Adherent-suspension plasticity promotes the dissemination and colonization of circulating tumor cells

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Abstract

Background

The adherent-to-suspension transition (AST) describes how solid tumor cells reprograms their anchorage dependency via defined hematopoietic transcriptional regulators to disseminate into circulating tumor cells (CTCs). It remains unclear, however, whether the dissemination and colonization processes require dynamic plasticity of AST factor expression in CTCs to permit the completion of the metastatic cascade.

Methods

We investigated AST factor-mediated adherent-suspension plasticity (ASP) in a newly developed cell-based dissemination assay. Here we identified a rare population of CTC-like cells spontaneously suspended from highly confluent breast cancer cells under chronic stress conditions that mimic the tumor microenvironment (TME). We investigated the oscillatory dynamics of AST factor expression in these CTC-like cells and their role in dissemination and colonization. Furthermore, we performed a single-cell transcriptomic analysis of matched primary tumors, CTCs, and metastatic lesions from newly enrolled *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients, focusing on the plasticity of AST factor expression during the metastatic cascade *in vivo*.

Results

Using data obtained from the dissemination assay and *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients, we have demonstrated the dynamic regulation of AST factor expression during the dissemination and colonization of CTCs both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. From our dissemination assay of breast cancer cell lines, we show that AST factor induction is required for the reprogramming of anchorage dependency and spontaneous detachment of CTC-like cells. We also show that subsequent AST

factor suppression is required for the reattachment of CTCs during colonization. Single-cell

transcriptome analyses in matched specimens of primary tumor, CTC, and metastatic lesions

obtained from *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients confirmed the oscillatory dynamics of

AST factors and related gene signatures related to the adherent-suspension plasticity.

Conclusion

Our results show that the reprogramming of anchorage dependency in solid tumor cells via AST

factor-mediated ASP plays a critical role in the dissemination and colonization of CTCs. These

findings highlight the potential of targeting AST factors to develop effective anti-metastatic

therapies.

Introduction

Metastasis continues to pose significant challenges in cancer treatment and remains the leading cause of cancer-related deaths. Metastatic dissemination of primary tumor cells requires the detachment of circulating tumor cells (CTCs) into the lymphatic or blood microvasculature, resist anoikis while migrating through the bloodstream, and adapt to foreign microenvironment in distant tissues [1, 2]. The metastatic cascade, therefore, could be perceived as a consequence of cancer cells constantly transitioning between an adherent state and a suspension state [3]. We recently discovered a biological phenomenon, adherent-to-suspension transition (AST), a mechanism that reprograms the anchorage dependency of solid tumor cells via hematopoietic transcription factors termed AST factors to facilitate the dissemination and release of circulating tumor cells (CTCs) [4-7]. Despite the absence of lineage differentiation and EMT (epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition), the induction of AST in solid tumor cells 1) suppresses global integrin/extracellular matrix (ECM) gene expression via YAP-TEAD inhibition to evoke spontaneous cell-matrix dissociation and 2) upregulates globin genes to prevent oxidative stress and permit the acquisition of anoikis resistance. Once in the bloodstream, the resulting CTCs could reattach and colonize distant organs to initiate metastatic outgrowth [8]. It remains unclear, however, whether the regulation of CTC anchorage dependency throughout the metastatic cascade requires dynamic plasticity in AST factor expression.

Previously, we observed in mice an induction of AST factors during melanoma CTC dissemination and a subsequent reduction of these factors in colonized lung nodules to levels resembling those of primary tumor cells, suggesting that AST factor expression can show reversible plasticity [4]. In addition, when we triggered a transient induction and reduction of ectopically expressed AST factors, we observed a strong correlation with the loss and gain of

anchorage dependency. Although it remains unclear whether these plastic changes in AST

expression are important for human cancer metastasis, the direct correlation we observed between

AST factor oscillation and the reprogramming of anchorage dependency led us to pursue the

hypothesis that the dynamic spatiotemporal modulation of AST factor expression is crucial for the

spontaneous dissemination and colonization of CTCs during metastatic outgrowth.

Cell-based techniques for studying CTCs, such as suspension cultures in poly-HEMA

coated plates or colony-forming assays in soft agar, have focused primarily on investigating the

capacity of CTCs to evade anoikis, which is a form of programmed cell death that occurs when

cells detach from the ECM [9, 10]. These *in vitro* cell survival assays examine the ability of cancer

cells to grow in anchorage-independent conditions and have proven to be one of the most rigorous

ways to assess malignancy [11-13]. However, because these assays use trypsinized cells, they

cannot mimic the spontaneous process by which CTCs disseminate *in vivo*, nor can they generate

the exceedingly rare population of CTC-like cells that can freely detach from adherent culture

conditions.

To better explore the anchorage plasticity of disseminated cancer cells, we aimed to

develop an assay that could comprehensively recapitulate more of the metastatic cascade,

beginning with the spontaneous detachment from the primary tumor, the acquisition of anoikis

resistance in circulation, and subsequent colonization in distant organs. We therefore developed

the dissemination assay, which traces the fate of rare population of CTC-like cells as they undergo

dynamic reprogramming of their anchorage plasticity by transitioning between AST and SAT

(suspension-to-adherent transition).

To investigate adherent-suspension plasticity in cancer patients, we established a

comprehensive biobank and analyzed the alteration of AST factor expression during the

dissemination and colonization of CTCs. We enrolled untreated *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients and analyzed single-cell level transcriptomes of matched tissue and liquid biopsy specimens comprising 1) primary tumors, 2) CTCs, and 3) metastatic lesions. To date, most transcriptomic studies in cancer patients seeking to uncover the molecular mechanisms of metastasis have focused on individual analyses of either primary tumors, CTCs, or metastatic lesions. There have also been analyses comparing primary tumors with CTCs or metastatic lesions from unrelated patients [14-18]. To monitor the dynamic plasticity of AST factors and related gene signatures that encompass the metastatic cascade from dissemination to colonization, we have demonstrated the necessity of comparing the transcriptomes of CTCs with the transcriptomes of matched solid tumor counterparts derived from the same patient. Thus, performing a novel cell-based dissemination assay and analyzing single-cell-level transcriptomes of matched specimens from *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients, our study has revealed how anchorage plasticity drives the metastatic cascade in disseminated CTCs via AST factor-mediated ASP.

Results

Oscillatory AST factor dynamics regulate anchorage plasticity in cancer cells.

Malignant tumors are characterized by the mobilization of cancer cells that have lost contact inhibition of proliferation (CIP). This leads to cell crowding-induced hostile tumor microenvironment (TME) that drives dissemination of CTCs from their primary tumor into the blood vessels, as well as their subsequent colonization of distant sites as metastatic lesions. The metastatic cascade, therefore, could be conceived as a consequence of cancer cells constantly transitioning between the adherent and suspension states.

Here, we report a novel cell-based assay termed dissemination assay. Its purpose is to

clarify the mechanisms that govern CTC anchorage plasticity (ASP) during the dissemination and

colonization processes (**Fig. 1A**). Other *in vitro* cell-based assays widely used in the field, such as

suspension culture or colony formation in soft agar, employ trypsinization to artificially detach

cancer cells. This procedure 1) bypasses the selection of cells with the ability to self-disseminate

and 2) limits the assay to examining the ability to acquire anoikis resistance in trypsinized cancer

cells (**Fig. 1B**). The dissemination assay, in contrast, allows for the generation of spontaneously

detached CTC-like cells that resemble the natural perturbation of anchorage dependency that takes

place in malignant cancer cells as they detach from the primary tumor and reattach at metastatic

lesions. Moreover, the dissemination assay allows us to investigate the pathophysiologic cues,

cellular plasticity, and molecular mechanisms that regulate the anchorage plasticity of CTCs *in*

vitro, including the dynamic expression of AST factors in each step.

Interestingly, we found that culturing MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells at high cell

density recapitulates the unfavorable and stressful TME that helps drive malignancy, including the

nutrient deprivation, acidosis, and mechanical stress. These conditions result in the rounding and

detachment of CTC-like cancer cells that resemble the rare population of disseminated CTCs *in*

vivo (**Fig. 1C**). Notably, we found that these spontaneously detached CTC-like breast cancer cells

were then able to acquire anoikis resistance, the capacity for prolonged survival in suspension

culture conditions, and the capacity for reattachment and colonization. We next sought to further

explore the utility of our dissemination assay to distinguish it from other cell-based assays, such

as 1) suspension cultures in poly-HEMA coated plates or 2) colony formation assays in soft agar,

which are both commonly used to measure the capacity of malignant cancer cells to evade anoikis

in a 3D environment. It is important to note that the most common breast cancer cell lines,

including MDA-MB-231, MCF7, BT549, and Hs58T, can survive both suspension culture and the

colony formation assay. In contrast, only MDA-MB-231 cells could survive the dissemination

assay and produce CTC-like cells. The other breast cancer cell lines we tested exhibited contact

inhibition or cell death during the dissemination assay (**Fig. 1D-E**). We hypothesized that the

ability of a cell line to produce CTC-like cells in the dissemination assay would likely also reflect

its metastatic capacity *in vivo*. To test this, we injected each breast cancer cell line into the fat pad

of mice and examined the efficiency with which they disseminated to colonize the lung (**Fig. 1F**).

As expected, despite showing similar primary tumor growth, the cell lines that failed to generate

CTC-like cells in the dissemination assay showed significantly lower metastatic potential and

permitted longer survival than MDA-MB-231 (**Fig. 1G**). This observation correlates with earlier

metastasis map (Metmap) findings classifying MDA-MB-231 as one of the most malignant breast

cancer cell lines (**Fig. S1A**) [19]. Thus, our *in vitro* dissemination assay permits only the most

malignant breast cancer cells to produce spontaneously suspended CTC-like cells.

Next, we asked whether CTC-like cells derived *in vitro* through the dissemination assay

and *in vivo* CTCs exhibit similar characteristics. We were surprised to find that CTC-like cells

recapitulated the aberrant induction of endogenous AST factors, which were highly elevated in

CTCs derived from mouse models and *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients. Detached CTC-

like MDA-MB-231 cells expressed much higher levels of the AST factors IKZF1, IRF8, and NFE2

than their adhesive counterparts that mirrored the primary tumor (**Fig. 1H**). Notably and in contrast

to the CTC-like cells isolated from the dissemination assay, we found significantly lower levels of

these AST factors in cells harvested from suspension culture assay (**Fig. S1B**). To verify whether

the induction of AST factors is required for the spontaneous detachment of CTC-like cells, we

used siRNA to knockdown each factor and measured the dissemination efficiency as an indication

of the viability of CTC-like cells produced by the dissemination assay. Although we previously

showed that the overexpression of a combination of hematopoietic factors enhanced AST

efficiency [4], these knockdown experiments indicated that the depletion of any single AST factor

was sufficient to markedly suppress the formation of CTC-like cells (**Fig. 1I**). Moreover, we found

that pretreatment with thalidomide derivatives like lenalidomide or pomalidomide, which we

previously identified as potential anti-metastatic agents that act by reducing the expression of

IKZF1 in mouse breast cancer models [4], substantially inhibited the production of CTC-like cells

(**Fig. 1J**). These results demonstrate that AST factor induction is required for the detachment and

survival of CTC-like cells in the dissemination assay.

The dissemination assay further allowed us to investigate how the CTC-like cells undergo

reattachment. When we isolated and replated the CTC-like cells to examine their anchorage

plasticity and AST factor expression upon reattachment, we found that CTC-like cells lost their

anchorage independence and readily attached to the culture dish to continue proliferating as

adherent cells. We refer to these newly adherent cells as met-like cells because they seem to

simulate the final stage of the metastatic cascade in which suspended tumor cells in the circulation

regain adhesive properties to reattach and colonize a secondary organ. Surprisingly, we found that

the met-like cells showed a significant reduction in the increased AST factor expression that had

promoted their spontaneous detachment as CTC-like cells, having undergone the suspension-to-

adherent transition (SAT) (**Fig. 1K**). These results show that AST factor dynamics in CTC-like

cells undergoing AST and SAT transition correlate with the anchorage plasticity of solid tumor

cells in a way that is quite distinct from the primary-like or met-like cells. Moreover, because our

results establish AST factors as mechanosensitive transcription factors, the mechanisms

underlying their mechanical regulation in solid tumor cells warrant further investigation.

Proceeding from our previous results establishing the role of AST factor induction in CTC

dissemination, we next asked whether AST factor repression is critical for the reattachment and

colonization of CTCs *in vivo*. We next generated LM2-AST cells from MDA-MB-231 breast

cancer cells selected for its their ability to metastasize to the lung (**Fig. 1L**) [20]. In contrast to

control cells, LM2-AST cells stably expressing AST factors elicited spontaneous detachment and

anoikis resistance. To determine whether the constitutive activation of AST factors in CTCs

impedes lung colonization, we injected LM2-control and LM2-AST cells into the tail vein of

NOD/SCID gamma (NSG) mice (**Fig. 1M**). Remarkably, while the LM2-control cells produced

successful lung metastases, the stable expression of AST factors in LM2-AST cells dramatically

suppressed lung colonization and prolonged survival (**Fig. 1N-P**). This indicates that, while the

induction of AST factors evokes CTC dissemination, the subsequent repression of AST factors in

CTCs is required for colonization. Together, dissemination assay demonstrates that AST factor

dynamics-their induction during the primary-to-CTC transition and their repression during the

CTC-to-mets transition-are critical for the dissemination and colonization of CTCs (**Fig. 1Q-R**).

Adherent-suspension plasticity in the metastatic cascade of *de novo* metastatic

breast cancer patients

We speculated that ASP is a biologically significant process involved in dynamically

regulating the anchorage dependency of CTCs during metastasis *in vivo*. To validate the results

obtained from dissemination assay and assess the clinical relevance of ASP in human subjects, we

recruited 10 newly diagnosed *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients and collected matched

samples consisting of breast primary tumors, blood cells, and metastatic lesions from each patient

(**Table S1**, **Fig. 2A**). Thus, our patient data provides one of the most comprehensive biobanks

available to date by analyzing both tissue and liquid biopsy specimens compared to previous

studies [14-17]. We then used high density microporous (HDM) chips to enrich CTCs from whole

blood via size exclusion. Isolated tissue cells and CTCs were then further processed for single-cell

RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) [21]. We identified epithelial cells, mesenchymal stem cells,

fibroblasts, and various immune cells, such as myeloid cells and lymphocytes (**Fig. S2A-B**).

Within the overall cell population, we identified cancer cells as those co-expressing EPCAM with

the breast cancer-specific cytokeratins KRT5, KRT8, KRT9, KRT17, or KRT18 (**Fig. 2B-C**, **S2A-**

B). A UMAP analysis revealed a clustering of the cells based on patient and tissue of origin.

Interestingly, there was a mixture of cells in the center region consisted of different patients and

tissues, where most CTCs were also located (**Fig.2B**). Surprisingly, this region showed higher

expression levels of AST factors, including IKZF1, NFE2, and IRF8 (**Fig. 2B**). Upon further

examination, we found that the expression of AST factors in CTCs greatly exceeded that of either

primary or metastatic tumor cells, with the levels of IKZF1 and IRF8 rising above the statistical

significance threshold (**Fig. 2C**, **Fig. S2C**). The increase in AST factor expression was consistent

regardless of breast cancer subtype or organ tropism of metastatic tumors. These results

demonstrate the clinical relevance of ASP in the metastatic cascade of human patients by

regulating the anchorage dependency of CTCs.

Previously, when performing a gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) comparing primary

tumors and CTCs, we found significant enrichment of gene sets related to focal adhesion and ECM

organization [4]. We confirmed the upregulation of focal adhesion-related genes in both primary

tumors and metastatic lesions compared to CTCs (**Fig. S2D**) and the enrichment of ECM

organization pathways in metastatic tumors compared to CTCs (**Fig. S2D**). In contrast, CTCs

showed a significant decrease in genes related to ECM components and integrins, and a significant

increase in the hemoglobin genes HBA1 and HBA2, which protect CTCs against reactive oxygen

species (ROS)-induced anoikis (**Fig. 2D**) [4]. These findings in metastatic cancer patients

demonstrate that oscillatory AST factor dynamics lead to anchorage plasticity by altering gene

expression associated with integrin/ECM components and anoikis resistance.

Next, we analyzed the characteristics of CTCs in comparison to their solid tumor

counterparts. We focused on the central region of the UMAP, located at similar points in

pseudotime analysis (**Fig. 2E**). Cells located outside the central region of the UMAP were

clustered together based on cancer stage, tissue origin, and patient identity. The cancer cells were

divided into 25 clusters based on gene expression (**Fig. 2E**). To enrich for CTCs in the central

region, we considered the following factors: 1) increasing the number of CTCs and 2) enhancing

transcript expression similarity among cells, as indicated by a decreased standard deviation of their

respective UMAP1 and UMAP2 values (**Fig. S3A-B**). Based on these criteria, we chose eight

clusters (i.e., clusters 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 20, and 24) to represent the center region of the UMAP

(**Fig. 2E-F, Fig. S3A**). The center region contains 8,823 solid tumor cells, comprising 3,695

primary tumor cells and 5,128 metastatic cancer cells, along with 34 CTCs (**Fig. 2F**). We then

examined AST factor expression in cells located within the central region. Pseudotime analysis of

the central region clusters indicates a significant increase in AST factor expression, including

IKZF1 and IRF8, compared to earlier stages that then decreased again in later stages (**Fig. 2G**).

These observations suggest that the transcriptional profile of solid tumor cells from primary and

metastatic lesions in the central region resembles that of CTCs, indicating an intermediate state,

not yet fully transformed into CTCs [9].

To further explore the molecular differences between CTCs and solid tumor cells, as well

as the mechanisms underlying the transition observed in the central region, we compared the

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between the two cell types within this region (**Fig**. **2H,**

S3C), identifying 1,223 CTC-specific and 59 solid tumor-specific genes (**Fig. 2H**). By performing

a gene ontology (GO) analysis of the CTC-specific genes, we noticed enrichment of a gene set

related to rRNA processing, suggesting ribosome biogenesis is necessary for the protein synthesis

that facilitates CTC survival and metastatic potential (**Fig**. **2I**). Although not all superoxide

resistance pathways were enriched in the GO analysis, the CTCs in the central region showed

specific upregulation of hemoglobin gene, HBA1, which plays an antioxidant role and provides

cells with resistance to anoikis, enhancing their metastatic potential (**Fig**. **2J**). In contrast, GO

analysis of the solid tumor-specific genes revealed enrichment for terms related to cell adhesion

and ECM production (**Fig**. **2I**). These results highlight the distinct cellular behavior of CTCs and

solid tumor cells. While CTCs tend to exhibit dynamic, non-adherent properties essential for the

survival in circulation, solid tumor cells maintain strong adhesion to the ECM.

Psuedotime analysis provided further insights into this transition by revealing that while

most solid tumor cells did not express AST factors (AST-negative cells), some positioned at

pseudotime points similar to CTCs did exhibit AST factor expression (AST-positive cells) (**Fig**.

2E-F). To further investigate the differences between these AST-positive and AST-negative solid

tumor cells, we conducted DEG analyses comparing the corresponding primary and metastatic

tumors. This allowed us to identify 2,112 AST-positive-specific genes and 166 AST-negative-

specific genes in the primary tumors versus 1,284 AST-positive-specific genes and 213 AST-

negative-specific genes in the metastatic tumors (**Fig**. **2K**). Underscoring the similarity of the two

conditions, we found a considerable overlap of 997 AST-positive-specific genes and 45 AST-

negative-specific genes that were shared between the primary and metastatic tumors. A GO

analysis of these AST-positive-specific genes revealed enrichment in the MAPK- ERK1/2 cascade,

which is associated with antioxidant expression, anoikis resistance, and metalloproteinase-

mediated ECM degradation (**Fig**. **2L**) [22-25]. In the AST-positive cells, we also identified genes

related to extravasation, which suggests that, like CTCs, these cells possess increased invasive

properties. In contrast, GO analysis of the AST-negative-specific genes revealed enrichment in

pathways related to anchoring junctions, ECM, and focal adhesions, which promote cell adhesion

and structural integrity (**Fig**. **2L**). GSEA analysis confirmed that AST-negative cells in both

primary and metastatic tumors showed significant enrichment in gene sets related to tight junctions

and ECM organization (**Fig**. **2M**). This further supports the notion that AST-negative cells are

characterized by strong adhesion properties. In contrast, AST-positive cells, particularly in the

central region, co-expressed genes involved in the MAPK cascade, ERK1/2 cascade, and

extravasation. Thus, some solid tumor cells exhibit an expression pattern like that of CTCs,

indicating the presence of cells with CTC-like characteristics within the solid tumor population.

Finally, we analyzed RNA velocity to clarify the correlation of AST factor expression

dynamics with the expression of integrin/ECM-related, antioxidant-related, and EMT-related

genes (**Fig. 2F, S3D**). Although we found no correlation between AST factors and EMT-related

genes, there was a correlation between EMT-related genes and ECM-related genes, which

correlates with our previous study that AST is independent of EMT.

Discussion

The progression and spread of cancer depend on the cellular mechanisms that enable cancer

cells to disseminate from the primary tumor, survive in the circulatory system as CTCs, and

establish secondary tumors at distant sites. This complex metastatic cascade is governed by a

multitude of biological processes, among which adherent-suspension plasticity (ASP) has emerged

as a crucial determinant.

Our research highlights that ASP, regulated by the dynamic oscillation of AST factors,

plays a fundamental role in facilitating the metastatic spread of breast cancer cells. The plasticity

of AST factor expression during metastasis allows cancer cells to shift between adherent and

suspension states, enabling them to detach from the primary tumor, survive in the bloodstream,

and eventually reattach and colonize secondary sites. The reversible nature of ASP adds a dynamic

layer to the metastatic process, suggesting that the transition between adherent and suspension

states is not merely a binary switch but rather a finely tuned continuum influenced by intrinsic

reprogramming factors.

We developed a cell-based experiment termed dissemination assay that simulates how

CTCs could achieve spontaneous detachment, anoikis resistance, and reattachment during their

journey through the bloodstream. This assay allowed us to elucidate the role of AST factors during

the transition of solid tumor cells into CTC-like cells and validate our findings with patient-derived

CTCs from individuals with *de novo* metastatic breast cancer. The results confirmed the pivotal

role of AST factors in spontaneous CTC dissemination both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. We also

demonstrated that, while AST factors facilitate the initial detachment and anoikis resistance of

CTCs, their downregulation is essential for the reattachment and successful colonization of cancer

cells at distant metastatic sites. This indicates that metastatic success depends on the ability of

cancer cells to adapt their anchorage dependency to each stage of metastasis. Suspension

characteristics mobilize CTCs into the bloodstream, whereas reattachment and colony formation

necessitate a reversion to adherent traits within the microenvironment of secondary sites. These

insights challenge the conventional understanding of metastasis as a linear progression and instead

propose a model in which anchorage plasticity plays a central role in cancer cells to spread during

metastasis. ASP thus represents a novel cellular plasticity mechanism analogous to epithelial-

mesenchymal plasticity (EMP), another well-established process that facilitates metastasis,

however, limited to the transition between two different adhesive cell types. How cancer cells

orchestrate ASP and EMP during each stage of the metastatic cascade warrants further

investigation.

Our findings underscore the pivotal role of ASP in the metastatic cascade, as demonstrated

by scRNA-seq analysis of paired samples from *de novo* metastatic breast cancer patients,

encompassing matched primary tumors, CTCs, and metastatic lesions. This dataset offers

invaluable insights into tumor progression, adaptability, and heterogeneity across metastatic stages

in individual patients. The aggregation of CTCs from different patients within the central region

of the UMAP signifies that CTCs exhibit similar transcriptomic profiles despite their origin.

Importantly, the significant expression of AST factors not only in CTCs but also in their

intermediate solid tumor counterparts from pseudotime analysis indicate that anchorage plasticity

from AST to SAT is an adaptive and continuous process throughout the metastatic cascade. The

consistency of these trends across tumor subtypes and metastatic locations underscores the broad

significance of AST factors as theragnostic biomarkers of metastasis. To elucidate the role of

tumor microenvironment as an upstream mediator of AST factors, the spatiotemporal expression

patterns of AST factors using matched longitudinal specimens warrants further investigation.

Our study provides the rationale for clinical implementation of therapeutic strategies that

target AST factors and related mechanisms. For example, therapies designed to inhibit the

transition from adherent-to-suspension states, referred to as anti-disseminating agents, could

potentially be used as neoadjuvant therapies or alone to impede the initial detachment of cancer

cells from the primary tumor, thereby reducing the number of CTCs and the likelihood of metastatic spread. Conversely, strategies that prevent the reattachment of CTCs at secondary sites could hinder metastatic colonization, offering a two-pronged approach to tackle metastasis. Furthermore, our dissemination assay provides a novel platform for screening potential anti-metastatic agents. Traditional assays often fail to capture the full spectrum of phenotypic transitions that occur during metastasis, focusing instead on static endpoints such as cell proliferation or invasion. In contrast, our assay dynamically assesses the ability of cancer cells to undergo adhesive transition, offering a more comprehensive evaluation of their metastatic potential and the efficacy of therapeutic interventions. A deeper exploration into the genetic and epigenetic regulation of AST factors could yield additional mechanistic insights into ASP. Understanding how AST factors are modulated during different stages of metastasis, and the interplay between ASP and other forms of cellular plasticity, such as EMP, warrants further investigation to delineate how these processes collectively contribute to the completion of metastasis.

Together, our findings highlight the unprecedented role of ASP in breast cancer metastasis. ASP provides a novel theoretical basis in cancer metastasis and suggests AST factors as promising therapeutic targets to tackle the metastatic spread of solid tumor cells. Clinically, moving beyond the primary tumor-centric point-of-view, our data expand the prevailing cancer treatment paradigm toward direct intervention within the metastatic processes. The availability of cell-based platforms that measure ASP efficiency and multi-omics database of matched longitudinal patient samples could facilitate future research opportunities, including individualized metastasis prediction models, hence augmenting the potential for developing effective anti-metastatic therapies [26].

Conclusion

Our results demonstrate that ASP mediated by the plasticity of AST factors is critical for the metastatic dissemination and colonization of solid tumor-derived CTCs. Using a novel dissemination assay and single-cell transcriptomic analyses of matched metastatic breast cancer patient specimens, we elucidate the dynamic plasticity of AST factor expression in solid tumor cells that promotes the transition between adherent and suspension states, enabling CTCs to detach, resist aniokis, and reattach at distant metastatic sites. These findings highlight the potential of targeting AST factors to develop effective anti-metastatic therapies.

Abbreviation

AST : Adherent-to-Suspension Transition

SAT : Suspension-to-Adherent Transition

ASP : Adherent-Suspension Plasticity

Mets : Metastases

CTCs : circulating tumor cells

LEN : Lenalidomide

POM: Pomalidomide

t-SNE : t-stochastic neighbor embedding

UMAP : Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection

NSG : NOD/SCID gamma

399   DEGs : differentially expressed genes

400   PCA : Principal components analysis

401   nTPM : normalized transcripts per kilobase million

402   GO : Gene Ontology

403   UMIs : unique molecular identifiers

Declarations

Ethical approval

Ethical approval for the use of human subjects was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of Gangnam Severance Hospital, Yonsei University, Seoul, Republic of Korea (3-2021-0236) in compliance with the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki, and informed written consent was obtained from each patient. Collection of human breast cancer samples were obtained from consenting patients in accordance with guidelines and regulations approved by the Institutional Review Board of Gangnam Severance Hospital, Yonsei University Health System (3-2021-0236). The animal experiment protocols were reviewed and approved by the Yonsei University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC).

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Authors' contributions

H.D.H., Y.S., and J.H.K. performed most of the experiments. H.L., B.J.H., W.Y.P. performed drug treatment and imaging. J.O., and D.K.L. performed transcriptome analyses. H.-C.L., S.P., and J.C. performed CTC isolation and scRNA-seq. Y.S.C. performed experiments regarding matrix stiffness and cell imaging. J.J., H.Y.G., and H.W.P. designed the study and wrote the manuscript.

Data and material availability

All single cell RNA sequencing data are deposited in the Korean Nucleotide Archive (KoNA, https://www.kobic.re.kr/kona/) and the Korean BioData Station (KBDS, https://www.kobic.re.kr/kbds/). The KoNA data is deposited under project ID KAP220346, and the KBDS data is deposited under project ID KAP240986.

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515 **Figure 1. AST plasticity in the novel *in vitro* dissemination assay.**

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Figure 1. AST plasticity in the novel *in vitro* dissemination assay.

A, Schematic overview of the dissemination assay. **B**, Schematic overview of 3 different assays for cancer malignancy and the steps of the metastatic cascade they address. **C**, Time-lapse microscopy images showing spontaneous cell detachment of MDA-MB-231 cells in the dissemination assay. **D**, Representative fluorescence images MCF7, BT549, Hs578T and MDA-MB-231 cells stained for viability with propidium iodide. Red, dead. Scale bars, 100 μm. **E**, Representative images of MCF7, BT549, Hs578T and MDA-MB-231 cell morphology in the indicated assay conditions. **F**, Schematic overview of mammary fat pad xenografts of 4 different breast cancer cell lines. **G**, Kaplan-Meier survival plot showing the survival rates of mice injected with MCF7, BT549, Hs578T, or MDA-MB-231 cells. **H**, Representative images of suspended MDA-MB-231 cell morphology in the dissemination assay and quantitative real-time PCR analysis of AST factor transcript levels in CTC-like cells. **I**, Dissemination efficiency for MDA-MB-231 cells following siRNA-mediated AST factor depletion. N = 3. **J**, Dissemination efficiency for MDA-MB-231 cells following treatment with lenalidomide or pomalidomide. N = 3. **K**, Representative images of re-attached MDA-MB-231 cell morphology in the dissemination assay and quantitative real-time PCR analysis of AST factor transcript levels in met-like cells compared to CTC-like cells. **L**, Representative images of LM2-mock or 3AST cell (LM2 cells expressing AST factors) morphology on a culture plate or in media. **M**, Schematic overview of tail vein injections with 3AST cells. **N**, Bioluminescence images of lung metastases after LM2 tail vein injections. **O**, Lung metastases quantified by lung bioluminescence intensity for mock versus 3AST cells. **P**, Kaplan-Meier survival plot showing the survival rates of mice injected with mock or 3AST cells. N = 10. **Q, R**, Schematic illustrating mechanistic insights and significance of AST plasticity in the context of the metastatic cascade.

Figure 2. AST plasticity in matched single cell RNA-seq samples from *de novo* breast cancer patients.

A, Schematic overview of the isolation and scRNA-seq analysis of primary tumor cells, circulating tumor cells (CTCs), and metastatic tumor cells from de novo metastatic breast cancer patients (n = 10). CTCs were isolated using HDM chips. **B,** Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of scRNA-seq cells (n = 10; 54,866 cells) colored by patient, origin, tissue, and normalized gene expression of the AST factors IKZF1, IRF8, and NFE2. Black border lines, area in which the CTCs are located. **C**, Dynamite plots showing the expression of (left) IKZF1, (middle) IRF8, and (right) NFE2 in primary tumor cells, CTCs, and metastatic tumor cells. ****, $P < 0.0001$; n.s, not significant ($P > 0.05$). **D,** Heatmaps showing normalized expression of four gene sets—ECM, integrins, antioxidant defense genes, and EMT-related genes—in primary tumors, CTCs, and metastases. The average normalized expression values for cells within each group are displayed as scaled values. Black-bordered box, HBA1 and HBA2. **E**, UMAP plot showing (left) pseudotime, (middle) a division between the central region containing complex clusters with CTCs and others, and (right) clusters calculated at a resolution of 0.5. Dotted arrow, flow of pseudotime for the normalized gene expression of the AST factors IKZF1, IRF8, and NFE2. **F**, UMAP of the central region colored according to origin, AST positivity, and RNA velocity. **G**, Pseudotime expression plots showing AST factors. X-axis, pseudotime; y-axis, expression levels; gray dots, others; yellow dots, central region; orange dots, CTCs; red line, linear expression trend using generalized additive modeling (GAM). **H**, Heatmap showing differentially expressed genes (DEGs). DEGs were identified based on comparisons between solid tumor cells and CTCs within the central region and selected with a threshold p-value < 0.05. There were 1,223 CTC DEGs and 59 solid tumor DEGs. **I**, Gene ontology tree showing the CTC-specific gene set and the solid tumor-specific gene set with a bar plot showing

the gene names and the p-values corresponding to the circles marked with roman numerals.

Colored circles, statistically significant, FDR corrected $P < 0.01$. **J**, Violin plots with dots

showing HBA1 expression. The first plot compares the central region with other groups, while

the second plot compares CTCs with solid tumor cells within the central region. Yellow, central

region; gray, others; orange, CTCs within the central region; turquoise, solid tumor cells within

the central region; ****, $P < 0.0001$; n.s, not significant ($P > 0.05$). **K**, Heatmap showing DEGs.

In a comparison of cells with and without AST factor expression in both primary and metastatic

tumors, the DEG thresholds were defined as an FDR corrected q-value < 0.001 and an absolute

fold change > 2. **L**, Bar plot showing ontology analysis results for the AST-positive and AST-

negative gene sets identified in (**K**). Purple bars, AST-positive gene sets in primary tumors; blue

bars, AST-positive gene sets in metastatic tumors; gray bars, AST-negative gene sets in primary

tumors; light gray bars, AST-negative gene sets in metastatic tumors. **M**, Gene set enrichment

analysis (GSEA) results for tight junction and collagen-containing ECM gene sets within both

primary and metastatic tumors.

Supplementary Figure 1. The dissemination assay is distinct from other assays, such as

the colony formation or suspension assays.

A, Petal plots showing the metastatic patterns of 3 breast cancer cell lines. Data for these plots

were obtained from Jin, X., *et al*. (https://depmap.org/metmap). **B**, Quantitative real-time PCR

analysis of AST factor transcript levels in cells harvested from suspension assay.

Supplementary Figure 2. Comprehensive overview of single cell RNA sequencing

data from breast cancer patients.

A, Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) of scRNA-seq cells (n = 316,539

cells) colored by patient, origin, cell type, normalized gene expression of cancer cell markers

(EPCAM, KRT5, KRT7, KRT8, KRT18, and KRT19), cancer/non-cancer annotation, and the

combined cancer/non-cancer and adherent/suspension annotation. **B**, Bar plots showing a

breakdown of cell type composition across tumor, blood, and metastasis samples. The first row

shows the proportion of various cell types in total cells, cancer cells, and normal cells. The

second row shows the proportion of cancer cells versus normal cells, adherent versus suspension

cells within cancer and normal cells, and adherent versus suspension cells within normal cells. **C**,

Dynamite plots depicting the expression of the AST factors IKZF1, IRF8, and NFE2 in cancer

cells from primary tumor, blood, and metastases, as well as normal cells split into adherent and

suspension states. **D**, Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) plots for focal adhesion and ECM

organization gene sets comparing CTCs to primary tumor or metastatic cells.

Supplementary Figure 3. Central region-specific cell populations and CTC–solid tumor

divergence in scRNA sequencing data.

A, UMAP of cancer cells categorized into the central region and others. A magnified view of the

central region is also shown to highlight its specific clusters. **B**, Boxplots of 1,081,575 cluster

combinations (binomial coefficient with n = 25, k-permutation = 8) presenting numbers of CTCs,

originating tissues, and total cells with standard deviations (SDs) for UMAP1 and UMAP2. Yellow

dot, selected cluster combination; CTCs, n = 34, 11.93%; originating tissues, n = 7, 8.83%; total

cells, n = 8,857, 99.31%; UMAP1 SD, 2.77, 90.69%; UMAP2 SD, 2.49, 0.36%. **C**, UMAP of cells

in the central region colored by anchorage status. Turquoise, solid tumor; orange, CTCs. **D**,

Heatmap of RNA velocity correlations among AST factor, ECM, integrin, superoxide resistance

genes, and EMT genes.

Table S1. Overview of patient information used for single cell transcriptome analysis.

Patient #	Metastasis tissue	Subtype	Total cell counts			Cancer cell counts		
			Tumor	Blood	Meta	Tumor	Blood	Meta
patient1	liver	Her2	1,746	7,209	2,411	659	2	1,033
patient2	neck	Luminal-B	13,246	9,499	-	9,198	-	-
patient3	lung	Her2	14,254	25,180	11,982	516	1	2,531
patient4	lung	Luminal-B	-	25,394	10,900	-	2	7,507
patient5	brain	Her2	1,569	19,071	-	82	1	-
patient6	lung	TNBC	3,612	13,166	5,034	324	1	19
patient7	lymph	Luminal-A	9,572	26,768	9,404	4,438	8	5,833
patient8	neck	TNBC	11,741	9,117	12,746	1,257	7	13
patient9	liver	Luminal-A	8,077	21,471	16,458	5,032	9	11,641
patient10	lymph	TNBC	5,795	14,629	10,138	4,721	19	13
			69,612	171,504	79,073	26,227	50	28,590

619 **Movie S1. Dissemination assay of various breast cancer cell lines**

620 **A**, Video of MCF7 cell proliferation in the dissemination assay.

621 **B**, Video of BT549 cell proliferation in the dissemination assay.

622 **C**, Video of HS578T cell proliferation in the dissemination assay.

623 **D**, Video of MDA-MB-231 cell proliferation in the dissemination assay.

METHODS

DNA constructs

AST genes were tagged with V5 and subcloned into the pENTR4 vector (Addgene, 17425 and 17423) using standard molecular cloning techniques. The resulting subcloned vectors were then recombined with the destination vector pLentiCMV (Addgene, 17293) using LR recombinase (Invitrogen, 1179019), generating the final lentiviral expression vectors.

Cell culture

Cells were maintained in a 37 °C humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. HEK293T, MCF7, HS578T and MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in DMEM (Hyclone, SH30022.01). BT549 cells were cultured in RPMI (Hyclone, SH30027.01). Culture media were supplemented with 10% FBS (Hyclone, SV30207.02) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Invitrogen, 15140122).

Dissemination assay

Dissemination assays were performed using MDA-MB-231, MCF7, BT549, and HS578T cells, with each cell line cultured in its own respective growth media. For the assay, the cells were seeded on normal plates at 80% confluency on the first day and then maintained for 3 days without any media changes. After 3 days, the cells surpass 100% confluency, resulting in very high cell density. After the old media were replaced with fresh media, the cells were cultured for an additional 3 days at 100% confluency. We noticed MDA-MB-231 cells began to round up and detach from the plate beginning on the second day after the media change. By the third day, we observed a higher number of CTC-like cells. These detached CTC-like cells were harvested by collecting the media, followed by centrifugation to isolate the cells. For MCF7 cells, despite the media change, the cells

began to die after 3 days. Although BT549 and HS578T cells did not exhibit cell death, they did

cease proliferating.

Viral infection

Viral infection was performed as previously described [27]. To generate lentiviral particles,

HEK293T cells were transfected with plasmids encoding pMD2G and psPAX2, along with the

lentiviral vectors containing the desired constructs. Transfections were performed using Polyplus

Reagent (Merck) according to the manufacturer's protocol. At 48 hours post-transfection, media

containing the viral particles were harvested from the transfected cells. The harvested media were

then filtered through a 0.45 μm filter to remove cellular debris. To enhance infection efficiency,

the filtered media were supplemented with 8 mg/ml polybrene. The transduced cells were infected

with the lentiviral particles by incubating them with the filtered media. After 24 hours of infection,

the media were changed, and the cells were incubated for another 24 hours. Then, transduced cells

were selected using puromycin. The selection process allowed for the enrichment of cells that

successfully integrated the lentiviral vectors and expressed the desired genes or markers.

Cell viability assay

In vitro cell viability was assessed using the CellTiter Glo® 2.0 cell viability assay (Promega,

G9241) and the LIVE/DEAD® cell imaging kit (ThermoFisher, R37601) according to their

manufacturers' protocols. For the suspension assay, cells were plated on Corning® Costar® Ultra-

Low Attachment Multiple-Well Plates (Merck, CLS3471).

Quantitative real-time PCR analysis

Cellular RNA samples were collected via RNA extraction using the RNeasy Plus mini kit

(QIAGEN, 74136). These RNA samples were then reverse transcribed into complementary DNA

(cDNA) using iScript reverse transcriptase (Bio-Rad, 1708891). The KAPA SYBR FAST qPCR

kit (Kapa Biosystems, KK4605) and the 7300 real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) were

used for quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR). The following primer sequences were used for

qPCR: IKZF1, 5'-TTTCAGGGAAGGAAAGCCCC-3' (forward) and 5'-

CTCCGCACATTCTTCCCCAT-3' (reverse); NFE2, 5'-ACAGCTGTCCACTTCAGAGC-3'

(forward) and 5'-TGAGCAGGGGCAGTAAGTTG-3' (reverse); IRF8, 5'-

AGCATGTTCCGGATCCCTTG-3' (forward) and 5'-CGGTCCGTCACTTCCTCAAA-3'

(reverse); and ACTB, 5'-GCCGACAGGATGCAGAAGGAGATCA-3'(forward) and 5'-

AAGCATTTGCGGTGGACGATGGA-3'(reverse).

siRNA transfection

A transfection mix was prepared by combining 100 µl of Opti-MEM™ medium (ThermoFisher,

#31985070), 12 µl of RNAi Max transfection reagent (Invitrogen, 13778150), and 2 µl of 20 µM

siRNA. The following siRNAs were used for transfection: non-silencing (NS) siRNA (Dharmacon

siGENOME non-targeting control pool #D-001206-13-200), siIKZF1 (Dharmacon siGENOME

SMARTPool #M-019092-01-0010), siNFE2 (Dharmacon siGENOME SMARTPool #M-010049-

00-0010), siIRF8 (Dharmacon siGENOME SMARTPool #M-011699-01-0010), and siPOU2F2

(Dharmacon siGENOME SMARTPool #M-019690-01-0010).

Mouse model experiments

All animal experiment protocols in this study underwent a thorough review and received approval

from the Yonsei University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). All

procedures involving animals adhered to the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory

Animals. The NOD SCID Gamma (NSG) mice used for orthotopic injection experiments were

obtained from JA Bio. For the orthotopic mouse model experiments, mammary fat pads of 7-week-

old female NSG mice were orthotopically injected with 1×10^6 MCF7, BT549, HS578T, or MDA-

MB-231 cells. For the mouse tail vein injection experiments, the tail veins of 7-week-old female

NSG mice were injected with 1×10^5 MDA-MB-231 derivative LM2 cells. At week 4, the mice

were euthanized for bioluminescence imaging using the In Vivo Imaging Spectrum (IVIS) device

(PerkinElmer, CLS136331 IVIS Lumina LT Inst, Series III, 120 V). All *in vivo* experiments were

carried out using mice that had received the same treatment. The NSG mice used in these

experiments possessed an identical genotype and genetic background.

Statistical analyses

All quantitative data were obtained from at least three independent biological replicates. Data are

presented as means ± standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise noted in the figure legends.

Statistical differences between two groups were examined using two-tailed, unpaired Student's t-

tests or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni corrections for multiple

comparisons. Statistical tests were performed using the GraphPad Prism 9.0 software (GraphPad

Software, CA, USA). Two-sided p-values of less than 0.05 were considered significant. No

statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size. Sample size was based on previous

experience with experimental variability. Blinding was performed wherever possible during all

sample analysis by coding sample identity during data collection and having the analysis

performed by an observer without knowledge of or access to the experimental conditions.

Bioinformatics of primary tumor cells, CTCs, and metastatic cancer cells

The illumina outputs for human samples were mapped to the human reference genome (GRCh38)

using Cell Ranger 7.1.0 (10X Genomics). Gene-wise read counts for genes with at least 500 reads

were exported from Cell Ranger to the Matrix Market format and imported into R with Seurat's

Read10X function. An average of > 135 million reads from > 13,000 cells were obtained for each

sample. Each 10X library was individually checked for quality, and the cells were filtered

according to the same criteria used in our previous study to ensure good gene coverage [4]. After

quality control filtering, a total of 310,189 cells remained, with 69,612 cells from the primary

tumor site, 171,504 cells from the blood, and 79,073 cells from the metastatic site (**Table 1**).

Samples were combined via an algorithm implemented in Seurat. The default Seurat function

settings were used, and 1:20 principal component dimensions were used for all dimension

reduction and integration steps. The cluster resolutions were set to 0.5, unless otherwise stated.

The RunUMAP random seed was set to 1,000 to ensure reproducibility. Marker genes for cell

clusters were identified using Seurat's FindMarkers function with the default settings. Cell type

annotation was performed using the SingleR package (v2.6.0) with the HumanProteinAtlas

database from the celldex package (v1.14.0). Cells co-expressing EPCAM and cytokeratins such

as KRT5, KRT8, KRT9, KRT17, or KRT18 were designated as cancer cells. A total of 54,867

cells were used for the analysis, including 26,227 cells from the primary tumor site, 50 cells from

the blood, and 28,590 cells from metastatic sites (**Table 1**). The cells designated as cancer cells

were subsequently extracted and reanalyzed beginning with the normalization process. DEGs were

selected with thresholds for the FDR corrected p-value < 0.001 and an absolute $\log_2$ fold change

$\geq$ 1. GO analysis was performed using the gseGO function from clusterProfiler (v3.0.4). GSEA

plots were generated from the DEG data using the gseaplot function. Pseudotime analysis was

performed using the monocle package (v3.0) with normalized data, UMAP coordinates, and cluster

information obtained from the initial Seurat analysis. The calculation of gene set scores along

pseudotime was conducted for each cell using the AddModuleScore function in Seurat. All plots

were exported to the PDF format using R and their dimensions were adjusted in Illustrator.