEGF^{hi} macrophage, and a vascular

endothelial cell, creates an intravasation portal, called a "tumor microenvironment of metastasis"

(TMEM) doorway, for tumor cell intravasation, leading to dissemination to distant sites. The

density of TMEM doorways, also called TMEM doorway score, is a clinically validated

prognostic marker of distant metastasis in breast cancer patients. Although we know that tumor

cells utilize TMEM doorway-associated transient vascular openings to intravasate, the precise

signaling mechanisms involved in TMEM doorway function are only partially understood.

Using two mouse models of breast cancer and an *in vitro* assay of intravasation, we report that

CSF-1 secreted by the TMEM doorway tumor cell stimulates local secretion of VEGF-A from the

Tie2^{hi} TMEM doorway macrophage, leading to the dissociation of endothelial junctions between

TMEM doorway associated endothelial cells, supporting tumor cell intravasation. Acute

blockade of CSF-1R signaling decreases macrophage VEGF-A secretion as well as TMEM

doorway-associated vascular opening, tumor cell trans-endothelial migration, and

dissemination. These new insights into signaling events regulating TMEM doorway function

should be explored further as treatment strategies for metastatic disease.

Introduction:

Metastasis is a complex, multi-step and multi-directional process that begins with the dissemination of tumor cells from the primary tumor to distant sites and escalates by further re-dissemination of cancer cells from metastatic foci (1-4). The re-dissemination process leads to an exponential increase in tumor burden and, eventually, patient demise. Tumor cell intravasation into the vasculature creates circulating tumor cells (CTCs) and is an essential step in the metastatic cascade, but its exact mechanism is not completely understood. A large body of evidence indicates that tumor cell dissemination, including tumor cell intravasation, is orchestrated by the interaction of tumor cells with the tumor microenvironment (5, 6). In particular, tumor-associated macrophages interact with tumor cells and promote directed cell migration (streaming) towards blood vessels (7-9). In addition, macrophages form a multi-cellular complex with endothelial and tumor cells on the surface of blood vessels to mediate transient vascular opening and tumor cell intravasation. These cell complexes are called TMEM (Tumor MicroEnvironment of Metastasis) doorways (10, 11). Each TMEM doorway is composed of one tumor cell expressing Mena, one Tie2^{hi}/VEGF-A^{hi} macrophage, and a vascular endothelial cell, all in direct and stable physical contact (10, 12, 13).

TMEM doorway-associated vascular opening (TAVO) was first discovered using high-resolution intravital imaging as localized and transient bursts of intravascular contrast agents into the extravascular space that could be accompanied by concurrent intravasation of cancer cells (10). Further analyses revealed in mouse models of breast cancer, TAVO, and its associated cancer cell intravasation, occurs exclusively at TMEM doorways (10). Importantly, TMEM doorway score in primary breast tumors has been clinically validated as a prognostic marker of distant metastatic recurrence in breast cancer patients with estrogen receptor positive HER2 negative (ER$^+$/HER2$^-$) disease, independent of other clinical prognostics (12-14). Additionally, when comparing residual ER$^+$/HER2$^-$ tumors from breast cancer patients after completion of pre-operative chemotherapy, Black patients were found to have a higher TMEM doorway score than

white patients (15). These findings potentially provide an explanation for the persistent racial

disparities in ER$^+$/HER2$^-$ breast cancer outcomes that are not fully explained by disparities in

social determinants of health, including access to care or treatment (12, 15-17). TMEM doorway

score has also been found to increase during neo-adjuvant chemotherapy, suggesting that TMEM

doorway score, as measured using TMEM doorway activity MRI (17), may be a useful companion

diagnostic for the prediction of benefit from certain types of treatment. Given that Black compared

to white patients have a higher TMEM doorway density in their residual disease after

chemotherapy, using TMEM doorway activity MRI may potentially help diminish racial disparity in

breast cancer outcome (18, 19).

In humans and mice, TMEM doorways are found in pre-invasive and invasive ductal breast

carcinoma, as well as in metastatic foci in lymph nodes and lungs (18-24). This suggests that the

TMEM doorway-mediated mechanism of cancer cell dissemination occurs not only at the primary

tumor site, but also at metastatic sites, and may contribute to the multi-directional cancer spread

that perpetuates metastatic dissemination even after removal of the primary tumor (1-4, 18). Thus,

understanding the molecular mechanisms of TMEM doorway function may help develop

therapeutic targets to slow distant metastases and improve patient survival.

Inhibiting TAVO prevents the formation of CTCs and metastases (10). Although we know that

TMEM doorways induce localized vascular opening through the secretion of vascular endothelial

growth factor-A (VEGF-A) from the TMEM doorway macrophage (10), the precise signaling

mechanisms involved in TMEM doorway function during intravasation have not been elucidated.

The work described here provides a greater understanding of the signaling events that regulate

these dynamic, multi-cellular interactions. In particular, we report the identification of the signaling

events involved in TAVO and TMEM doorway-mediated intravasation, which can serve as

potential new prognostic markers and therapeutic targets for suppressing CTC dissemination and

breast cancer metastasis.

Materials and Methods:

Cell culture. MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (cat# SH30243, Hyclone, GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Logan, UT, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (cat# S11550, Atlanta Biologicals, Flowery Branch, GA, USA). BAC1.2F5 macrophages (67) and bone marrow derived macrophages (BMMs) were cultured in Minimum Essential Medium, Alpha (α-MEM) (cat# 15-012-CV, Corning, Tewksbury, MA, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS (cat# 100-106, Gemini Bio-Products, Sacramento, CA, USA) and 36 µg/mL CSF-1 (3000 units/mL, a gift from Dr. E. Richard Stanley). Immortalized BMMs derived from $Csf1r^{+/+}$ and $Csf1r^{-/-}$ mice have been previously described (33), and were cultured in α-MEM supplemented with 10% FBS and GM-CSF. Human Umbilical Vein Endothelial Cells (HUVECs) were cultured in complete EGM-2 (cat# CC-3162, Lonza, Allendale, NJ, USA) and were not used beyond passage five for any experiments.

Mice. All studies involving mice were conducted in accordance with the National Institutes of Health regulations concerning the care and use of experimental animals. The procedures were approved by the Albert Einstein College of Medicine Institute for Animal Care and Use Committee. Transgenic mice expressing the Polyoma Middle T (PyMT) antigen under the control of the mammary tumor virus long terminal repeat (MMTV-LTR) (68) were bred in house.

Inhibitors. Inhibitors were administered based on established doses of efficacy found in previous studies. Animals were treated with 2.5 µg of anti-CSF-1R neutralizing antibody (cat# NBP1-43363, clone AFS98, Novus Biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA), or antibody isotype control (cat# 554682, IgG K isotype control, BD Pharmingen, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) was administered by tail vein *i.v.* four hours before termination of the experiment as previously described (27). For *in vitro* studies, GW2580 a small molecule inhibitor of CSF-1R (cat# G-5903, LC Laboratories, Woburn, MA, USA) was dissolved in DMSO was used at a concentration of 100 nM, and anti-

CSF-1R neutralizing antibody or isotype control (clone AFS98, Novus Biologicals) was used at a

concentration of 50 ng/mL

Immunofluorescence labeling of tumor vasculature and extravasation with 155 kDa

dextran-TMR. Labeling flowing vasculature and sites of permeability was performed as previously

described (10). Briefly, to quantify extravasation, high molecular weight 155 kDa TMR-dextran

(cat# T1287, Sigma-Aldrich, Burlington, MA, USA) diluted in PBS was administered by tail vein

i.v. one hour before the termination of the experiments. Anti-mouse CD31-biotin (cat# 13-0311-

82, Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA) was administered by tail vein *i.v.* ten minutes before the

end of the experiment to label flowing blood vessels. At time of sacrifice tumors were removed

and fixed for 48 hours in 10% formalin in a volume ratio of tumor to formalin of 1:7 and made into

paraffin blocks. Paraffin blocks of tumors were cut into 5 µm sections and immunofluorescence

staining was performed. TMR-Dextran is visualized using rabbit anti-TMR (A-6397; Life

Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

Immunofluorescence staining of tissue. Tumor sections were dewaxed in acetone and

rehydrated in alcohol followed by water. Antigen retrieval was performed with a citrate solution at

pH 5.5 in a humidified chamber. The slides were washed with PBS-T (0.1% Tween-20) and

blocked with a blocking solution (2% BSA, 10% FBS in PBS). One 5 µm section from each tumor

was stained for hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and one for TMEM doorway. TMEM doorway stain

is a triple immuno-stain for predicting metastatic risk, in which three antibodies are applied

sequentially and developed separately with different chromogens on a Dako Autostainer (13, 14,

32). The following primary antibodies were used for immunostaining of TMEM doorways: anti-

Mena (cat# NBP1-87914, Novus Biologicals), anti-endomucin (cat# sc-65495, Santa Cruz

Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA), and anti-CD68 (cat# MCA1957, clone FA-11, Serotec,

Kidlington, UK), or anti-Iba1 (anti-Iba1 (cat# 019-19741, FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals, Richmond,

VA). The sequential tissue sections were stained with different combinations of: anti-endomucin

(cat# sc-65495, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-TMR (to visualize TMR-dextran, cat# A-6397,

Thermo Fisher Scientific), anti-ZO-1 (cat# MABT11, clone R40.76, Millipore Sigma), anti-CD31

(cat# 77699; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), Red fluorochrome(635)-conjugated

anti-Iba1 (cat# 013-26471, FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals), or anti-Iba1 (cat# 019-19741, FUJIFILM

Wako Chemicals), anti-VEGF-A (cat# sc-152, clone A-20, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) or anti-

VEGF-A (cat#512809, clone 2G11-2A05, Biolegend, San Diego, CA, USA), anti-CSF-1R (cat#

sc-692, clone C-20, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), AlexaFluor555-conjugated anti-CSF-1 (cat# bs-

4910R-A555, Bioss Inc, Woburn, MA, USA), anti-CD68 (cat# MCA1957, clone FA-11, Serotec),

or AlexaFluor647-conjugated CD68 (cat#51-0689-42, eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA), and

anti-MRC1/CD206 (cat# AF2535, R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA). Sections were washed

with PBS-T and the primary antibodies were detected with AlexaFluor 488, 555 or 647 conjugated

secondary antibodies targeting the primary antibody species (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR, USA), and

nuclei were stained with 4, 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). All fluorescently labeled samples

were mounted with Prolong Diamond antifade reagent (cat# P36961, Invitrogen) and imaged with

a PerkinElmer Pannoramic 250 Flash II digital whole-slide scanner using a 20x 0.8NA Plan-

Apochromat objective (PerkinElmer, Hopkinton, MA, USA). Images of individual fields of view

were imported into ImageJ or VisioPharm for analysis. TMEM doorways were identified as

previously described (10, 13, 14). Vascular junctions and extravascular dextran were quantified

as previously described (10, 30). Briefly, the CD31 channel (blood vessel), dextran and vascular

junction (ZO-1) were each thresholded to just above background based upon intensity and by

comparison to a slide stained only with secondary antibodies. A binary mask was created for the

CD31 positive staining (blood vessel mask) and for the dextran positive staining (dextran mask).

The extravascular dextran area was isolated by subtracting the blood vessel mask from the

dextran mask. The remaining extravascular dextran area and blood vessel area were then

measured.

Extravascular dextran, VEGF-A, and intracellular CSF-1 quantification in TMEM doorways.

To identify active TMEM doorways, we utilized an improved and automated method of a prior

TMEM activity assay that takes into account the presence of high-molecular weight dextran that

leaks into the tissue, as a result of TMEM doorway associated vascular opening (TAVO) (10, 30,

31). The algorithmic improvement of this assay involves the automated measurement of the entire

tissue section of the tumor as a single region of interest (ROI), instead of selecting a definite

number of high power fields as ROIs, thus providing a more accurate representation of the entire

tumor, minimizing operator-dependent biases, and significantly increasing the logistic capacity of

the analysis.

In short, serial tissue sections were cut and stained for TMR-Dextran, CSF-1, and Endomucin by

IF (tissue section 1) and for TMEM doorways by staining for Iba1, Endomucin, and panMena by

IHC (tissue section 2). The sections were then imaged with a digital whole slide scanner and

aligned to the single cell level using the TissueAlign module in Vis (Visiopharm, Hoersholm,

Denmark). IF images were thresholded above background, creating binary masks for endomucin

(blood vessel) and dextran signals. These masks were then superimposed so as to be able to

differentiate between intravascular and extravascular dextran signal. In the IHC section, TMEM

doorways were identified using previously published criteria (13, 14). In this manner, the amount

of extravascular dextran around TMEM doorways could be quantified. For quantification of

intracellular CSF-1, the TMEM doorway associated tumor cell was identified using the Mena stain

in IHC section, within the TMEM doorway circle, and a mask was created. This mask was then

overlaid onto the aligned IF section and the CSF-1 was then quantified within this mask.

siRNA knockdown. MDA-MB-231 cells were transfected with Stealth RNAi siRNAs (siRNA IDs:

HSS102355, HSS102356, HSS175321, Thermo Fisher Scientific) directed against CSF-1 or

negative control (cat#12935300, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at a concentration of 200 pmols using

Lipofectamine 2000 reagent (cat# 11668027, Invitrogen).

Immunofluorescence staining of co-cultured cells*.* Prior to the start of the experiment,

macrophages were labeled with CellTracker Green^{TM} dye and tumor cells were labelled with

CellTracker^{TM} Red dye, according to manufacturer's instructions (cat# C7025, C34552,

Invitrogen). $1x10^5$ macrophages were cultured with or without $1x10^5$ tumor cells in α-MEM media

(supplemented with 0.5% FBS and 300 units/mL of CSF-1) and with either CSF-1R blocking

antibody or isotype control antibody at 50 ng/mL (cat# NBP1-43363, clone AFS98, Novus

Biologicals; IgG K isotype control cat# 554682, BD Pharmingen). After 24 hours incubation, the

experiments were stopped by washing the cells with ice-cold PBS followed by fixing them for

twenty minutes in 4% PFA, and permeablizing in 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS. The cells were stained

for VEGF-A using antibodies against mouse VEGF-A (cat# 512809, clone 2G11-2A05, Biolegend)

and AlexaFluor647-conjugated secondary antibodies. The intensity of VEGF-A staining in the

macrophages was measured by first outlining the macrophages in the green (488 nm) channel in

ImageJ/Fiji (69) and applying that outline to the far-red (647 nm) channel to measure the VEGF-

A signal within the macrophage, excluding any VEGF-A signal from the tumor cells.

Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR). To quantify gene expression in

MDA-MB-231 tumor cells transfected with CSF-1 siRNA or control siRNA, tumor cells were grown

under normal culture conditions. In co-culture experiments between tumor cells and

macrophages, $1x10^6$ macrophages were cultured alone or co-cultured with $1x10^6$ MDA-MB-231

tumor cells for 24 hours in α-MEM media with 0.5% FBS and 300 units/mL of CSF-1 (one-tenth

of CSF-1 added to complete media). For the co-culture assay, species specific primers were used

in the qPCR.

Total RNA was isolated from cells by using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (cat# 74134, Qiagen,

Germantown, MD, USA) and cDNA was synthesized and amplified from 1 µg total RNA using the

using SuperScript IV VILO Master Mix with ezDNase Enzyme (cat# 11766050, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) per manufacturer's protocol. The qPCR was performed with SYBR Green PCR Master

Mix (cat# 4367659, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a QuantStudio 3 real-time PCR instrument

(applied biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The following primers were used: mouse GAPDH

5'- CTCATGACCACAGTCCATGC -3', 5'- CACATTGGGGGTAGGAACAC -3'; mouse VEGF-A

5'- AGCAGAAGTCCCATGAAGTGA -3', 5'- ATGTCCACCAGGGTCTCAAT -3'; human GAPDH

5'- CTCCTGTTCGACAGTCAGCC -3', 5'- ACCAAATCCGTTGACTCCGAC -3'; human β-Actin 5'-

CTTCGCGGGCGACGATGC -3', 5'- CGTACATGGCTGGGGTGTTG -3'; human CSF-1 5'-

CCTCCCACGACATGGCT -3', 5'- GAGACTGCAGGTGTCCACTC -3'. The mean cycle threshold

(Ct) values were then used to analyze relative expression. Analysis was performed using

comparative-CT method ($2^{-\Delta CT}$ method) and all Ct values were normalized to GAPDH. Each

reaction was performed in triplicate.

ELISA. In macrophage-tumor cell co-culture experiments, 1×10^6 macrophages were cultured

alone or co-cultured with 1×10^6 MDA-MB-231 tumor cells for up to 48 hours in α-MEM media with

0.5% FBS and 300 units/mL of CSF-1 (one-tenth of CSF-1 added to complete media).

Experiments using immortalized $Csf1r^{+/+}$ or $Csf1r^{-/-}$ BMMs used α-MEM media with 0.5% FBS and

2 ng/mL GM-CSF. In mono-culture macrophage ELISA experiments where tumor cell conditioned

media was added, conditioned media was collected from tumor cells incubated in α-MEM with

0.5% FBS and 300 units/mL of CSF-1 for 24 hours. In tumor cell mono-culture ELISA experiments,

1×10^6 tumor cells were seeded and incubated for 24 hours in serum-free DMEM medium.

In all ELISA experiments, blocking antibodies, isotype controls, inhibitors and controls were added

at indicated concentrations in "Inhibitors" section, at time zero. Media conditioned by the cultured

cells were collected at the indicated time points and stored at -80^{0}C until use. ELISAs were

performed per the manufacturer's recommendations using the Mouse VEGF-A DuoSet ELISA kit

(cat# DY493, R&D Systems) or the Human M-CSF DuoSet ELISA kit (cat# DY216, R&D

Systems). The concentration of protein secreted was interpolated from the standard curve

measurements.

Transendothelial Migration Assay (iTEM assay). The iTEM assay was performed as previously

described (34, 70, 71) and briefly described here. The transwell (8 µm pore size; cat# 353097,

Corning, Corning, NY, USA) was prepared so that tumor cell transendothelial migration was in

the intravasation direction found *in vivo* (from subluminal side to luminal side of the endothelium).

To prepare the endothelial monolayer, the underside of each transwell was coated with 50 µL of

Matrigel (2.5 µg/mL; cat# 354230, Corning). Approximately 1x10^5 HUVECs were plated on the

Matrigel coated underside of the transwell. Transwells were then flipped into a 24-well plate

containing 200 µL of EGM-2 and monolayers were formed over a 48 hour period. The integrity of

the endothelium was measured using low molecular weight dextran as described previously (71).

Macrophages and tumor cells were labelled with cell tracker dyes (cat# C7025, C34552,

Invitrogen) before the experiment. Then, 1.5x10^4 tumor cells and 6x10^4 macrophages were added

to the upper chamber of the transwell in 200 µL of DMEM without serum while the bottom chamber

contained EGM-2 supplemented with 36 µg/mL of CSF-1. After 18 hours, the transwells were

fixed and stained for ZO-1 (cat# 402200, Invitrogen) as previously described. Transwells were

imaged using a Leica SP5 confocal microscope using a 60x 1.4NA objective and processed using

ImageJ/Fiji (69). Tumor cell transendothelial migration quantification was performed by counting

the number of tumor cells that had crossed the intact endothelium (intact monolayers confirmed

by ZO-1 staining for tight junctions) within the same field of view (60x, 10 random fields) and

represented as normalized values from at least three independent experiments.

Statistical analysis. Individual animals in each cohort are presented as individual points on a dot

plot. A horizontal line indicates the mean value and the error bars represent the standard error of

the mean. Statistical significance was determined using an unpaired Student's *t*-test, one-way

ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA, with Tukey's multiple comparisons test, as indicated, using

GraphPad Prism (version 10; Graph Pad Software, La Jolla, CA). Data sets were checked for

normality (D'Agostino & Pearson omnibus normality test or Shapiro-Wilk normality test) and

unequal variance using GraphPad Prism. Welch's correction was applied to *t*-tests as needed. *P*

values less than 0.05 were deemed significant. For *in vitro* experiments, results are representative

of at least three independent experiments.

Results:

CSF-1 levels are elevated in tumor cells at active TMEM doorways

Macrophage-secreted VEGF-A is critical for regulation of TMEM doorway activity (10).

VEGF-A secreted by macrophages is regulated by CSF-1, also known as M-CSF (25, 26). Since

tumor cells are known to secrete CSF-1 (27-29), we investigated if TMEM doorway tumor cells

express CSF-1, and if this expression is associated with TMEM doorway vascular opening (10).

We first determined whether CSF-1 levels are increased in TMEM doorway tumor cells at active

TMEM doorways by multiplex staining of breast tumor tissue sections obtained from the *polyoma*

middle T antigen (PyMT) mice injected *i.v.* with high molecular weight dextran (155 kDa, green)

1 hour before sacrifice. In these samples, if there has been a TMEM doorway associated vascular

opening (TAVO) (which would indicate an active TMEM doorway), the *i.v.* injected dextran would

extravasate into the interstitium and be detectable extravascularly in the tissue near a TMEM

doorway **(Figure 1A)**. We used a modified approach of our previously published protocol for

detection of active TMEM doorways (30). We stained two sequential tumor sections – one using

IHC for TMEM doorways (Iba1, Endomucin, Mena) **(Figure 1B)** and the second using IF for CSF-

1, dextran, and endothelial cells (endomucin) **(Figure 1C)** and aligned the images of stained

sections to the single cell level. Next, we identified which TMEM doorways were active by

examining for the presence of high molecular weight dextran (155 kDa, green) in the extravascular

space near the TMEM doorway, as described previously (10, 31). We then visualized and

quantified the expression of CSF-1 (red) in TMEM doorway tumor cells of both active and inactive

doorways **(Figure 1C)**. We observed that the fluorescence intensity of intracellular CSF-1 in

TMEM doorway tumor cells was higher in active TMEM doorways **(Figure 1C, lower panel)**

compared to inactive TMEM doorways **(Figure 1C, upper panel)**. This is quantified in **Figure 1D**.

These results indicate that TMEM doorway tumor cells may play a significant role in regulating

TMEM doorway function and activity by locally producing CSF-1.

Tumor cells stimulate macrophage VEGF-A secretion without affecting its expression

Since CSF-1 is upregulated in the tumor cell at active TMEM doorways, and secretion of

VEGF-A is known to be regulated by CSF-1 in other cell types (25, 26), we investigated the

signaling interplay between the tumor cell and macrophage at the TMEM doorway. Using an

ELISA on conditioned media, we confirmed that exogenous recombinant CSF-1 can stimulate

macrophages to secrete VEGF-A **(Figure 2A)** and that tumor cells secrete CSF-1 **(Figure 2B)**.

To examine the role of tumor cell secreted CSF-1 in regulating macrophage VEGF-A secretion,

we first determined if TMEM doorway macrophages express the CSF-1 receptor (CSF-1R). We

have previously identified TMEM doorway macrophages by their direct contact with a tumor cell

and blood vessel (13), expression of CD68 and VEGF-A, and further characterized them as a

$CD206^+/CD11b^+/F4/80^+/CD11c^-$ population (10). Using immunofluorescence staining of PyMT

tumors for CSF-1R, macrophages $(CD68^+/CD206^+/CD31^-)$, and endothelial cells $(CD31^+)$ as

described previously (10, 32), we found that greater than 90% of all $CD68^+$ macrophages

throughout the tumor tissue co-express CSF-1R and 97% of $CD68^+/CD206^+$ TMEM doorway

macrophages (identified by simultaneous contact with tumor cells and endothelial cells and co-

expression of CD68 and CD206 without CD31 expression) also express CSF-1R **(Figure 2C, D)**.

To determine if tumor cells can stimulate macrophage VEGF-A secretion, we used a

human tumor cell - mouse macrophage co-culture system and quantified the amount of secreted

VEGF-A by ELISA using an antibody that can only recognize mouse-derived VEGF-A, secreted

by the macrophages. Co-culture of human MDA-MB-231 tumor cells with mouse BAC1.2F5

macrophages **(Figure 3A)** or culture of BAC1.2F5 macrophages with conditioned media collected

from serum starved MDA-MB-231 tumor cells **(Figure 3B)**, resulted in increased secretion of

VEGF-A by the mouse-derived macrophages.

To ascertain the role of tumor cell secreted CSF-1 in stimulating macrophage VEGF-A

secretion, we used the same co-culture system of MDA-MB-231 tumor cells and BAC1.2F5

macrophages as above. We inhibited CSF-1R signaling in macrophages with either a CSF-1R

neutralizing antibody (CSF-1R Ab), or an inhibitor which prevents downstream signaling of the

CSF-1R (CSF-1R inhibitor (GW2580)). We found that either method reduced macrophage VEGF-

A secretion **(Figure 3A)**. Likewise, inhibition of CSF-1R in macrophages cultured with medium

conditioned by the tumor cells led to a reduction in the amount of secreted VEGF-A **(Figure 3B)**.

Similar results were obtained using mouse bone marrow derived primary macrophages (BMMs)

(Supplementary Figure 1A). Co-culturing a different breast cancer cell line, 4T1, which also

secretes CSF-1 **(Supplementary Figure 1B)**, with BAC1.2F5 macrophages also caused an

increase in VEGF-A secretion by macrophages **(Supplementary Figure 1C).** In these additional

models, the increase in macrophage secretion of VEGF-A in response to tumor cell CSF-1 was

again suppressed through addition of CSF-1R inhibitors or blocking antibodies **(Supplemental**

Figure 1A, 1C). Next, we used immortalized bone marrow macrophages (BMMs) isolated from

Csf1r$^{+/+}$ or *Csf1r$^{-/-}$* mice which either express (*Csf1r$^{+/+}$*) or lack the expression of CSF-1R (C*sf1r$^{-/-}$*

) (33) to determine the role of the CSF-1R in regulating VEGF-A secretion by macrophages.

Compared to the *Csf1r$^{+/+}$* BMMs, which secreted VEGF-A in both the co-culture system and when

cultured in tumor cell conditioned media **(Figure 3C, D)**, C*sf1r$^{-/-}$* BMMs did not significantly secrete

VEGF-A, in either a co-culture system with MDA-MB-231 tumor cells, or when cultured with

medium conditioned by the tumor cells **(Figure 3C, D)**.

349   We next evaluated if co-culture of tumor cells with macrophages leads to increased

expression or secretion of VEGF-A from macrophages, or both. We co-cultured MDA-MB-231

tumor cells with BAC1.2F5 macrophages labeled with CellTracker™ Green to distinguish them

from cancer cells, and then stained the cells for VEGF-A. Macrophages that were co-cultured with

tumor cells displayed decreased intracellular VEGF-A staining compared to macrophages

cultured alone **(Figure 3E, F)**. This result, combined with the VEGF-A ELISA showing that

macrophages and tumor cells cultured in the same method lead to increased VEGF-A in the

conditioned media (Figure 3A), suggests that the tumor cells induce macrophages to secrete

VEGF-A. In addition, inhibition of CSF-1R signaling (which prevented VEGF-A secretion in Figure

3A) increased the intracellular macrophage VEGF-A using the same co-culture system **(Figure**

3E, F), indicating that the CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling between macrophages and tumor cells

induces the release of intracellular VEGF-A from macrophages. In our second model using 4T1

tumor cells, we again found a decrease in intracellular VEGF-A staining in the macrophages co-

cultured with tumor cells compared to macrophages cultured without tumor cells **(Supplementary**

Figure 1D). The increase in macrophage VEGF-A secretion and the decrease in the intracellular

VEGF-A protein levels in the macrophages were abrogated with CSF-1R neutralizing antibody as

well as with the small molecule CSF-1R inhibitor, consistent to what was observed with MDA-MB-

231 cells in **Figure 3**.

367   To determine if the enhancement of VEGF-A secreted by the macrophages in response

to co-culture with tumor cells could also be due to increased VEGF-A mRNA production, we co-

cultured MDA-MB-231 tumor cells with BAC1.2F5 macrophages and determined the relative

levels of VEGF-A mRNA by qPCR. We found that co-culture of tumor cells and macrophages did

not affect the VEGF-A mRNA levels in macrophages **(Supplementary Figure 2)**, indicating that

the increase in VEGF-A protein found in the conditioned medium was due to increased secretion

of stored intracellular VEGF-A in the macrophages, not also caused by an increase in VEGF-A

mRNA expression.

To determine the impact of CSF-1R inhibition on the levels of VEGF-A expression *in vivo*,

we treated mice with either a control or a CSF-1R inhibitory antibody and looked at the total level

of VEGF-A (both intra- and extracellular) within TMEM doorways. We found that CSF-1R inhibition

does not affect the steady state expression or stability of VEGF-A levels in the TMEM doorway.

(Figure 3G, H). Both findings are consistent with the observation that tumor cell secreted CSF-1

does not upregulate VEGF-A expression in macrophages **(Supplementary Figure 2)**, but rather

controls VEGF-A secretion from macrophages, which is retained within the TMEM doorway.

Altogether, these results indicate that tumor cells stimulate macrophages to release VEGF-A but

do not induce its production within macrophages.

Inhibition of CSF-1R reduces TMEM doorway-associated vascular opening and trans-

endothelial migration

As CSF-1R signaling regulates macrophage VEGF-A secretion, and macrophage-

secreted VEGF-A is required for vascular opening at TMEM doorways (10), we examined the role

of the CSF-1R in mediating vascular opening and tumor cell intravasation at TMEM doorways *in*

vivo, as defined in **Figure 1** and previously (6). We injected tumor bearing PyMT mice *i.v.* with

CSF-1R blocking antibodies or IgG control antibodies, four hours prior to sacrifice, and injected

high molecular weight dextran (155 kDa), one hour before sacrifice. We stained the tumor tissue

for CD31, TMR-Dextran, and ZO-1 to examine the effects of CSF-1R inhibition on TMEM doorway

activity and vascular junctional integrity (**Figure 4A).** Acute inhibition of CSF-1R reduced

extravascular dextran (red) at TMEM doorways, indicating that TMEM doorways were less active

when CSF-1 signaling is inhibited **(Figure 4B)**. Vascular ZO-1, a component of endothelial tight

junctions that maintains vascular junction integrity, increased with inhibition of CSF-1R suggesting

that the endothelial junctions were less permeable upon CSF-1R inhibition **(Figure 4C)**. To

determine whether blockade of CSF-1 signaling and subsequent inhibition of TMEM doorway

opening prevented tumor cells from entering the vasculature, we collected the blood of the mice

during sacrifice and measured the number of circulating tumor cells (CTCs). The number of CTCs

were significantly reduced upon CSF-1R inhibition compared to control treated mice **(Figure 4D)**.

These results indicate that CSF-1R signaling is not only involved in tumor cell and macrophage

streaming migration, as reported before (8), but also in signaling between tumor cells,

macrophages, and endothelial cells, creating intravasation-associated vascular openings and

allowing intravasation of tumor cells, leading to CTCs.

To further examine the effects of blocking CSF-1R signaling on macrophage-mediated

transendothelial migration of tumor cells, we used our previously established *in vitro* trans-

endothelial migration (iTEM) assay (34). The iTEM assay mimics the conditions seen at the TMEM

doorway during intravasation (10, 32) and allows us to quantify the number of tumor cells that

cross the endothelium. We have previously shown that breast tumor cells seeded alone atop a

matrigel matrix and confluent endothelial monolayer cross through the endothelial cell barrier

poorly, but transendothelial migration is enhanced in the presence of macrophages (34, 35). As

shown before, tumor cells exhibited a basal level of trans-endothelial migration, which was

significantly increased in the presence of macrophages (**Figure 4E**). However, there was no

enhancement of tumor cell trans-endothelial migration in presence of macrophages when CSF-

1R signaling was inhibited by either a CSF-1R blocking antibody or a small molecule inhibitor of

CSF-1R (**Figure 4E**).

To further establish that CSF-1R signaling between tumor cells and macrophages was

important for enhancing tumor cell migration across the endothelial cell layer, we used BMMs

lacking CSF-1R (*Csf1r$^{-/-}$*) in the iTEM assay. We observed no increase in the transmigration of

tumor cells seeded with *Csf1r$^{-/-}$* macrophages compared to tumor cells cultured without

macrophages; however, tumor cell transendothelial migration was enhanced when seeded with

macrophages expressing the CSF-1R (*Csf1r$^{+/+}$*) **(Figure 4F)**. Similarly, to establish that CSF-1

secreted by tumor cells specifically is responsible for the increased trans-endothelial migration,

and not the other TMEM doorway cells present in the iTEM assay, we knocked down CSF-1 in

MDA-MB-231 cells using siRNA (**Supplementary Figure 3**) and used these tumor cells in the

iTEM assay. We found that unlike tumor cells expressing CSF-1, tumor cells with reduced CSF-

1 expression did not support increased trans-endothelial migration in the presence of

macrophages (**Figure 4G**). Thus, inhibition of CSF-1R signaling blocked the ability of

macrophages to enhance tumor cell trans-endothelial migration.

Discussion:

It has been previously shown that TMEM doorway associated vascular opening (TAVO)

requires vascular endothelial growth factor-A (VEGF-A) produced by the TMEM doorway

macrophage. In particular, a TIE2^{hi}/VEGF-A^{hi} TMEM doorway-associated macrophage interacts

with its associated endothelial cell through secretion of VEGF-A to mediate blood vessel opening

by disrupting endothelial cell adherens and tight junctions (10). We have demonstrated, using

intravital imaging, that the vascular opening in tumors is an acute, localized, and transient event,

and only occurs at TMEM doorways, as opposed to VEGF-A injected into the vasculature, which

caused general and continuous leakage of blood contents from all blood vessels (10). We have

further shown that these TAVO events occur simultaneously with tumor cell intravasation, and are

required for tumor cell intravasation. When VEGF-A is knocked out specifically in macrophages,

TAVO events are blocked, as is tumor cell intravasation (10). These observations are consistent

with and provide a mechanism for the finding that the number of TMEM doorways measured by

multiplex immunohistochemistry in formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded breast cancer sections is a

clinically validated prognostic indicator of distant metastasis in breast cancer patients (12-14).

However, the signal provided by CSF-1 that triggers the secretion of VEGF-A by the TMEM

doorway macrophage, the most critical step for TMEM doorway opening, has remained unknown,

until now.

CSF-1 drives the differentiation of myeloid precursors to macrophages and is essential for

survival of macrophages (36-38). CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling is important for tissue homeostasis,

repair, and inflammation and acts as a chemoattractant for the recruitment, production, and

survival of tumor associated macrophages (TAMs) to the tumor microenvironment (39, 40). TAMs

promote tumor progression through stimulation of angiogenesis, secretion of IL-10, TGFβ, and

VEGF-A, and driving of tumor cell migration, invasion, and metastasis (41-43). As we show here,

VEGF-A secretion from TMEM doorway macrophages can be triggered by tumor cell derived-

CSF-1 binding to the CSF-1R on the macrophage (Figures 2 and 3). Given that CSF-1 signaling

is known to drive invasiveness and increase metastasis, unsurprisingly, increased expression of

CSF-1 is correlated with poor prognosis in ovarian, breast, and prostate cancer patients (44-49).

There is evidence of a paracrine interaction between tumor cells and macrophages, which

facilitates tumor cell migration toward blood vessels in breast cancer (8, 29). This interaction is

driven by a CSF-1/EGF paracrine loop, wherein tumor cells secrete CSF-1 (which attracts CSF-

1R expressing macrophages), while macrophages in turn secrete EGF (which attracts EGFR-

expressing tumor cells). The tumor cells respond to EGF-secreting macrophages by migrating

towards them and secreting more CSF-1, therefore generating a paracrine loop (8, 27, 29, 50).

These signaling events create a chemotactic axis in which the CSF-1/EGF signals become

amplified, allowing the tumor cells and macrophages to remain in close proximity with each other

as they migrate together as cell pairs (a process called streaming (8, 27, 29, 36)). Once the tumor

cells within the loop encounter a Hepatic Growth Factor (HGF) signal, which is found in a gradient

in the tumor microenvironment with the highest concentration near blood vessels (7), the tumor

cell-macrophage pairs start migrating toward the blood vessels along the HGF gradient, adding

directionality to the streaming cell pairs **(Figure 5A)**. Once at the blood vessels, the streaming

tumor cells can intravasate through active TMEM doorways, following a TAVO event (7, 10, 11).

The genetic or pharmacological inhibition of EGF, CSF-1, or the HGF receptor (c-Met) significantly

impairs streaming of both tumor cells and macrophages and blocks tumor cell dissemination in *in*

vivo breast cancer metastasis models (7, 8, 29, 50), confirming the critical role of the paracrine

CSF-1/EGF loop between tumor cells and macrophages, as well as the HGF gradient, in

metastasis.

Here we demonstrate that while the TMEM doorway tumor cell and macrophage remain

in direct and stable contact on the blood vessel (10, 13), the CSF-1 signaling persists, resulting

in localized macrophage secretion of VEGF-A. We found that TMEM doorway tumor cells secrete

CSF-1 which binds to the CSF-1R on TMEM doorway macrophages **(Figure 5B)**. We further show

that this event triggers localized secretion of VEGF-A by TMEM doorway macrophages and leads

to downstream TAVO events, where acute vascular opening within the endothelium allows tumor

cells to intravasate through the TMEM doorway. Previously, we have visualized and characterized

that the resulting CTCs can form distant metastases **(Figure 5C, D)** (10, 31, 51). In this study, we

demonstrate that inhibition of CSF-1R *in vitro* by either knocking out CSF-1R in macrophages or

adding a blocking antibody decreased macrophage release of VEGF-A, and transendothelial

migration of tumor cells, an *in vitro* measure of intravasation capability. *In vivo*, acute treatment

of tumor bearing mice with a CSF-1R blocking antibody significantly increased vascular tight

junction stability, decreased TMEM doorway activity and TAVO events, as well as formation of

CTCs. We did not detect a difference in VEGF-A expression around the TMEM doorway when a

CSF-1R blocking antibody was used *in vivo* (Figure 3G, 3H). Given that this is a relatively short-

term experiment, sacrificing mice four hours after treatment, and the TAVO is a rare event, we

expect that detecting a change in VEGF-A expression within the TMEM doorways is not possible

in this limited timeframe. Further, we have found that CSF-1 signaling does not increase

expression of VEGF-A in the TMEM doorway macrophage, but rather triggers its local secretion,

where VEGF-A binds to and signals to the nearby TMEM doorway endothelial cell, while

remaining within the TMEM doorway.

The importance of this study beyond the primary tumor is emphasized by the finding that

TMEM doorways are found not only in invasive ductal breast carcinomas, but also in metastatic

foci in lymph nodes (18, 19) and lungs (6). We and others have found that secondary metastases

can seed tertiary metastases (1-4), and the presence of TMEM doorways at secondary sites may

perpetuate metastatic dissemination **(Figure 5D)** even after removal of the primary tumor.

Importantly, blocking the function of TMEM doorways could not only prevent the dissemination of

cancer cells from primary tumors, but also prevent re-dissemination of tumor cells from metastatic

sites, which may occur after the resection of primary tumors (10, 11, 52, 53). Therefore, even if

the tumors are highly metastatic, we may be able to increase patient survival or quality of life, or

both, by blocking TMEM doorway function systemically, which would lessen overall metastatic

burden. Inhibition of both Tie2 and CSF-1 signaling to prevent TAVO events (10, 31), along with

standard of care therapies, might be an effective way to prevent re-dissemination from both

primary and metastatic tumor sites, and allow for better patient survival.

Recent preclinical studies targeting CSF-1/CSF-1R have yielded promising results in

several tumor models. A monoclonal antibody targeting CSF-1R depleted TAMs and increased

the CD8$^+$/CD4$^+$ T cell ratio, leading to decreased primary tumor burden and decreased metastasis

in mouse models of colorectal cancer and fibrosarcoma (54). Another recent study investigating

breast and colon carcinoma models found that CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling inhibition stimulated the

expansion of neo-epitope specific T cells and promoted the development of an immune-

permissive TME (55). So far, the FDA has approved one CSF-1R inhibitor for patients with

tenosynovial giant cell tumors, a tumor type characterized by chromosomal translocations of the

CSF-1 gene, leading to aberrant CSF-1 expression (56, 57). Despite the promising preclinical

studies using CSF-1/CSF-1R inhibitors in combination with chemotherapy, immunotherapy, or

radiotherapy, phase II clinical trials have not yielded the same anti-tumor efficacies (58-64). In

patients with advanced triple negative breast cancer, the combination of a CSF-1 monoclonal

antibody with gemcitabine and carboplatin showed comparable anti-tumor activity compared to

gemcitabine and carboplatin alone (65). In another phase Ib/II study, patients with advanced

pancreatic ductal carcinoma, colorectal cancer, or non-small cell lung cancer were treated with a

CSF-1R monoclonal antibody plus anti-PD-1 therapy; however, minimal anti-tumor activity was

observed (62). In these studies, investigators were expecting to observe an enhancement in

intratumoral infiltration of CD8$^+$/CD4$^+$ T cells and TAM depletion, given the role that CSF-1

signaling plays in creating an immune suppressive environment and promoting recruitment,

survival and differentiation of macrophages. Taking into consideration our findings that CSF-1

signaling is critical for the recruitment of tumor cell-macrophage pairs to the blood vessels in the

primary tumor (8, 27, 29, 50), the transient opening of the blood vessels at TMEM doorways

(Figure 4B), and intravasation of tumor cells at TMEM doorways (Figure 4D), we expect that

treating patients with less advanced disease would be efficacious in preventing metastatic

disease or reducing metastatic burden, though not necessarily in preventing primary tumor

growth. Additionally, given our findings that TMEM doorway scores are predictive of distant

metastasis in subsets of breast cancer patients (12-14), we contend that selecting the breast

cancer patients meeting the criteria for predictive metastatic disease for the clinical trials would

show increased success in improving patient outcomes. Our study provides evidence that the

mechanism through which CSF-1R inhibition can prevent metastasis is not only by macrophage

depletion, but also by blocking CSF-1/CSF-1R paracrine signaling between tumor cells and

macrophages leading to inhibition in tumor cell intravasation in the primary tumor.

We have previously shown in mice that transient, short-term blockade of VEGF-A

expression in macrophages is effective in inhibiting TMEM doorway activity, TAVO events, and

formation of CTCs (10). However, if patients are treated with anti-angiogenic therapies targeting

VEGF-A (e.g., bevacizumab and other VEGF-A inhibitors) they eventually develop therapeutic

resistance (66). One mechanism of tumor resistance or recurrence following anti-angiogenic

therapy in patients is attributed to the increased recruitment and infiltration of Tie2-expressing

macrophages into the tumor in response to apoptosis, necrosis, and hypoxia after vascular

regression (66). Additionally, the ligand for Tie2, Ang2, is upregulated in response to hypoxic

conditions. Tie2-Ang2 signaling can function in a similar manner to VEGF-A signaling to promote

tumor angiogenesis, bypassing VEGF-A inhibition, and even being enhanced by such inhibition.

As such, Tie2 is an attractive pharmacological target for the suppression of tumor angiogenesis

and tumor cell dissemination. We have found that TMEM doorway macrophages are also

characterized by expression of Tie2 (10) and that a selective inhibitor of Tie2, rebastinib, inhibits

TMEM doorway activity, formation of CTCs, and metastasis in several mouse models of

metastasis and patient derived xenografts (32). The mechanism of how Tie2 contributes to

signaling between the TMEM doorway cells to mediate the TAVO events is still unclear and

warrants further investigation. Uncovering the complete mechanism of TMEM doorway opening

in primary and secondary sites is critical. We expect that inhibiting TAVO events, potentially by

targeting both CSF-1 and Tie2 signaling, will improve our ability to increase the survival of both

patients with metastatic disease and patients who are likely to develop metastatic disease.

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 Figure Legends:

Figure 1. TMEM doorway tumor cells show increased CSF-1 levels at active TMEM

doorways. A) Cartoon denoting the identification of parameters used for analysis of CSF-1 levels

in TMEM doorway tumor cells (TTCs) and TMEM doorway function. The three cells composing

the TMEM doorway are indicated by the yellow triangle connecting the TMEM doorway

macrophage (TM), the TMEM doorway endothelial cell (TEC) and the TTC. Intravascular dextran

is in the lumen of blood vessel, extravascular dextran is outside the lumen of blood vessel, and

CSF-1 is directly measured in the TTC. Figure created with BioRender.com. **B)** Panel shows

inactive and active TMEM doorways, visualized by immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining for

Mena, Iba-1, and endomucin. The three cells of the TMEM doorway (contained in black circle,

with the three cells forming the TMEM doorway indicated with the yellow triangle) are the TMEM

doorway endothelial cell (TEC, endomucin stained in blue, circled in white), TMEM doorway

macrophage (TM, Iba1 stained in brown, circled in teal), and TMEM doorway tumor cell (TTC,

Mena stained in pink, and circled in pink) and black arrows indicate where the cells are localized

within the TMEM doorway. TMEM doorways were identified using automated analysis by

VisioPharm identifying three adjacent immuno-histochemical stains. **C)** The sequential tissue

sections after the IHC in (B) were stained with immunofluorescence (IF) with antibodies against

endomucin (white), dextran (green), CSF-1 (red), and nuclear stain DAPI (blue). The two

sequential sections from 1B and 1C were aligned and the same TMEM doorways were matched

between the two sections, as indicated by the black circle in the IHC panel (1B) and white circle

in the IF panels (1C) showing the same TMEM doorway after alignment. The left panels

demonstrate the association of CSF-1 level in the TMEM doorway tumor cell (TTC) with TMEM

doorway activity. The middle panel shows the extravascular signal for dextran as a green mask

and the endomucin stain as a white mask, where thresholded, positive signal for these stains was

converted into a binary mask. Active versus inactive TMEM doorways were distinguished by the

presence of extravascular dextran staining non-overlapping with the endomucin stain, which

indicates that the vessel had a TMEM doorway-associated vascular opening (TAVO). Scale

bars=20µm. **D)** Immunofluorescence measurement of CSF-1 levels in TMEM doorway tumor cells

in active and inactive TMEM doorways. TMEM doorways were identified in the IF-stained sections

as described above. Active TMEM doorways were identified by the presence of extravascular

dextran which is not present in inactive TMEM doorways (see panel C). Next, tumor cells were

identified using the Mena positive cells at TMEM doorway (panel 1B, IHC stain). The level of CSF-

1 in the TMEM doorway tumor cells was measured in both active and inactive TMEM doorways

using Visiopharm. n= 12 mice. ****$P < 0.0001$ analyzed by Student's *t*-test.

Figure 2. TMEM doorway macrophages secrete VEGF-A in response to CSF-1 and tumor

cells secrete CSF-1. A) VEGF-A ELISA of conditioned media obtained from BAC1.2F5

macrophages (Mφ) treated with or without CSF-1 (3000 units/mL) for the times indicated. VEGF-

A is indicated as concentration (pg/ml) of secreted protein. n=3 individual experiments done in

duplicate, **p<0.01, by two-way ANOVA. **B)** CSF-1 ELISA of conditioned media obtained from

MDA-MB 231 tumor cells (TCs). TCs were cultured for 24 hours in serum-free media and the

concentration of CSF-1 (pg/mL) secreted by the TCs measured in the tumor cell conditioned

media by ELISA. Control is media not exposed to tumor cells but treated in the same way as the

cells. n=3 individual experiments done in duplicate. ****p<0.0001 by Student's *t*-test. **C)**

Immunofluorescence staining of serial PyMT tumor sections stained for CSF-1R (green),

vasculature (CD31, magenta), macrophages (top: CD68, white; bottom: CD206, red) and DAPI

(blue). The TMEM doorway is indicated with the yellow arrow, with each point of the triangle

identifying each cell in the doorway, as described in Figure 1 (10). TMEM doorway cells are

indicated with white arrows: endothelial cell (TEC, white circle); TMEM doorway macrophage

(TM, blue circle); and TMEM doorway tumor cell (TTC, pink circle). Scale bar 30 µm. **D)**

Quantification of the percent of CD68^{+} TMEM doorway macrophages and CD68^{+}/CD206^{+}

macrophages which stain positively for CSF-1R (*n* = 6).

Figure 3. Tumor cell secreted CSF-1 increases CSF-1R dependent macrophage VEGF-A secretion. A) VEGF-A ELISA of conditioned media obtained from BAC1.2F5 macrophages co-cultured with MDA-MB-231 tumor cells treated with control antibody (ctrl Ab), CSF-1R blocking Ab or CSF-1R inhibitor (GW2580), denoted as concentration (pg/mL) of secreted protein. n=3 individual experiments performed in duplicate, *p<0.05, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 analyzed by two-way ANOVA. **B)** ELISA determination of VEGF-A (pg/mL) in medium obtained from BAC1.2F5 macrophages cultured in medium conditioned by MDA-MB-231 tumor cells (Tumor Cell CM) and treated with control Ab, CSF-1R blocking Ab (CSF-1R Ab) or CSF-1R inhibitor (GW2580). n=3 individual experiments performed in duplicate, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 analyzed by two-way ANOVA. **C)** ELISA determination of VEGF-A (pg/mL) in medium conditioned y bone marrow macrophage (BMMs) either expressing (*Csf1r$^{+/+}$*) or lacking (*Csf1r$^{-/-}$*) CSF-1R co-cultured with MDA-MB-231 tumor cells for the times indicated. n=3 individual experiments done in duplicate, ****p<0.0001 analyzed by two-way ANOVA. **D)** ELISA determination of VEGF-A (pg/mL) in medium from *Csf1r$^{+/+}$* or *Csf1r$^{-/-}$* BMMs cultured in MDA-MB-231 tumor cell conditioned medium (Tumor Cell CM) for the times indicated. n=3 individual experiments done in duplicate, ****p<0.0001 analyzed by two-way ANOVA. **E)** BAC1.2F5 macrophages, labelled with CellTracker^{TM} Green, were co-cultured with or without MDA-MB-231 tumor cells (TC), labelled with CellTracker^{TM} Red, and treated with either control or CSF-1R blocking antibodies for 48 hours. Cells were fixed, permeabilized and stained for VEGF-A. Macrophages were identified by the CellTracker Green label and only images of macrophages are shown. Heat map scale to right shows intensity of VEGF-A staining. Scale bar 5 μm. **F)** Quantitation of the VEGF-A fluorescence intensity in macrophages in (E). The amount of VEGF-A in the macrophage was quantified using ImageJ, as described in the methods section. n=3. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, analyzed by one-way ANOVA. **G, H)** Immuno-staining and quantification of VEGF-A intensity around TMEM doorways, obtained from PyMT mice treated with control antibody (ctrl Ab) or CSF-1R blocking Ab. Sequential tumor sections derived from PyMT tumors were stained by immunofluorescence

(VEGF-A, Iba-1) and IHC (TMEM doorways-Mena, Iba-1, endomucin). TMEM doorways were

identified as described in figure 1A. The circle in the IHC (black) and IF (white) panels show the

same TMEM doorways obtained from the alignment of serial sections, and the three cells making

up the TMEM doorway are pointed out with the yellow triangle in each panel. TMEM doorways

are outlined in the circle with the endothelial cell (TE, blue stain, white circle), macrophage (TM,

brown stain, teal circle) and TMEM doorway tumor cell (TTC, pink stain, pink circle) indicated with

arrows. Next, the two sequential sections were aligned and TMEM doorway was identified in the

IF-stained section. The immunofluorescence intensity of VEGF-A expression (green stain) in the

identified TMEM doorway ROIs was measured and plotted here. N=analysis of images obtained

from tissue sections from individual 11 mice, Scale bar 20 μm, not significant, analyzed by

Student's t-test.

Figure 4. Inhibition of CSF-1R signaling reduces TAVO and trans-endothelial migration. A)

IF staining of tumor tissue from mice treated with control Ab or CSF-1R Ab were stained for CD31

(green), TMR-dextran (red), and ZO-1 (magenta). Right panel shows increased magnification of

yellow box from middle panel to demonstrate overlap between CD31 and ZO-1 stains

(merge/overlap indicated with white signal, and pointed out with white arrows). **B)** Quantification

of extravascular 155 kDa dextran-TMR. *$p<0.05$. **C)** Vascular ZO-1 *$p<0.05$, and **D)** circulating

tumor cells for mice treated with control Ab or CSF-1R blocking Ab in A). *$p<0.05$, analyzed by

Student's t-test. (B, C, D, n = 8) **E)** Quantitation of subluminal to luminal trans-endothelial

migration (iTEM activity, which is a measure of number of intravasating cells in the intravasation

direction) of MDA-MB-231 cells plated on the confluent and sealed endothelium either alone or

with BAC1.2F5 macrophages. Tumor cells were treated with control antibody (ctrl Ab & DMSO),

CSF-1R blocking Ab (CSF-1R Ab) or CSF-1R inhibitor (GW2580). Tumor cells were labelled with

CellTracker™ green which allowed us to identify and quantify the cells crossing. The number of

MDA-MB-231 cells which crossed the endothelium were imaged using a confocal microscope and

quantified using ImageJ software. n=3, *p<0.05 analyzed by one-way ANOVA. **F)** Quantitation of

iTEM activity of MDA-MB-231 cells plated on the endothelium alone or with BMMs expressing or

lacking CSF-1R expression. Tumor cells were labelled with CellTracker^TM green which allowed

us to identify and quantify the cells crossing. The number of MDA-MB-231 cells which crossed

the endothelium were imaged using a confocal microscope and quantified using ImageJ software.

N=3, ***p< 0.001 analyzed by one-way ANOVA. **G)** Quantitation of iTEM activity of MDA-MB-231

cells transfected with either control siRNA or two different siRNAs targeting CSF-1 (#1, #2).

Transfected cells were plated on the endothelium either alone or with BAC1.2F5 macrophages.

Tumor cells were labelled with CellTracker^TM green which allowed us to identify and quantify the

cells crossing. The number of MDA-MB-231 cells which crossed the endothelium were imaged

using a confocal microscope and quantified using ImageJ software. n=3, **p<0.01, ***p< 0.001

analyzed by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 5. Model of CSF-1-induced TMEM doorway opening and release of CTCs into the

blood stream. A) In the primary tumor, macrophages and tumor cells exhibit a CSF-1/EGF

paracrine interaction between tumor cells and macrophages which facilitates tumor cell migration

toward blood vessels in breast cancer. Tumor cells secrete CSF-1 which attracts CSF-1R

expressing macrophages, which in turn secrete EGF, increasing the migration of EGFR-

expressing tumor cells. The tumor cells within the loop encounter an HGF signal found in a

gradient in the tumor microenvironment with the highest concentration near blood vessels. The

tumor cells migrate toward the blood vessels along the HGF gradient, adding directionality to the

migration of the tumor cell-macrophage paracrine loop engaged partners. **B)** In an inactive TMEM

doorway (box), with the absence of any CSF-1 secreted by the TMEM doorway tumor cell (TTC),

the VEGF-A remains within the TMEM doorway macrophage (TM). The blood vessels, including

the TMEM doorway endothelial cell (TEC) within the tumor remain sealed and do not allow tumor

cells to intravasate through TMEM doorways. **C)** In contrast, in an active TMEM doorway, CSF-1

is secreted by the TMEM doorway tumor cell and binds to macrophage CSF-1R, stimulating the

TMEM doorway macrophage to secrete its VEGF-A. VEGF-A causes vascular opening (TAVO

event) and allows tumor cells to intravasate through the TMEM doorway, creating CTCs, and

dextran or blood to leak out of the vessel. **D)** These circulating tumor cells (CTCs) travel through

the vasculature to secondary sites where TMEM doorways are also found in metastatic foci in

lymph nodes and lungs. Thin membranous connections between macrophages and tumor cells

stretch from the macrophage on extravascular side of the blood vessel through the endothelial

junctions and interact with CTCs which could facilitate CTC extravasation at secondary sites.

TMEM doorways in metastases could also be the sites were tumor cells re-intravasate and then

seed tertiary metastases. Figure created with BioRender.com.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5