Brain FGF2 and NCAM1 contribute to FGFR1-dependent progression of ER+ breast cancer brain metastases in young and aged hosts

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ABSTRACT

Estrogen receptor positive (ER+) breast cancer represents a significant proportion of breast cancer brain metastasis but remains understudied. Here, we report that FGFR1-amplification, a well-established driver of ER+ breast cancer endocrine resistance, promotes ER+ breast cancer brain metastatic colonization in young and aged female mice, through both canonical FGF2/FGFR1 signaling and non-canonical NCAM1/FGFR1 interactions. Astrocytic FGF2-mediated paracrine activation of FGFR1 promoted breast cancer brain metastasis in estrogen-treated young mice, but FGF2 levels and signaling decreased in the brain with aging and estrogen-depletion. Neuronal and astrocytic NCAM1, which remain unchanged in young and aged brains, promoted adhesion to neurons, migration, and growth of ER+ cells, suggesting that interactions with astrocytes and neurons facilitate early ER+ breast cancer brain metastasis colonization through FGFR1. Importantly, FDA-approved FGFR inhibitors effectively blocked early colonization but not late-stage brain metastases, suggesting prevention of FGFR1+ brain metastases as a window of opportunity for FGFR1 inhibitors.

INTRODUCTION

The management of breast cancer brain metastases (BCBM) has emerged as a critical need for metastatic breast cancer (BC) patients[1]. Once diagnosed, brain metastases (BM) remain incurable, and more than 80% of patients die within one year of their diagnosis[2,3]. While BCBM show increased incidence in HER2+ and triple-negative (TNBC, lacking estrogen-receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR) and HER2 amplification) subtypes, up to 16% of patients with metastatic ER+ BC develop BM, and represent a large fraction of patients living with BCBM[4-6].

ER+ BC is effectively treated with anti-estrogen therapies, yet metastatic ER+ BC commonly arises in older women with tumors refractory to these therapies[5]. ER+ BCBM remains understudied, partly due to the dearth of ER+ mouse models that acquire estrogen (17β-estradiol, E2) independence and express drivers of endocrine resistance observed in humans[7-9]. Although human-derived ER+ transplantable tumors and cell lines (patient-derived xenografts, PDXs) are broadly used to study ER+ BC, their growth in mice requires supplementation with E2 mimicking premenopausal levels, as opposed to more relevant post-menopausal or post-endocrine therapy E2 levels in women[7,8,10-12]. Here, we demonstrate that the aged tumor microenvironment (TME) supports the progression of ER+ BC cells in the absence of E2-supplementation, providing clinically relevant models that mimic the natural progression of metastatic ER+ BC.

Mechanisms of acquired and innate resistance to anti-estrogens in ER+ BC have been the focus of extensive research; yet how specific niches at metastatic sites contribute to endocrine resistance and metastatic recurrence are less understood. FGFR1-amplification was recently reported as the only genomic alteration associated with increased risk of late recurrence in post-menopausal women with ER+ early BC on aromatase inhibitor therapy[13]. Aberrations in FGFR signaling have emerged as critical predictors of metastatic progression in ER+ BC following endocrine therapies[13-18]. A recent study showed that ER+ breast tumors acquire an FGFR4-associated signature that correlated with worse prognosis and provided significant and independent prognostic information for brain, liver, and lung metastasis in ER+ tumors only[15], and suggested that microenvironmental features (either growth factors or specific cell-cell contact) may facilitate growth at metastatic sites. FGFR1 aberrations are

significantly higher in BCBM patients compared to non-BM in metastatic BC and predicted poor

prognosis[19], further suggesting that FGFR1 may play a specific role in BCBM promotion.

Tyrosine kinase receptor amplification often results in ligand-independent autoactivation; however,

FGFR1-amplification alone is insufficient to drive E2-independent growth in models of ER+ BC primary

tumors[20]. In the brain, FGFR1 plays known roles in development and is implicated in synaptic repair

and maintenance[21-28]. Although FGFRs typically signal through their cognate FGF ligands, FGFR1 also

binds the neural cell adhesion molecule (NCAM), which is abundantly expressed on the surface of

neurons and glial cells, and has been shown to activate FGFR1 signaling and regulate synaptic

plasticity[21,29-37]. Here, we demonstrate that FGFR1 amplification confers a context-dependent

advantage to ER+ BC cells by enhancing brain seeding and outgrowth through microenvironmental

activation rather than cell-intrinsic receptor autophosphorylation. ER+ FGFR1+ cells have increased

ability to colonize the brain in young and aged/E2-suppressed mice, both through canonical

FGF2/FGFR1 signaling and non-canonical NCAM1/FGFR1 signaling. We show that canonical

FGF2/FGFR1 signaling decreases in the brain with aging and E2-depletion, and that astrocyte-derived

FGF2 drives FGFR1-dependent early brain colonization in young hosts, while NCAM1 serves as a non-

canonical FGFR1 activator that promotes brain colonization under aged, low-FGF2 conditions.

Importantly, paracrine activation of FGFR1 is critical for early brain colonization but not late-stage brain

metastases, suggesting a window of opportunity for FGFR inhibitors to block early colonization in

women at high risk of BM.

RESULTS

ER+ BCBM models recapitulate clinical progression of ER+ BC metastases throughout the lifespan

Analysis of BCBM samples showed that 41/85 (48.2%) originated from ER+ primary BC, with only 14/41 (34.1%) also harboring HER2-amplification (ER+ HER2+), suggesting that the majority of ER+ BCBM are not driven by HER2-amplification (**Fig. 1a**). Patients with ER+ BCBM were primarily postmenopausal at BM diagnosis, either due to age (>50 years) or prior endocrine therapy (**Fig. 1b,c**). Given the lack of ER+ BC models capable of spontaneous brain colonization, we determined the brain-homing ability of ER+ BC cells following hematogenous dissemination. Four BC PDX-derived cell lines[38] were injected intracardially in young (<12 weeks) female mice, supplemented with E2 to mimic premenopausal human levels[10] and required to drive ER+ BC growth in mice[39]. These cells colonized multiple organs, with brain colonization in 0% (UCD46), 20% (UCD4), 40% (UCD12), and 80% (UCD65) (**Fig. 1d**). Since the majority of ER+ BCBM develops following endocrine therapies, we next determined whether ER+ cells could spontaneously disseminate and outgrow upon endocrine therapy/E2-depletion. For this, we implanted UCD4 or UCD65 cells in the mammary fat pad of young ovariectomized (OVX) female NSG mice supplemented with E2 and allowed tumors to grow until reaching 1 cm^3 to mimic E2-dependent dissemination. Upon tumor removal, mice were randomized into 1) continued E2 supplementation (E2, mimicking E2-dependent metastatic progression in younger women); 2) E2 withdrawal (EWD, mimicking ovarian suppression in younger women); and 3) EWD + letrozole (mimicking full E2-depletion used in post-menopausal women) (**Supplementary Fig. 1a,f**). UCD4 remained E2-dependent for brain and extracranial growth and for dissemination to the brain and other organs (**Supplementary Fig. 1b-e**). BCBM continued growing in a subset of EWD mice, with macrometastasis incidence of 22.2% in the EWD group and 11% in the EWD+LET group. By contrast, E2 did not promote growth of spontaneously disseminated UCD65 cells in the brain but supported growth extracranially (**Supplementary Fig. 1g,h**). While E2 and EWD+LET-treated mice all showed evidence of disseminated UCD65 cells in the brain, mice succumbed to primary tumor recurrence or extracranial metastases (**Supplementary Fig. 1i,j**). Thus, these models fully recapitulate spontaneous

ER+ BC metastasis and provide evidence that ER+ BCBM emerge under E2-depletion conditions *in*

vivo.

Given the low BM outgrowth in spontaneous metastases models which prevents mechanistic studies,

we used intracardiac injection, mimicking early events of brain colonization, to determine the BM

capability of UCD65 cells in young or aged mice (**Fig. 1e**). Consistent with the known E2-dependence

of ER+ cells in young mice (<12 weeks), young OVX+ E2 injected with UCD65 cells showed increased

extracranial and brain metastasis, with 100% (13/13) mice showing histological evidence of

intraparenchymal BM compared to 50% (7/14) in OVX mice. However, in aged mice (>52 weeks), BM

were detected in 77% (10/13) and extracranial metastases outgrew in 100% of mice despite low

endogenous E2 (**Fig. 1f-h**). BM colonization in aged mice was not dependent on low levels of ovarian

E2 as UCD65 cells showed similar progression of BM and extracranial metastases in OVX or naïve

aged mice, with histological evidence of intraparenchymal BM in 82% (9/11) and 80% (8/10),

respectively (**Fig. 1i-l**). Histological quantification and MRI analysis of young and aged mice harboring

UCD65 BMs confirmed the presence of both intraparenchymal micrometastases and macrometastases

in both aged groups (**Fig. 1h,m, Supplementary Fig. 1k,l**). Furthermore, histological clusters correlate

with head bioluminescence (BLI) signal measured by IVIS (**Supplementary Fig. 1m**). Thus, ER+ BC

cells can grow in high E2/young hosts and in low E2/aged hosts.

FGFR1 drives growth of ER+ BC in the brain TME *ex vivo*

As FGFR1-amplification has been reported as the only genomic alteration that predicts increased risk

of late metastatic recurrence in anti-estrogen-treated ER+ BC[13], we interrogated FGFR1 status in ER+

BCBM clinical samples and cells. Immunohistochemistry showed normal or high FGFR1 expression

that did not correlate with membrane pFGFR1 status in ER+ BCBM (**Fig. 2a**). ER+ cells with increased

brain-colonization ability (UCD12 and UCD65) harbor genomic amplification and increased FGFR1

mRNA and protein expression compared to the low and non-brain metastatic UCD4, UCD46, and

MCF7 cells (**Fig. 2b,c**). FGFR1 amplification in cell lines was not accompanied by increased

autophosphorylation (**Fig. 2c**) or expression of cognate FGFR1-activating ligands (**Supplementary Fig.**

2a), suggesting that FGFR1 function may depend on ligand-dependent activation through the TME

rather than auto-activation due to high receptor expression.

To determine how FGFR1 impacts growth of ER+ BC cells, we stably expressed non-targeting control

(shNC) or FGFR1-targeting shRNAs in UCD12 and UCD65 cells (**Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 2b-e**).

shFGFR1 and shNC cells showed similar growth in E2-deprived media (vehicle) and in response to E2

in 2D culture (**Fig. 2e,f**). However, when cells were grown as spheroids and plated on organotypic brain

slices from young and aged mice, shFGFR1 UCD12 and UCD65 cells showed decreased ability to

survive and grow compared to shNC cells (**Fig. 2g-k**). Furthermore, FGFR1-overexpression in MCF7

cells (**Fig. 2l**) did not alter 2D cell growth under E2-deprived or E2-treated conditions compared to

empty vector (EV) control cells, but promoted growth in co-culture with organotypic brain slices from

young and aged mice (**Fig. 2m-o**). Thus, FGFR1 is a key mediator of survival and growth of ER+ BC

cells in the young and aged brain TME.

FGFR1 promotes BCBM colonization of ER+ cells in the young and aged brain TME

To test how FGFR1 impacted brain colonization *in vivo,* we intracardially injected shNC or shFGFR1

UCD65 cells into young OVX mice supplemented with E2 (**Fig. 3a**). FGFR1 knockdown (KD)

decreased BCBM progression and the number of intraparenchymal metastases but did not affect E2-

driven growth of extracranial metastasis (**Fig. 3b-d**). Injection of shNC or shFGFR1 UCD65 in naïve

aged mice showed that FGFR1 downregulation decreased BCBM progression, the number of

intraparenchymal metastases, and extracranial metastases (**Fig. 3e-h**). Similarly, FGFR1 KD in UCD12

decreased BCBM progression in aged naïve mice and delayed the outgrowth of extracranial metastasis

(**Fig. 3i-l**). Moreover, FGFR1-KD cells showed decreased brain signal (but not extracranial signal)

immediately following injection (Week 0) in aged mice (**Fig. 3f,j**), suggesting impaired seeding in the

aged brain parenchyma. To test if FGFR1 overexpression is sufficient to drive BM colonization and

outgrowth, EV or FGFR1-OE MCF7 cells were injected in young/E2 supplemented NSG mice. Despite

the poor brain -metastatic ability of MCF7 cells, FGFR1-OE increased BM progression and BM

incidence in young OVX + E2 (3/8, 38%) mice compared to OVX- mice (1/8, 12.5%) without impacting

E2-driven extracranial metastasis (**Supplementary Fig. 3a-d**). In aged mice, FGFR1-OE cells formed

BMs in 14.3% (1/7) mice while EV-MCF-7 cells were unable to colonize (0/8 mice) (**Supplementary**

Fig. 3e,f).Together, these data demonstrate that FGFR1 is a key driver of BCBM progression in the

young/E2-high TME and promotes brain colonization and extracranial metastases in aged mice.

FGF2/FGFR1 signaling in glial cells decreases upon E2 suppression and aging.

We next interrogated whether host age impacts FGFR1+ ER+ BCBM transcriptional profiles.

NanoString GeoMx Digital Spatial Profiling (DSP) followed by UMAP dimension reduction analysis

demonstrated no significant differences in the global transcriptional profiles of UCD65 BMs following 6

months of growth in young versus aged sham-mice, suggesting that late-stage ER+ BCBM are

transcriptionally similar, independent of host age. Pairwise comparisons revealed only six differentially

expressed genes between tumors in young and aged hosts, and Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

(GSEA) showed no significant pathway enrichment (**Fig. 4a-e, Supplementary Fig. 4**). To investigate

whether changes in the surrounding brain TME due to aging or ovariectomy may impact FGFR1

function in ER+ BCBM, GFAP+ and Iba+ glial areas surrounding PanCK+ UCD65 BMs were analyzed

using the mouse whole-transcriptome atlas (**Fig. 4f,g**). Dimension reduction analysis using global

transcriptomic profiles showed that glial cells surrounding BMs clustered by age and OVX status, with

OVX being a major driver of transcriptional changes and inducing aging-related profiles in young mice

(**Fig. 4h**). Pairwise comparisons further demonstrated that E2-depletion and aging broadly repressed

gene expression (**Fig. 4i**). To visualize the most representative biological patterns, we performed GSEA

and clustered outputs based on shared genes, which identified FGF/FGFR signaling as common top

pathways downregulated by OVX and aging (**Fig. 4j-l, Supplementary Data 1**). *Fgf2*, encoding the

canonical FGFR1 ligand, was among the top 20 common downregulated genes with OVX and aging

(**Fig. 4i,m,n, Supplementary Data 2**), suggesting that paracrine activation of FGFR1 in ER+ BCBM

may be driven by glial FGF2 in young hosts, and decreases with aging and E2-depletion.

Astrocytes promote FGF2-dependent activation and proliferation of FGFR1+ ER+ BC cells

We next explored how cells in the brain TME drive canonical FGFR1 activation in young and aged

hosts. Consistent with NanoString analysis, FGF2 protein levels were significantly lower in total brain,

oligodendrocytes, neurons, and astrocytes from tumor-naïve aged compared to young mice and in

astrocytes aged long-term (>3 months) *in vitro* (**Fig. 5a-c**). Since astrocytes expressed the highest

FGF2 levels in the brain, we first tested how astrocytic FGF2 impacted FGFR1-dependent ER+ BC

growth. UCD65 cells showed increased pFGFR1 when co-cultured with young and aged astrocytes in

E2-free media, but activation was higher with young astrocytes (**Fig. 5d**). E2-independent growth of

UCD65 cells was higher in co-culture with young astrocytes than with aged astrocytes, and FGFR1 KD

significantly decreased growth in co-culture with both young and aged astrocytes (**Fig. 5e-g**). Thus,

age-induced changes in astrocytic FGF2 levels correlate with increased FGFR1 activation and growth

in ER+ BC, which diminishes with astrocyte age. Similarly, co-culture with young human primary

astrocytes promoted UCD12 and UCD65 cell growth and was sensitive to FGFR1 downregulation

(**Supplementary Fig. 5a,b),** and blocking FGF2 with a neutralizing antibody decreased UCD12

spheroid growth in organotypic co-culture with young brain slices (**Fig. 5h,i**), suggesting that astrocytic-

dependent growth of ER+ BC cells is in part mediated by FGF2/FGFR1 signaling. Consistent with

studies showing FGF2 is heparin-bound on the cell membrane rather than secreted[40-42], FGF2 was not

detected in serum-free conditioned media from astrocytes (CM-Ast) but was membrane bound in

astrocytes co-cultured with UCD12 cells (**Supplementary Fig. 5c,d**). Moreover, CM-Ast-induced Akt

and ERK activation were not altered by BGJ398, a selective FGFR inhibitor that blocks FGF2-mediated

signaling and decreases FGF2-dependent proliferation in ER+ BC cells (**Supplementary Fig. 5e,f**).

Together, these results suggest that FGFR1 activation by membrane-bound FGF2 is critical for tumor

proliferation in the absence of exogenous E2, and that young but not aged astrocytes can robustly

support E2-independent proliferation of FGFR1+ BC cells.

NCAM1 and FGF2 activate FGFR1 signaling and growth in ER+ BC

Given that brain FGF2 levels decrease with age and E2-suppression, and aged astrocytes were less

effective in promoting FGFR1-dependent growth, we investigated whether non-canonical mechanisms

of FGFR1 function could impact ER+ BCBM in the absence of high FGF2. NCAM1 is a neuronal and

astrocytic cell adhesion molecule whose expression is unchanged with aging (**Supplementary Fig. 6a-**

d) and is known to activate FGFR1 and regulate neural development and synaptic plasticity[31,37,43-45]. To

determine if NCAM1 could activate FGFR1 kinase signaling in ER+ BC cells, we treated UCD65 cells

with NCAM1 and found dose-dependent activation of FGFR1, Akt, and ERK (**Fig. 6a**), even at the

lowest dose (which is below reported NCAM1 cell surfaces levels in the brain[31,32]). NCAM1-induced

signaling is dependent on FGFR1 expression, as it was decreased in shFGFR1 compared to shNC

UCD65, and only observed in MCF7-FGFR1-OE but not MCF7-EV cells (**Fig. 6b,c**). BGJ398 blocked

FGF2 and NCAM1-induced FGFR1 signaling in UCD65, UCD12, and MCF7-FGFR1-OE at multiple

time points (**Fig. 6d-f, Supplementary Fig. 6e,f**). Since NCAM1 is mostly membrane-anchored, we

next tested whether surface NCAM1 from neighboring cells activates FGFR1 by co-culturing ER+ BC

cells with NCAM1+ SY5Y neuroblastoma cells stably expressing shEV or shNCAM1. Co-culture with

shNCAM1 SY5Y cells significantly reduced FGFR1 phosphorylation in all ER+ cell lines compared to

shEV controls (**Fig. 6g,h, Supplementary Fig. 6g,h**). Similarly, co-culture with astrocytes transduced

with mCherry-tagged AAV expressing shNCAM1 reduced pFGFR1 in UCD65 and UCD12 cells

compared to EV control, demonstrating that NCAM1 from both neurons and astrocytes can activate

FGFR1 in ER+ BC cells (**Fig 6i,j, Supplementary Fig. 6i**). A blocking antibody against NCAM1

decreased UCD12 spheroid growth in aged, but not young organotypic brain slices, suggesting that

NCAM1 promotes growth of ER+ BC in the aged/low FGF2 brain TME, but it is not the main driver in

the high FGF2 young TME (**Fig. 6k,l**). Because young astrocytes express both NCAM1 and FGF2 at

high levels, we next examined their relative contribution to ER+ BC proliferation. Lentiviral-mediated KD

of NCAM1 and FGF2 effectively decreased FGF2 and NCAM1 levels in astrocytes, resulting in

significant decreased proliferation of UCD12 and UCD65 cells compared to co-culture with shNC

astrocytes. Astrocytic FGF2 KD produced a greater reduction in ER+ BC growth than NCAM1 KD, with

minimal additive effects upon combined depletion of NCAM1 and FGF2 (**Fig. 6m,n, Supplementary**

Fig. 6j,k). Thus, these results indicate that while astrocyte-derived FGF2 remains the dominant driver

of FGFR1-dependent growth in young brains, NCAM1 serves as a non-canonical FGFR1 activator that

sustains ER[+] BC growth under aged, low-FGF2 conditions.

NCAM1/FGFR1 communication drives interactions between ER+ BC and neurons

Studies have shown that FGF2 and NCAM1 activation of FGFR1 can result in different downstream

cellular effects[44]. To define downstream mechanisms resulting from NCAM1 or FGF2-mediated FGFR1

activation in ER+ BC cells, we performed global gene expression profiling of UCD12 and UCD65 cells

treated with vehicle, NCAM1, or FGF2 for 24h (**Fig. 7a, Supplementary Fig. 7a-c**). GSEA identified

gene signatures shared by both cell lines that were commonly enriched or repressed by NCAM1 and

FGF2 or uniquely regulated by each ligand (**Fig. 7b, Supplementary Data 3**). FGF2 and NCAM1

commonly induced 1,390 gene signatures, primarily clustered as signaling associated with

development and disease, DNA replication, and immunity. FGF2 induced 2,879 unique differential

signatures, demonstrating enrichment of canonical growth factor receptor signaling, cytoskeleton

organization, ECM interactions, and transmembrane transport and secretion (**Supplementary Fig.**

7d,e, Supplementary Data 4,5). By contrast, NCAM1 treatment induced 90 unique differential gene

signatures, primarily classified by disease and cell signaling activation, metabolic changes,

transmembrane transport, and, interestingly, neuronal gene signatures (**Fig. 7c, Supplementary Fig.**

7f,g). These neural signatures showed enrichment in differentiation, development, and adhesion, with

repression of postsynaptic membrane protein localization and trafficking, and

myelination/ensheathment (**Fig. 7d**). Therefore, these results suggest that FGF2 promotes broad

transcriptional changes, driving canonical signaling through FGFR1 and proliferation, while NCAM1

may drive specific gene signatures promoting neural interactions in ER+ BC cells.

Given the known roles of NCAM/FGFR1 interactions in modulating synaptic plasticity, the induction of

synaptic-related gene signatures upon NCAM1 treatment in UCD65 and UCD12 cells, and emerging

evidence that direct and indirect synaptic communication between neurons and disseminated brain

metastatic cells are key mediators of BCBM outgrowth[46-48], we next determined how FGFR1 impacts

cancer-neuron interactions. FGFR1 KD resulted in decreased density of excitatory synapses at the

interface of UCD65 spheroids and organotypic brain slices, suggesting that FGFR1 contributes to

synaptic localization or interaction between ER+ BC cells and organotypic brain slices (**Fig. 7e**).

Furthermore, coculture with primary hippocampal neurons from postnatal mice demonstrated that ER+

BC cells bind and migrate along neurites *in vitro*, and FGFR1 KD significantly decreased the distance

migrated by UCD65 and UCD12 cells along these neurites (**Fig. 7f,g**). NCAM1 KD in SY5Y cells

decreased migration of UCD65 and UCD12 cells in co-culture (**Fig. 7h**). Together, these results

suggest that FGFR1 promotes neuronal interactions and that FGFR1/NCAM1 facilitates migration of

ER+ BC cells.

FGFR1 kinase inhibition is effective only in the prevention of ER+ BCBM

Our data suggests that paracrine activation of FGFR1 by FGF2 and NCAM1 can influence early

colonization as well as late metastatic progression of ER+ BC. Since interactions with astrocytes and

neurons occur from early stages of metastatic colonization, we assessed UCD65 FGFR1 activation 5

days following intracardiac injection in young and aged hosts. Membrane pFGFR1 expression was

found in 83% of early disseminated cells in young mice and 57% in aged mice, and membrane

pFGFR1 intensity was stronger in disseminated cells in young compared to aged brains (**Fig. 8a,b**).

These findings are consistent with strong FGF2-dependent FGFR1 activation of disseminated cancer

cells in young mice, and weaker, NCAM-dependent activation in aged mice. In contrast, late-stage

UCD65 BCBM from young and aged mice showed minimal membrane pFGFR1 (**Fig. 8c**), paralleling

the lack of correlation between pFGFR1 status and total FGFR1 expression observed in late-stage

clinical samples (**Fig. 2a**). Thus, this data suggests that paracrine activation of FGFR1 is prominent

during early brain colonization, but it is dispensable during later stages of BM progression. To test this,

we injected UCD65 cells in young mice supplemented with E2 or in aged naïve mice (**Fig. 8d,i**) and

began treatment with vehicle or BGJ398 either immediately after injection or upon detectable brain

metastatic outgrowth. We confirmed the reported brain-penetrance of BGJ398[49], as it effectively

blocked TME-mediated FGFR1 activation in disseminated cancer cells at the dose used

(**Supplementary Fig. 8a**). In young mice, early FGFR inhibition significantly suppressed BCBM

progression, reducing IVIS-detectable BM as well as the number of micrometastases and BM clusters

when treatment was initiated at the time of cell injection, but not when initiated 7 weeks post-injection

(**Fig. 8e-h**). Consistent with the FGFR1 independence of advanced lesions, IF analysis revealed no

significant differences in pERK staining in late-stage BMs following BGJ398 treatment (**Supplementary**

Fig. 8c,d). In aged mice, characterized by weaker FGFR1 activation and slower BM progression,

BGJ398 treatment did not significantly affect BM progression or *ex vivo* IVIS (**Fig. 8j,k**), nor did it affect

extracranial progression (**Supplementary Fig. 8e**). Although BGJ398-associated toxicity in aged mice

required the termination of these studies before control mice reached euthanasia criteria, histological

quantification of BMs revealed that early treatment BGJ398 reduced the total number of metastatic

clusters and micrometastases (**Fig. 8l**). These findings support a role for FGFR1 activation in early

brain colonization, even in the aged brain, while suggesting that established metastases are largely

FGFR1-independent.

Together, our data suggests a model whereby FGF2 and NCAM1-dependent FGFR1 activation of

disseminated FGFR1-amplified ER+ BC cells drives neural/astrocytic interaction, migration and

proliferation, resulting in FGFR1-dependent brain colonization. In young hosts, FGFR1 function is

mainly driven by astrocytic FGF2, while in aged and E2-depleted mice, neuronal and astrocytic NCAM1

serve as non-canonical activators to drive FGFR1 function and ER+ BMs. Consistently, FGFR inhibitors

can block early activation and prevent colonization, but not late-stage BCBM which are no longer

dependent on this signaling (**Fig. 8m**).

DISCUSSION

FGFR1-amplification has been shown to promote endocrine resistance in ER+ primary BC by

maintaining ligand-independent ER transcription[16,17], yet how the TME influences endocrine resistance

at metastatic sites is less understood. Here we demonstrate that the increased BM potential of FGFR1+

ER+ BC cells results from interactions with canonical and non-canonical FGFR1 activation through

astrocytes and neurons during early stages of BM colonization. Moreover, our data demonstrates that

TME-mediated activation of FGFR1 in ER+ BCBM is critical for early but not late stages of BM

colonization, which has profound implications for the use of FGFR inhibitors clinically. Specifically, our

studies provide preclinical rationale for future clinical studies testing FGFR inhibitors in the prevention

of BCBM.

Our results are in alignment with prior work showing that microenvironment-dependent activation of

FGFR1 drives FGFR1-mediated ER signaling and endocrine therapy resistance in primary tumors[14].

FGFR ligands secreted by adipose tissue support ER+ primary tumor growth in obese post-menopausal mouse models[20], and cells within the bone TME secrete FGF2 to promote ER+ BC cell plasticity[50]. However, our studies further demonstrate that the levels of FGFR1-activating ligands in the TME are key determinants of the dependency of ER+ BC cells for FGFR1 activation and response to FGFR inhibition. Furthermore, the contact-dependent nature of brain-mediated FGFR1 activation suggests that receptor inhibition or disruption of cell-cell interactions are the most relevant clinical targets for early brain colonization of ER+ BC. While the tumorigenic effect of FGFR1 amplification has been attributed to co-amplified oncogenes in the 8p region[51,52], our FGFR1 KD studies demonstrate its specific role for brain colonization in aged and young hosts. The fact that FGFR1 KD differentially impacted extracranial metastases in aged mice, but not in young/E2 treated mice, further highlights the importance of studying ER+ BC in aged/E2 depleted mice and the context-dependent mechanisms influencing the progression of ER+ metastases.

Multiple studies have shown that interactions between disseminated cancer cells and astrocytes can eliminate or support the establishment of brain metastases[53-58]. While these studies have been performed with rapidly growing and aggressive cancer subtypes, our studies are the first to demonstrate brain-specific regulation of ER+ BMs in models that mimic the slow progression of their metastases. Our data showed that young and old astrocytes have different abilities to promote growth of ER+ BC cells, in part through differential expression of FGF2. However, the fact that conditioned media from astrocytes (lacking soluble FGF2) can activate pro-survival signaling in cancer cells in an FGFR1-independent manner, suggests that additional ligands secreted from astrocytes and other cells in the TME are likely to contribute to the progression of ER+ BMs, even those lacking FGFR1 amplification. It is possible that these signals from the brain TME contribute to the observed FGFR1-independence of late-stage brain metastases. Further studies are needed to define how additional astrocytic-mediated support of ER BM+ can contribute to late-stage ER+ BCBM progression.

Consistent with findings in rats[59,60], our studies show for the first time that E2-suppression and aging downregulate FGF2 levels in the brain niche and directly impact FGFR1 activation. While these differences were initially observed in animals with late-stage BCBM, tumor-naïve mice showed similar

FGF2 decreases with age. We showed the novel finding that NCAM1/FGFR1 interactions lead to

FGFR1 kinase signaling activation and promote proliferation, invasive and migratory phenotypes in

ER+ BC cells. While FGF2 decreases with aging and E2-depletion, NCAM1 expression remained

unchanged, suggesting that FGFR1/NCAM interactions contribute to FGFR1 function throughout the

progression of ER+ BCBM. Our findings that NCAM1 blockage decrease proliferation of cancer cells in

brain slices from old, but not young mice, demonstrate a novel, context dependent mechanism

controlling FGFR1 through the lifespan. Since the affinity of FGF for FGFR is approximately 10^6 times

higher than that of NCAM1 for FGFR[31,32], higher FGF2 levels drive FGFR1 activation and function in

young females. By contrast, NCAM1, which is constantly present cell surfaces at a much higher

concentration (micromolar) than FGFs, emerged as an alternative driver in the aged/E2-depleted brain

TME[30-32,43,61]. We recognize that our studies cannot fully address the individual contribution of brain

FGF2 versus NCAM1 to FGFR1 function in young versus aged females, yet our findings align with

studies in HeLa cells showing that despite similar kinase signaling activation, FGF2 and NCAM1 can

result in different cellular responses[44,62]. The extent to which FGF2 and NCAM induce differential levels

of pFGFR1 or trigger different recycling of FGFR from the cell membrane may explain the slower

progression of metastases in older mice and the differential susceptibility of young and aged hosts to

kinase inhibitors[44].

Seminal studies demonstrated that brain metastatic growth of cancer cells depends on their ability to

form synapses with neurons[47,48], similar to findings in glioma cells[63,64]. Additional studies suggest that

formation of synaptic structures involving presynaptic neurons, astrocytes, and tumor cells is a critical

adaptation for BM colonization[46]. Our data showing that FGFR1 promotes increased synaptic puncta

with neurons is suggestive of cancer-neuron synapse formation. While definitive proof that these

interactions result in synaptic communication in ER+ BC cells is warranted, the formation of synaptic

puncta and the migration of BC cells along neuronal tracks suggest that these cancer-neuron and

FGFR1/NCAM1 interactions are implicated in the progression of ER+ BCBM. FGFR1 KD impairing ER+

BC cell migration along neurites further supports the notion that NCAM1/FGFR1 interaction is critical for

the ability of ER+ BC cells to adhere to neurons and astrocytes, particularly during the early stages of

BM colonization. FGFR1 KD UCD65 and UCD12 cells showed decreased brain signal (but not

extracranial signal) immediately following intracardiac injection, suggesting that FGFR1 interactions

with the brain TME are essential for early colonization or survival of disseminated cells upon arrival to

the brain. Consistently, FGFR1 kinase inhibition decreased FGFR1 activation in early disseminated

cancer cells and resulted in decreased number of micro metastases in both young and aged hosts,

highlighting the potential value for FGFR1 inhibition in the prevention of BMs.

Our studies also show that late-stage FGFR1+ ER+ BMs are no longer dependent on FGFR1

activation. If this FGFR1-independence in large tumors occurs also in primary tumors or other

metastatic sites, there could be an explanation for why FGFR1 amplification does not predict response

to this therapy[65]. Further studies are needed to determine whether other FGFR1 inhibitors or increased

brain-penetrance of these drugs may be more effective in a therapeutic setting[66]. Collectively, our work

demonstrates that changes in the brain TME mediate FGFR1-amplified ER+ BCBM progression

through interactions with astrocytes and neurons, which are critical for early brain metastatic

colonization but not late progression. Importantly, our studies caution that current strategies to block

FGFR1 function are ineffective to block non-canonical functions of FGFR1, particularly in elderly/E2-

suppressed patients, and suggest that accounting for host-specific FGFR1 activation may better predict

response to FGFR inhibitors than amplification status alone.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics Statement: All animal experiments and procedures were performed in an AAALAC-accredited facility and approved by the University of Colorado Denver | Anschutz Medical Campus Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and by the DOD Animal Care and Use Review Office. Archival de-identified brain metastasis human samples were obtained under approved IRB protocols at the University of Colorado.

Patient samples: ER+ BCBM (n = 45), including $ER^+/HER2^-$ (n = 30), $ER^+/HER2^+$ (n = 14), and $ER^+/PR^+/HER2^+$ (n = 1) from archival de-identified human brain metastases samples were obtained under secondary use Colorado Multiple Institutional Review Board (COMIRB) protocol 23-1713 from the University of Colorado tissue biorepository (waiver of consent COMIRB protocol 15-1461).

Cell Lines and Culture: ER^{Low}-TN UCD46 and ER+ UCD4, UCD12, and UCD65 cell lines[38] were cultured in DMEM/F12 with 10% FBS, P/S, 100ng/mL cholera toxin, and 1nM insulin. MCF7 (FGFR1-OE and EV) were cultured in MEM with EBSS, 10% FBS, P/S, 1x MEM amino acid solution, 1x MEM non-essential amino acids, and 1mM sodium pyruvate. SH-SY5Y cells were purchased from the Cell Technologies Shared Resource (RRID: SCR_021982) and maintained in DMEM/F12 with 10% FBS and P/S. Human astrocytes (Cat. #1800) were purchased from ScienceCell™ Research Laboratories and maintained in astrocyte medium (AM, Cat. #1801) in flasks coated with Poly-L-Lysine (1ug/ml). Estrogen-free variations of all medias were created using phenol red-free media base and 2-5% charcoal-stripped FBS. Starvation media were created using phenol red-free media, no FBS, and 0.1% BSA.

***In vivo* modeling of ER+ BC metastases:** All *in vivo* studies were completed in NOD-*scid* IL2Rg[null] (NSG) mice. Since circulating levels of E2 in gonadal intact young-female mice (2.7± 1 pg/ml) are similar to those of post-menopausal women (1.3-4.9 pg/ml)[10], we mimicked post-menopausal BC using naïve (non-operated) or sham-operated aged females[11]. To study brain metastatic colonization, we use well recognized experimental models of metastasis, where cells are injected intracardially or in the carotid artery to bypass the exit from primary tumor and allow studies of seeding and metastatic colonization in

the brain[67-69]. 500,000 cells were injected into the left ventricle of female NSG mice. Intracarotid artery

injections were performed as previously described[67]. Spontaneous metastasis models were generated

by injecting cells into the mammary fat pad of OVX NSG mice supplemented with E2. Tumors were

removed after reaching 1 cm^3, and mice were randomized into indicated groups. Injection success and

luciferase-transfected cell growth were tracked via live bioluminescence imaging (BLI) using an IVIS®

Spectrum optical scanner following subcutaneous injection of luciferin substrate (D-Luciferin, Potassium

Salt, GoldBio 115144-35-9). For spontaneous models, the primary tumor site was covered during BLI

measurements. BLI measurements included tumor-free mice to establish background. For mice treated

with BGJ398 (Selleck Chemicals S2183), aliquots of drug were prepared daily and delivered via oral

gavage of 100µL in 1% CMC. Drug and vehicle were provided 5 times weekly.

Histological Quantification of Brain Metastases: Intraparenchymal BM were quantified as previously

described[57]. Briefly, six hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)–stained sagittal brain sections (20µm thick) were

examined per mouse. Sections were collected from the right hemisphere at 300µm intervals and analyzed

using an ocular grid with a 4× objective. Micrometastases (defined as lesions measuring ≤300µm along

their longest axis), and macrometastases (>300µm) were counted in each section by an investigator

blinded to treatment group. Metastatic clusters were defined as groups of one or more micro or

macrometastases in close spatial proximity as a readout of likely independent metastatic lesions.

Numbers shown are the sum of counts from the six sections.

Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) and Analysis: To assess metastatic spread non-invasively, mice

underwent MRI 16 weeks after tumor cell injection. Brain MRI was performed on anesthetized mice

(1.5% isoflurane) using a 9.4 Tesla BioSpec animal MRI scanner (Bruker Medical, Billerica, MA)

equipped with a 4-chanel phase-array mouse brain coil at the Colorado Animal Imaging Shared

Resource (AISR). Each MRI session consisted of a tri-pilot localizer, followed by a high resolution T2-

weighted fast spin echo (T2-turboRARE: field of view = 3 × 3 cm; repetition time = 4000ms; echo time =

80ms; slice thickness = 0.7 mm; 256 × 256 matrix size; 4 averages) with a 52-micron in-plane

resolution[70,71].

Total acquisition time for all sequences was 12 min 21 sec. The total metastatic gross volumes were

quantified by placing hand-driven region of interest (ROI) on sequential axial and/ or sagittal T2-

turboRARE images, summing total ROI areas and multiplying by 0.7 mm slice thickness (reported in

mm3). The largest diameters of larger metastatic lesions were also reported for axial MR images. All

MR image acquisition and analysis were performed using Bruker ParaVision 360neo v3.3 software. All

image analysis was performed by an MRI physicist with >15 years of experience (NJS).

Immunoblots: Membranes were blocked with 3% BSA in TBST and probed overnight with antibodies

against FGFR1 (Abcam ab76464), pFGFR1 (Y654, Abcam ab59194; Y653/Y654, Cell Signaling

52928S), Akt (Cell Signaling 9272S), pAkt (S473, Cell Signaling 4060S), ERK (Cell Signaling 9102S),

pERK (T202/T204, Cell Signaling 9101S), and NCAM1 (R&D AF2408), with GAPDH (Cell Signaling

97166S) or Tubulin (Sigma T5168) as loading controls. Membranes were washed with TBST and

probed with secondary antibodies (Invitrogen A11371, A21109, A21058, A21084, A11374) for 1-2hrs.

Blots were imaged on LiCor Odessey CLx and analyzed with ImageStudio Version 5.0 and 6.0. For

multiple stains, blots were stripped (Millipore 2504) and reprobed as above.

qRT-PCR: RNA was isolated with Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen 15596026) and reverse transcribed with

Verso cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo AB-1453). cDNA was used to perform qPCR with PowerUp SYBR

Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems A25742) on Applied Biosystems QuantStudio 6 Flex. Gene

expression was calculated via ddCt. Primer Sequences:

FGFR1 (F: AACCTGACCACAGAATTGGAGGCT, R: TGCTGCCGTACTCATTCTCCACA)

NCAM1 (F: AATTTACCGCGGCAAGAACATC, R: CCTGGCTGGGAACAATATCCAC)

RPLP0 (F: GTGATGTGCAGCTGATCAAGACT, R: GATGACCAGCCCAAAGGAGA)

Primary Astrocyte Culture and Co-culture: Brains from P0-P1 CD1 mouse pups were dissected, and

primary astrocytes were isolated and cultured as previously described[72]. For co-culture experiments,

50,000 or 10,000 cancer cells were seeded into 6-well or 24-well plates coated with laminin (1µg/ml),

respectively, onto astrocyte monolayers at 100% confluence in E2-free medium (DMEM/F12 phenol

red-free, supplemented with 5% charcoal-stripped FBS, 0.1% BSA, 1x penicillin/streptomycin, 1x non-

essential amino acids, 1x sodium pyruvate, and 1 nM insulin). Aged mouse astrocytes (aged-mAst)

were generated by maintaining cultures in growth medium (DMEM + 10% FBS, 1% P/S) for three

months prior to co-culture[73]. In contrast, mAst P0 refers to astrocytes maintained *in vitro* for only 8

days. For co-culture with human astrocytes, cells were seeded under the same conditions as murine

astrocytes. To generate 10x or 20x concentrated astrocyte-conditioned media (CM), confluent astrocyte

cultures were incubated for 72 hours in serum-free, phenol red-free DMEM/F12. Supernatants were

then collected and concentrated using 3,000Da molecular weight centrifugal filters.

Isolation of Primary Cells from Adult Mouse Brain: Whole brain tissue was dissected from young

(12 weeks) and aged (>56 weeks) female NSG mice following PBS cardiac perfusion. Cell suspensions

were obtained via enzymatic dissociation using the Papain Dissociation System (Worthington

Biochemical, LK003150), followed by magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS; Miltenyi Biotec) according

to the manufacturer's instructions. Cell-type-specific isolation was performed using the following

reagents from Miltenyi Biotec: Myelin Removal Beads II (130-096-733) for oligodendrocytes, CD11b

MicroBeads (130-093-634) for microglia, Anti-ACSA-2 MicroBeads (130-097-678) for astrocytes, and

the Neuron Isolation Kit (130-115-389) for neurons.

FGF2 ELISA: Levels of FGF2 were quantified using the Mouse/Rat FGF basic/FGF2/bFGF Quantikine

ELISA Kit (R&D Systems, MFB00) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Lentivirus and AAV: The following shRNA plasmids were purchased from the Functional Genomics

Shared Resources (RRID:SCR_021987): TRCN0000121186, TRCN0000000419, and

TRCN0000000418 targeting human FGFR1; TRCN0000373085 and TRCN0000373034 targeting

NCAM1, TRCN0000355839 targeting Fgf2. MISSION® shRNA Plasmid DNA Control Vectors SHC216

and SCH002 were purchased from Sigma. Lentiviral particles were produced in 293-T cells and

concentrated via ultracentrifugation. Viral particles were added to all cells with 6µg/mL polybrene and

cancer cells were selected with 2µg/mL puromycin. For transduction of astrocytes, lentivirus was not

concentrated and cells were not selected. AAV shRNA particles were purchased from PackGene and

designed to include CMV-mCherry as a reporter and the same shRNA sequences as

TRCN0000355839 (Fgf2) and TRCN0000373085 (Ncam1). Control AAV was purchased from

AAVnerGene (DP001006). Astrocytes were infected with 10,000 viral particles per cell.

Organotypic Co-culture: GFP+ cancer cells were cultured in ultra-low attachment plates to form

spheroids. NSG mice were sacrificed and brains excised, sectioned into 250µm coronal slices, and

collected in 1x HBSS with 2.5mM HEPES, 30mM D-Glucose, 1mM CaCl2, 1mM MgSO4, and 4mM

NaHCO3 (Complete HBSS). Slices were plated in 12-well transwells. 1mL of media containing 25%

complete HBSS, 25% donor equine serum, 50% MEM, 1x GlutaMAX (Gibco 35050061), and P/S was

added to the well below the transwell. Spheroids of cancer cells were plated on top of the brain slices in

<2µL media. Spheres were allowed to settle for 24 hours and images were acquired via stereo

fluorescent microscopy every 48 hours. Growth was quantified via GFP intensity corrected for

background autofluorescence of adjacent brain tissue (ImageJ). For treatments of organotypic brain

slices with IgG (Sigma M5284), αFGF2 (Antibody System RMC38201), or αNCAM1(Sigma AB5032)

neutralizing antibodies, 0.5µg was added on top of each slice in 10µL, with an additional 0.5µg added

to the media in the well below. Spheroids of UCD12 cells were plated 24 hours after antibody treatment.

Immunohistochemistry and Immunofluorescence: Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections of

ER$^+$ BCBM from patient samples obtained at the University of Colorado were deparaffinized in xylene

and rehydrated through a graded ethanol series to distilled water. Heat-induced antigen retrieval was

performed in 10 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0) or Tris-EDTA buffer (pH 9.0) at 125 °C and 25 psi for 10

minutes. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched with 3% hydrogen peroxide, and sections

were blocked with 10% normal horse serum (ImmPRESS, Vector Laboratories). Slides were incubated

overnight at RT with primary antibodies against FGFR1 (Invitrogen PA5-25979) or pFGFR1 (Y654,

Abcam ab59194), followed by HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (ImmPRESS, Vector Laboratories).

Signal was developed using 3,3′-diaminobenzidine (DAB; DAKO). Slides were scanned using an Aperio

ScanScope T3 (Leica Biosystems), and membrane expression of FGFR1 and pFGFR1 in tumor cells

was quantified using the Aperio Image Analysis software.

For immunofluorescence, cells grown on coverslips and free-floating brain slices were fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) and heat-induced antigen retrieval was performed in boiling 10 mM citrate

buffer (pH 6.0). Coverslips, slices, or deparaffinized formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections (as

described above), were blocked with 10% normal donkey serum (NDS) in TBST for 1 hour at RT.

Primary antibodies against GFAP (Invitrogen 12-0300), FGF2 (Novusbio NBP3-15367), pFGFR1

(Y654, Abcam ab59194), NCAM1 (R&D AF2408), PanCK (DAKO M0821), Synapsin1/2 (Synaptic

Systems 106004), and PSD95 (Invitrogen MA1-045) were incubated for 2 hours or overnight at RT. For

double staining, primary antibodies were applied either sequentially in separate incubations or pooled.

After washing with PBS containing 0.01% Triton X-100, coverslips, slices, or slides were incubated with

secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch 712-545-153, 712-585-153, 706-165-148, 715-545-

150, 715-585-150, 715-605-150, 705-585-147, 711-545-152, 711-585-152, 711-605-152) diluted in

TBST for 2 hours at RT in the dark. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (1 μg/mL in methanol or PBS) for 10

minutes at RT and samples were mounted with FluoroMount-G (Southern Biotech).

Growth Assays: Cells were maintained in E2-free media for 48 hours before being trypsinized with

phenol red-free trypsin and plated at densities of 2,000 MCF7, 10,000 UCD12, and 20,000 UCD65 cells

per well of duplicate 96-well plates in 100μL of media. Following 24 hours, 100μL of media containing

each treatment (2x) was added to the wells of one plate. The duplicate plate was fixed with 10% TCA.

Growth was tracked via Incucyte S3 system where 10x phase contrast and GFP images were obtained

every 12 hours. Treatments were maintained by regularly changing 50% of media. At the conclusion of

the Incucyte tracking, plates were fixed with 10% TCA. Fixed plates were stained with 0.04% SRB

(Sigma) and total protein was quantified via plate reader measurements at 565, 525, and 490nm

subtracting 690nm background. Proliferation was additionally measured by quantifying fold change of

SRB signal between the two plates.

Digital Spatial Transcriptomics: Female NSG mice were ovariectomized or sham operated and 15

days later injected via intracarotid artery with 250,000 UCD65 GFPLuc+ cells. Mice were classified

according to their age as young (between 7 and 15 weeks) or aged (>60 weeks). Development of brain

metastasis was monitored during 15 weeks via IVIS. Six months after injection, animals were

euthanized by ketamine/xylazine overdose and perfused with PBS/4%PFA. Brains were cryopreserved

in 20% sucrose and stored at 4°C. Paraffin embedded fixed coronal sections were stained with

antibodies targeting PanCK (DAKO M0821), Iba1 (WAKO PTG5394), GFAP (Invitrogen 13-0300) and

DAPI. One set of brain sections from young-sham, aged-sham, young-OVX and aged-OVX mice (n = 1

animal per condition) were probed by in situ hybridization with the GeoMx® Mouse Whole

Transcriptome Atlas (WTA) library. Then, using the GeoMX Digital Spatial Profiler (DSP), barcoded

RNA-probes in the Iba+/GFAP+ regions of interest (ROI) within a maximum of 400μm from PanCK+

BCBM were UV-cleaved and processed by Illumina sequencing. Similarly, another set of brain sections

from young-sham and aged-sham mice were probed by in situ hybridization with the GeoMx® Human

WTA library. Then, with the GeoMX DSP, RNA-probes in the PanCK+ ROIs (human breast cancer cells)

were UV-cleaved and processed by Illumina sequencing. A total of 48 Iba+/GFAP+ ROIs (young-sham

= 18, aged-sham = 16, young-OVX = 9, and aged-OVX = 5) and 59 PanCK+ ROIs (aged-sham = 16

and young-sham = 43) were retrieved and sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq X plus sequencer in

one lane on a 10B flow cell at 2x150bp configuration. Sequencing was performed by the Genomics

Shared Resource (RRID: SCR_021984).

Using the GeoMx® NGS Pipeline (Nanostring) and the Probe Kit Configuration (PKC) files for Human

or Mouse RNA WTA, the FASTQ libraries were processed to obtain the Digital Count Conversion (DCC)

files. DCC files were analyzed in R (4.4.2) with NanoStringNCTools[74], GeomxTools[75] and

GeoMxWorkflows[76] packages. All ROIs with gene detection rate (defined as the number of genes in the

sample divided by the number of genes in the WTA) above 1%, more than 100 nuclei, and all probes in

the highest quartile above the background reading were retained for further analysis (**Supplementary

Fig. 3**). Raw counts were normalized using the Q3 method in NanoStringNCTools. Normalized counts

were used to UMAP analysis with the umap package in R. Differential expression analyses were

performed with limma-voom in standR[77,78] using the GeoMXAnalysisWorkflow package in R[79].

Differentially expressed genes were visualized as MA plots with ggplot2.

Log-CPM (counts per million) values were transformed with "voom" to get the appropriate observation-

level weights and fitted to a linear model with "fit". Then using "contrasts.fit", the array was used to get

estimated coefficients and standard errors for each pairwise comparison. Finally, the differential

expression statistics were computed using empirical Bayes moderation with "ebayes". Differentially

expressed genes lists were used to perform a gene sets enrichment analysis (GSEA) following the

GeoMXAnalysisWorkflow method[79]. Briefly, MSigDB Hallmarks, MSigDB C2, Gene Ontology and

KEGG databases were downloaded in R using the msigdb and GSEABase libraries[80,81]. Enrichment

analyses were performed using fry from the limma package[78]. Finally, using vissE package[82] we

clustered significant (FDR <0.05) enriched gene sets based on the genes overlap with a threshold of

35%. Clusters were further analyzed by text mining to identify common biological patterns using the

gene set names. Additionally, frequency of each gene in each cluster was plotted vs their respective

log_2FC. Clusters were ranked by size and FDR and top 9 clusters were plotted using igraph[83].

Recombinant protein treatment for downstream signaling: 1 million UCD65, UCD12, or MCF7 cells

were plated in 60mm plates. 12 hours after plating, cells were washed three times with PBS and media

was replaced with starvation media. Following 48-72 hours in starvation media, media was replaced

with starvation media containing the indicated concentrations of FGF2 (PeproTech AF-100-18B) or

NCAM1 (Acro Biosystems NC1-H5223). Pretreatments with BGJ398 (Selleck Chemicals S2183) were

completed 1 hour prior to treatments. Following treatment, protein was collected in RIPA buffer.

RNA Sequencing: UCD65 and UCD12 cells were serum-starved and then treated with vehicle,

10ng/mL FGF2, or 20ug/mL for 24hr. RNA was isolated with Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen 15596026)

followed by RNeasy Cleanup Kit (Qiagen 74204). mRNA libraries were created using poly-A enrichment

and sequenced at 40M PE150 reads by NovaSeq X Plus Series (Illumina). Reads were filtered by

quality (removal of reads containing adaptors, >10% undetermined bases, and QScore <5 for 50% of

bases) and aligned with HiSAT2 (2.2.1) to Homo Sapiens Reference Genome (GRCh38/hg38). Raw

counts were obtained with featureCounts (2.0.6), and analyzed in R 4.5.0. Normalized counts and

differential expression were obtained with deseq2[84] and used to perform gene sets enrichment analysis

(GSEA) as described above for digital spatial transcriptomics, clustered based on 25% gene overlap.

Primary Neuron Culture and Co-Culture: Hippocampi were dissected from P0-1 CD1 pups and neurons were isolated as previously described[85]. Primary neurons were cultured on poly-l-lysine coated coverslips in 24-well plates and maintained in phenol red-free neurobasal media supplemented with GlutaMAX, 1x B27, and P/S, with 50% media replaced twice weekly. Five days after isolation, 1.5μM cytosine arabinoside was added to each well. After 48 hours, 50% media was replaced. For co-cultures, 5,000-10,000 cancer cells were added to each well 24 hours after cytosine arabinoside removal. Co-cultures grew for 5-10 additional days before coverslips were fixed.

Synapse Detection and Quantification: Synapsin1/2 and PSD95 were costained via immunofluorescence and samples were imaged via confocal microscopy (3I MARIANAS Inverted Spinning Disk) at 40x magnification. SynQuant ImageJ plugin[86] was used to quantify synapses as punctate co-localization of the two markers, and synapse number was controlled for analysis area differences between images.

Neural Migration Analysis: Phase and GFP images were collected every 12 hours. GFP+ ROIs were defined to indicate cells in each image. Using ImageJ, phase images were used to stabilize motion across time points[87], and these corrections were applied to the GFP+ ROIs. Movement was tracked using TrackMate[88,89].

Statistical Analysis and Reproducibility: Statistical analyses are specified in figure legends and were performed with GraphPad Prism 10.4.2 for predetermined comparisons only. All tests were 2-tailed. Statistical analysis of sequencing data was performed in R 4.4.2 and 4.5.0. For animal experiments involving injections of different cells, groups were littermate-matched and injections were blinded. For treatment of established tumors, groups were randomized. In studies involving aged mice, there was expected age-related, non-tumor related mortality. These animals were excluded from final analysis and initial group sizes were 20% larger to account for this loss. Where possible, analyses were blinded to experimental conditions or performed using automated functions to reduce bias.

Data Availability: Digital Spatial Profiling and RNA-sequencing data will be uploaded to NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus prior to publication.

616   **Code Availability:** All information is provided in the Methods, including packages, software, and

617   pipelines. No custom code was generated during these studies. Source Data are provided with this

618   paper.

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   FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1: ER+ PDXs effectively model clinical progression of ER+ BC metastases *in vivo.* **a,** A

cohort of BCBM from the University of Colorado Cancer Center stratified by primary tumor subtype. **b,**

Age distribution of ER+ BCBM patient cohort. **c,** Menopausal status of ER+ BCBM patient cohort. **d,**

Frequency of metastasis in brain, bone, liver, and lungs for ER+ PDXs upon intracardiac injection in

young mice supplemented with E2 (n=10 per cell line). **e**, UCD65 GFPLuc+ cells were injected

intracardially into NSG mice that were i) young OVX (n=14), ii) young OVX+E2 (n=13), or III) aged

sham (n=13). **f,** Log-transformed extracranial metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **g,** Log-

transformed head metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **h,** Histological quantification BCBM

micrometastases and total clusters. Analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's tests. **i,** UCD65 GFPLuc+

cells were injected intracardially into aged female NSG mice that were i) OVX (n=12) or ii) naïve (n=11).

j, Log-transformed extracranial metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **k,** Log-transformed

head metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **l,** Histological quantification of BCBM

micrometastases and clusters. Analyzed by t-test. **m,** High-resolution fast spin echo T2-MRI (axial

planes at 9.4 Tesla) of young (12 weeks) and aged (60 weeks) NSG mice that were OVX or naïve, 16

weeks after UCD65 GFPLuc+ intracarotid artery injection, with mask of BM. For **f,g,j,k**, lines denote

mean ± SEM. Data were analyzed with 2-way ANOVA or mixed-effects analysis followed by Fisher's

LSD test, with p-value shown for last point only. Gray dotted line denotes baseline IVIS signal from

tumor-free mouse.

Fig. 2: FGFR1 promotes growth of ER+ BC cells in co-culture systems modeling interactions

with the brain microenvironment. a, IHC of pFGFR1 and FGFR1 in 48 ER[+] BCBM samples (left) and

membrane expression mask (right) performed using the Digital Imaging Aperio algorithm for

membrane-expression. Right: Spearman correlation of pFGFR1 and FGFR1 membrane expression. **b,**

BM frequency, FGFR amplification status, and FGFR1 relative mRNA (FPKM) for ER+ cells. **c,** FGFR1

and pFGFR1 immunoblots in ER+ BC cell lines. **d,** FGFR1 immunoblot in shNC and shFGFR1 UCD65

and UCD12 cells. Numbers indicate GAPDH-normalized expression relative to shNC, bars indicate

100kDa and 150kDa. Time course growth of shNC and shFGFR1 UCD65 (**e**) and UCD12 cells (**f**, n=10

replicates per condition) in E2-free media, treated with vehicle (EtOH) or 10nM E2. Confluence

measured via Incucyte imaging every 12 hours, normalized to time 0. **g,** Schematic of organotypic

coculture. UCD65 (**h,** n=12-17) and UCD12 (**i,** n=18-19) spheroid growth on young (9-13w) organotypic

brain slices; UCD65 (**j,** n=7-8) and UCD12 (**k,** n=15-16) spheroid growth on aged (49-53w) organotypic

brain slices. Graphs show change in GFP intensity per spheroid over time corrected for background

fluorescence, normalized to day 1. **l,** FGFR1 immunoblot in MCF7 FGFR1-OE and EV cells. **m,** Fold

change growth measured by SRB assay of MCF7 FGFR1-OE and EV cells after 6 days of treatment

with 10nM E2 or EtOH vehicle (n=15 replicates per condition). Growth of MCF7 spheroids (n=15-18) on

organotypic slices from a young (13w) (**n**) or aged (45w) (**o**) NSG mouse. For **e,f,h-k,n,o**, lines denote

mean ± SEM and data were analyzed with 2-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test. Data in **m**

were analyzed by 1-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test. All scale bars are 500μm. *:$p < 0.05$

Fig. 3: FGFR1 knockdown decreases ER+ BC brain metastasis in multiple models *in vivo*. a,

shNC (n=12) and shFGFR1 (n=12) UCD65 GFPLuc+ cells were injected intracardially into young

(<14w) NSG mice that were OVX+E2. **b,** Log-transformed head metastatic burden over time, measured

by IVIS. **c,** Quantification of metastases in brains via H&E. **d,** Log-transformed extracranial metastatic

burden over time, measured by IVIS. **e,** shNC and shFGFR1 (n=6-10) UCD65 GFPLuc+ cells were

injected intracardially into aged (>52w) naïve NSG mice. **f,** Log-transformed head metastatic burden

over time, measured by IVIS. **g,** Quantification of metastases in brains via IHC of GFP and PanCK. **h,**

Log-transformed extracranial metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **i,** shEV and shFGFR1

(n=6-9) UCD12 GFPLuc+ cells were injected intracardially into aged (>52w) naïve NSG mice. **j,** Log-

transformed head metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. **k,** Quantification of metastases in

brains via H&E. **l,** Log-transformed extracranial metastatic burden over time, measured by IVIS. For

b,d,f,h,j,l, lines denote mean ± SEM. Data were analyzed with 2-way ANOVA or mixed-effects analysis

followed by Fisher's LSD test. P-value shown for last time point only. For **c,g,k**, data were analyzed by

Mann-Whitney tests. Gray dotted lines denote baseline IVIS signal from a tumor-free mouse. #: $p < 0.06$

*: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***:$p < 0.001$.

Fig. 4: FGF/FGFR signaling decreases in the brain TME with age and E2-depletion. a, Aged (<60w) and young (<15w) NSG mice were OVX or sham operated 14 days before intracarotid-injections of UCD65 cells, and brain metastases allowed to progress for six months. At endpoint animals were perfused and brains harvested and sectioned for GeoMX DSP. **b,** mRNA expression in BMs were measured using human whole transcriptome atlas (WTA) library from NanoString in PanCK+ regions of interest (ROI). **c,** Representative image of stained tissue and PanCK+ mask. **d,** Dimension reduction by UMAP of aged and young sham PanCK+ ROIs. **e,** Volcano plots of indicated pairwise comparisons of aged versus young sham PanCK+ ROIs. Significantly differentially upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes are shown. **f,** mRNA expression in glial cells surrounding BMs was measured using mouse WTA NanoString library, using BM-associated GFAP+/Iba1+ ROI. **g,** Representative image of stained tissue and GFAP+/Iba1+ mask. **h,** Dimension reduction by UMAP of GFAP+/Iba1+ ROIs surrounding BM from Young (OVX or sham) and Aged (OVX or sham) mice. **i,** Volcano plots of indicated pairwise comparisons of differentially expressed genes. Significantly differentially upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes are shown. Top 9 differentially expressed clusters of pathways (defined as significant GSEA signatures sharing >35% overlapping genes) for comparisons between young OVX versus sham (**j**), aged OVX versus sham (**k**), and aged versus young sham (**l**) were ordered by number of genesets within the cluster and named based on word frequency in pathway terms. Each node represents a significant geneset, with distance and lines indicating overlap of genes, size representing the number of genes within each geneset, and color representing -logFDR. Repression and enrichment of these gene signatures are indicated with arrows in the legends. **m,** Venn diagram of common downregulated genes in the three indicated pairwise comparisons. **n,** Normalized FGF2 expression within each group (Log(Counts per Million)), analyzed with empirical bayes.

Fig. 5: Astrocytes promote canonical FGF2-dependent activation of FGFR1 in ER+ BC. a, FGF2 ELISA from total brain, oligodendrocyte (OL), microglia, neuron, and astrocyte lysates isolated from young (12 weeks) and aged (>56 weeks) female mice (n=3). **b,** FGF2 ELISA from young (mAst P0, 15 days *in vitro*) and aged (Aged mAst, 90 days *in vitro*) mouse primary astrocyte lysates (n=4). **c,**

Immunofluorescence of GFAP and FGF2 in mAst-P0 and aged-mAst. **d,** Immunofluorescence of

pFGFR1 in UCD65 alone or co-cultured with mAst-P0 and aged-mAst in serum-free media. Right:

pFGFR1 Corrected Total Cell Fluorescence in UCD65 (n=228-303 cells per group). **e,** Schematic of the

experimental design for co-cultures of UCD65 shEV and shFGFR1 cells with mAst-P0 or aged-mAst. **f,**

Fold change in total green area relative to time 0 of UCD65 shEV and shFGFR1 cells cultured alone or

with mAst-P0 or Aged-mAst in E2-free media (n=3 replicates per condition), measured by Incucyte. **g,**

Representative images at 18 days. **h,** Schematic of organotypic co-cultures with neutralizing antibodies.

i, Spheroids of GFP+ UCD12 cells (n=10 per condition) were plated on organotypic brain slices from a

young (8w) NSG mouse. Slices were pretreated for 24h with 1µg anti-FGF2 blocking antibody or IgG

control. Graph shows change in GFP intensity per spheroid over time corrected for background

fluorescence, normalized to day 1. For **a,b,** data were analyzed with t tests. **d** was analyzed with

Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison test. Adjusted P-value shown. For **f,i** line

denotes mean ±SEM, data were analyzed with 2-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test. P-values

shown for last time point only.

Fig. 6: NCAM1 and FGF2 activate FGFR1 signaling and growth in ER+ BC. a, UCD65 cells were

serum-starved and then treated with FGF2 (10ng/mL), 25nM or 250nM recombinant human NCAM1, or

vehicle for 10 minutes. Immunoblot shows pFGFR1, FGFR1, pAkt, Akt, pErk, ERK. GAPDH is loading

control. **b,** Immunoblot from UCD65 shNC and shFGFR1 cells treated with 10ng/mL FGF2, 250nM

NCAM1, or vehicle for 1 hour. **c,** Immunoblot from MCF7 EV and FGFR1-OE cells treated with

10ng/mL FGF2, 250nM NCAM1, or vehicle for 1 hour. **d-f,** Immunoblot from UCD65, UCD12, and

MCF7 FGFR1-OE cells pretreated with 10µM BGJ398 or vehicle for 1 hour, then treated with 10ng/mL

FGF2, 250nM NCAM1, or vehicle for the indicated times. **g,** Quantification of pFGFR1 immunostaining

in UCD65, UCD12, MCF7-FGFR1-OE, and MCF7-EV cells cultured on top of shEV or shNCAM1 SH-

SY5Y cells in serum-free media (n=5 replicates per condition). Graph shows pFGFR1 Intensity in GFP+

areas. **h,** Representative images of UCD65 cells co-cultured with shEV and shNCAM1 SH-SY5Y cells.

i, UCD65 and UCD12 cells were grown for 7 days in starvation media on coverslips in co-culture with

AAV5-mCherry-mAsts. IF of panCK and pFGFR1. pFGFR1 intensity was quantified within panCK+

ROIs (n=108-129 for UCD65, n=60-89 for UCD12). **j,** Representative images of UCD65-mAst co-

cultures**.** Spheroids of GFP+ UCD12 cells (n=10 per condition) were plated on organotypic brain slices

from aged (46w, **k**) or young (8w, **l**) NSG mice. Slices were pretreated for 24h with 1µg anti-NCAM1

blocking antibody or IgG control. Graph shows change in GFP intensity per spheroid over time

corrected for background fluorescence, normalized to day 1**.** GFP+ UCD65 (**m**) and UCD12 (**n**) cells

were co-cultured on transuced mAsts (n=6 per condition) for 20 days in starvation media. GFP intensity

was measured every two days via Incucyte. **g,i** were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's

LSD test. **k-n** were analyzed by two-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test. p-values shown for

final time points.

Fig. 7: NCAM1/FGFR1 drives interactions between ER+ BC and neurons. a, RNA-sequencing

schematic for UCD12 and UCD65 cells in serum-free media treated with vehicle, 10ng/mL FGF2, or

20ug/mL NCAM1 for 24hr (n=3). **b,** Venn diagram shows unique and shared significant gene signatures

following FGF2 and NCAM1 treatment. **c,** Pie chart of gene signature categories differentially induced

by NCAM1 treatment. **d,** log(FDR) of significant neural gene signatures differentially enriched or

repressed following NCAM1 treatment. **e,** Immunofluorescent staining of PSD95 and Synapsin1/2 in

shNC and shFGFR1 UCD65 spheroids in co-culture with organotypic brain slices from aged NSG

female mice (>59w) for 3 days. Punctate colocalization (n=15-21 images) was quantified. 5,000 GFP+

shNC and shFGFR1 UCD12 (**f**) or UCD65 (**g**) cells were plated on coverslips with 315,000 primary

hippocampal neurons (DIV: 8) and imaged every 12 hours for 6-9 days via Incucyte. Cell migration was

measured and mean distance per cell within each image (n=21-36) was plotted. Right: representative

images of UCD65 cells. Scale bars: 20µm. **h,** 5,000 UCD12 and UCD65 cells were plated on a

monolayer of shEV or shNCAM1 SY5Y cells and imaged every 12 hours for 6.5 days via Incucyte. Cell

migration over time was measured and mean distance per cell within each image (n=96) was plotted.

For **e-h**, data were analyzed by 1-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test.

Fig. 8: FGFR1 kinase inhibition is only effective in early BCBM. a, pFGFR1 quantification in brain

disseminated UCD65 cells 5 days after intracardiac injection in young (<12w) and aged (>56w) NSG

mice. Graph shows average pFGFR1 intensity in GFP+ ROIs (n=8-10 images per group) corrected by

background (GFP-). Data analyzed by Welch's t-test. **b,** number and percentage of brain disseminated

cells with positive membrane pFGFR1 staining. **c,** IF staining of PanCK and pFGFR1 in brain

metastases from UCD65 cells in young (<15w) and aged (>60w) NSG mice, 6 months post-intracarotid

injection. **d,** UCD65 GFPLuc+ cells were injected intracardially into OVX young (<18w) NSG mice

treated with E2 and randomized to receive vehicle (1% CMC, n=11) or BGJ398 (30mg/kg) 5x/week PO

starting at the time of injection (W0-12, n=9) or 7 weeks post-ic (W7-12, n=11). **e,** Log-transformed

head metastatic burden over time measured by IVIS. **f,** Log-transformed *ex vivo* brain metastatic

burden at endpoint, measured by IVIS and images of all brains. **g,** Quantification of metastases in

brains via H&E. **h,** Representative H&E stains of metastases from two animals per group. **i,** UCD65

GFPLuc+ cells were injected intracardially into aged (>52w) NSG mice and mice randomized to receive

vehicle (1% CMC, n=9) or BGJ398 (30mg/kg) 5x/week PO starting at the time of injection (W0-14, n=9)

or 10 weeks post-injection (W10-14, n=9). **j,** Log-transformed head metastatic burden measured by

IVIS. **k,** Log-tranformed *ex vivo* brain metastatic burden at endpoint, measured by IVIS. **l,** Quantification

of metastases in brains via H&E. **m,** schematic of proposed pathway. For **e,j,** data were analyzed with

2-way ANOVA or mixed-effects analysis followed by Fisher's LSD test. Significant p-values shown for

last time point only. Gray dotted line denotes baseline IVIS signal from a tumor-free mouse. For **f,k,l,**

data were analyzed with 1-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's LSD test. Data in **g** were analyzed by

Kruskal-Wallis and uncorrected Dunn's tests.

a

ER⁺ BCBM Patient Samples

| Unmasked | Membrane Analysis Mask |
| FGFR1 pFGFR1 | FGFR1 pFGFR1 |

#1 / #2

— Negative — Weak Positive — Medium Positive — Strong Positive

Premenopausal (red), Unknown (blue), Postmenopausal (black)

% pFGFR1⁺ (mem.) cells vs % FGFR1⁺ (mem.) cells, $r = 0.01609$

b

Cells:	UCD46	UCD4	UCD12	UCD65
% with BM	0%	20%	40%	80%
FGFR Copy #	No amp	5x *FGFR3*	12x *FGFR1*	14x *FGFR1*
FGFR1 mRNA	13.0	15.7	30.7	339.5

c MCF7, UCD4, UCD12, UCD65; FGFR1, pFGFR1, GAPDH

d UCD65: shNC, sh #1, sh #2; FGFR1, GAPDH (1.00, 0.18, 0.26) — UCD12: shNC, sh #1, sh #2; FGFR1, GAPDH (1.00, 0.31, 0.24)

e UCD65 — Confluence relative to D0 vs Time (days). shNC +veh, shNC +E2, shFGFR1 #1 +veh, shFGFR1 #1 +E2, shFGFR1 #2 +veh, shFGFR1 #2 +E2. $p < 0.0005$

f UCD12 — Confluence relative to D0 vs Time (days). shNC +veh, shNC +E2, shFGFR1 #1 +veh, shFGFR1 #1 +E2, shFGFR1 #2 +veh, shFGFR1 #2 +E2. $p < 0.0001$

g

h UCD65 Spheres on Young Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). shNC, shFGFR1 #1, shFGFR1 #2. $p = 0.0307$, $p = 0.0306$. UCD65-GFP shNC, sh-1, sh-2; D1, D3, D5

i UCD12 Spheres on Young Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). shNC, shFGFR1 #1, shFGFR1 #2. $p = 0.0024$, $p = 0.0054$. UCD12-GFP shNC, sh-1, sh-2; D1, D5, D11

j UCD65 Spheres on Aged Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). shNC, shFGFR1 #1, shFGFR1 #2. $p = 0.0176$, $p = 0.0069$. UCD65-GFP shNC, sh-1, sh-2; D1, D5, D7

k UCD12 Spheres on Aged Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). shNC, shFGFR1 #1, shFGFR1 #2. $p = 0.0007$, $p < 0.0001$. UCD12-GFP shNC, sh-1, sh-2; D1, D5, D10

l MCF7: OE, EV; FGFR1, GAPDH

m Growth Relative to D0 — EV (+veh, +E2), FGFR1-OE (+veh, +E2). $p = 0.0098$, $p = 0.0067$

n MCF7 Spheres on Young Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). MCF7-FGFR1-OE, MCF7-EV. $p < 0.0001$. MCF7-GFP EV, OE; D1, D5, D11

o MCF7 Spheres on Aged Brain — GFP intensity relative to D1 vs Time (days). MCF7-FGFR1-OE, MCF7-EV. $p = 0.0209$. MCF7-GFP EV, OE; D1, D7, D13