

The network structure of cancer ecosystems

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Ever since Paget's seed-and-soil and Ewing's connectivity hypotheses to explain tumor metastasis (1, 2), it has become clear that cancer progression can be envisaged as an ecological phenomenon. This connection has flourished during the past two decades (3–7), giving rise to important insights into the ecology and evolution of cancer progression, with therapeutic implications (8–10). Here, we take a metapopulation view of metastasis (i.e. the migration to and colonization of, habitat patches) and represent it as a bipartite network, distinguishing source patches, or organs that host a primary tumor,

11 and acceptor patches, or organs colonized ultimately from the source through
12 metastasis. Using 20,326, biomedical records obtained from literature, we
13 show that: (i) the network structure of cancer ecosystems is non-random, ex-
14 hibiting a nested subset pattern as has been found both in the distribution of
15 species across islands and island-like habitats (11–13), and in the distribution
16 of among species interactions across different ecological networks (14–16);
17 (ii) similar to ecological networks, there is a heterogeneous distribution of
18 degree (i.e., number of connections associated with a source or acceptor or-
19 gan); (iii) there is a significant correlation between metastatic incidence (or
20 the frequency with which tumor cells from a source organ colonize an accep-
21 tor one) and arterial blood supply, suggesting that more irrigated organs have
22 a higher probability of developing metastasis or being invaded; (iv) there is a
23 positive correlation between metastatic incidence and acceptor organ degree
24 (or number of different tumor-bearing source organs that generate metastasis
25 in a given acceptor organ), and a negative one between acceptor organ degree
26 and number of stem cell divisions, implying that there are preferred sink or-
27 gans for metastasis and that this could be related to average acceptor organ
28 cell longevity; (v) there is a negative association between organ cell turnover
29 and source organ degree, implying that organs with rapid cell turnovers tend
30 to generate more metastasis, a process akin to the phenomenon of propagule
31 pressure in ecology (17); and (vi) the cancer ecosystem network exhibits a mod-
32 ular structure in both source and acceptor patches, suggesting that some of
33 them share more connections among themselves than with the rest of the net-
34 work. We show that both niche-related processes occurring at the organ level
35 as well as spatial connectivity and propagule pressure contribute to metastatic

36 **spread and result in a non-random cancer network, which exhibits a truncated**
37 **power law degree distribution, clustering and a nested subset structure. The**
38 **similarity between the cancer network and ecological networks highlights the**
39 **importance of ecological approaches in increasing our understanding of pat-**
40 **terns in cancer incidence and dynamics, which may lead to new strategies to**
41 **control tumor spread within the human ecosystem.**

42 In 1829, Joseph Recamier coined the term 'metastasis' for the spread of cancer cells away
43 from organs where a primary tumor had emerged. Despite many intervening decades of obser-
44 vation and investigation, our understanding of metastasis is largely centered on a small number
45 of organs and tissues (18, 19). These studies indicate that a series of often complex processes
46 occur in metastasis, beginning with the migration of cancer cells from a source tumor, through
47 numerous intermediate states, habitats and microenvironmental conditions, and culminating ei-
48 ther in spatially distinct tumors in local tissue or in distant organs (20, 21). Although the basic
49 sequence is very similar among those cancers that have been studied in detail, it is not well
50 understood why certain organs and tissues (hereafter 'organs') are more commonly the sites of
51 metastasis, nor why some specific primary tumor sites tend to be associated with one or a few
52 specific metastatic organ sites (20), while others are more generalists and tend to metastasize in
53 many different organs (22).

54 Two main hypotheses have been offered to explain why some organs are the target for
55 metastasis (23). Under the first hypothesis (also known as the 'seed-and-soil' hypothesis)
56 proposed by Stephen Paget (1), tumor cells migrate from established tumors and only create
57 self-sustaining metastatic growth in distant organs if the latter's microenvironmental conditions
58 are adequate (24). This set of conditions is analogous to the Grinnellian niche in ecology (25),
59 and in cancer is the set of conditions under which cancer cells survive migration, settle and
60 grow (18, 26, 27). The second hypothesis is associated with the proposal by James Ewing's

61 work (2), and suggests that metastatic spread occurs by purely mechanical factors associated
62 with the anatomical structure of the vascular system. Here, the probability of an organ harbor-
63 ing a metastasis depends in part on the number of cancer cells delivered to it, which in turn is a
64 function of blood flow and distance to the source organ (28, 29). Whereas there is little support
65 for the sole action of the mechanical hypothesis in explaining observed patterns in metastasis,
66 measures integrating microenvironments and mechanical variables could be more representa-
67 tive (30).

68 Competing hypotheses to explain the mechanisms contributing to metastatic patterns have
69 been evaluated with reference to the primary tumor (e.g., the lung tumor and its metastasis
70 (31)), but how findings generalize across both primary and metastatic tumor sites is unknown.
71 In this contribution, we carry out a large scale statistical analysis of metastatic pattern (using
72 20,326, biomedical records, see Supplementary Material) by taking a network approach of the
73 association between an organ with a primary tumor and its metastatic sites. To do this we
74 employ methods from metapopulation theory (7) and classify 'source patches' (or S) as those
75 organs where the primary tumor emerged and from where metastatic propagules migrate, and as
76 'acceptor patches' (or K) as those organs that receive these propagules and become colonized.
77 In this context, source organs can be associated to acceptor organs using a bipartite network or
78 graph defined as $G = (S, K, E)$ (Figure 1A), where source patches and acceptor patches are
79 connected by links or 'edges' (E).

80 We found that source and acceptor organs vary in terms of the number of connections they
81 have (i.e. their degree). This may be associated with a monotonic gradient in migrating cell
82 invasiveness across source organs (i.e., some source organs are connected to more acceptor
83 organs, and/or generate more migrating cells, and/or migrating cells that are more adapted to
84 migration) and a monotonic gradient in invasibility across acceptor organs (i.e., some acceptor
85 organs are more prone to be invaded than others, and/or to receive metastases from more source

86 organs) (Figure 1C). This diversity may be associated with tissue-specific risk factors (32, 33),
87 different life history trade-offs in tumors (34), and variation in the degree of matching between
88 the quality of the recipient organ and the niche requirements of migrating metastatic cells, all
89 of which drives colonization success (5, 24, 35), analogous to what is often observed in models
90 of metapopulation dynamics (7, 36, 37).

91 More interestingly, we found that the metastatic network is highly structured with a scale-
92 free, truncated power-law, degree distribution that applies to both source or acceptor organs,
93 and which is significantly different from the exponential model expected for a random network
94 (Fig. 2, Table S1). A scale-free degree distribution is a property shared by different complex
95 networks, from protein interactions to networks of scientific collaboration (38–40). Similarly,
96 the metastatic network is highly nested (nestedness tests: NODF = 83.12 and BINMAT = 5.95)
97 and asymmetric, such that there is a network core of highly interacting source and acceptor
98 organs and a periphery where specialized source (acceptor) organs interact with generalist ac-
99 ceptor (source) organs (Figure 1B,C). We also found that the cancer network shows clusters
100 of interacting organs (Figure S1), which is reflected by a modular structure. This implies that
101 there are groups of source and acceptor organs that are more similar among themselves than to
102 the rest of the network in which they are embedded (41, 42) as shown by (32) for cancer risk.
103 Modular networks in ecology have been associated with the presence of species with similar
104 functional traits (43, 44) or subsets of locations with more frequent dispersal (45, 46). These
105 two mechanisms are plausible in cancer networks. Modularity may reflect a combination of
106 similar traits among groups of organs (due either to similar organ environments or shared con-
107 nectivity characteristics), and different traits between groups that restrict metastasis from certain
108 source organ groups but not others.

109 Scale-free degree distributions, modularity and nestedness patterns in networks have been
110 suggested to promote diversity, stability and network robustness to disturbances (14, 47). In an

111 oncological context, these network attributes are not related to stability and robustness, since
112 organs are not species that can go extinct, instead our findings suggest the action of one or a
113 few simple mechanisms (16, 39).

114 **Explaining the observed patterns**

115 The simplest way to generate a scale free network is based on the action of two simple
116 generic mechanisms (39): 1) one that provides for the continuous increase in the number of
117 links resulting in the expansion of the network, and 2) one that accounts for an increase in the
118 probability of a site being connected as function of the number of connections it already has
119 or 'preferential attachment'. For the metastatic network presented here it is important to keep
120 in mind that it corresponds to a network reconstructed from an ensemble of cases, where each
121 link implies that the interaction has been recorded in at least one case (i.e. an individual with
122 a primary tumor and its corresponding metastasis). In what follows we propose that these two
123 mechanisms can account for the network patterns in metastasis.

124 The first mechanism implies that the network structure has changed through time, because
125 of carcinogenesis and cancer cell migration from novel primary sites, and/or metastasis to novel
126 acceptor sites. Changes in tissue-level cancer risk may have an evolutionary basis (32, 48,
127 49) and/or be associated with novel environmental conditions (50). The second mechanism is
128 associated with preferential attachment, which in this context implies that a new primary tumor
129 will likely metastasize in an acceptor organ with a high degree, and that a new metastasis is
130 more likely to arise in a primary tumor that already metastasize to many different organs. This
131 mechanism by definition will generate nestedness, whereby specialized (low degree) acceptor
132 organs are more likely to interact with generalized (high degree) source organs and vice versa.
133 The mechanism behind preferential attachment in cancer networks is likely the result of some
134 organs being more likely to express a primary tumor as well as to receive metastases (22).

135 As shown in Figure 3, the number of connections (i.e. its degree) that a given acceptor

136 organ has (i.e. the number of different primary tumors that can metastasize to it), increases
137 as the narrow sense and broad sense incidence (NSI and BSI respectively, see Supplementary
138 Materials) of metastasis in that organ increases. Thus there are some organs that are 'preferred'
139 targets for metastases (hence there are many cases of these combinations in the population) from
140 a given primary tumor (NSI) or for different primary tumors (BSI). Also, our analysis identifies
141 a negative correlation between acceptor organ degree and the number of stem cell divisions,
142 implying that organs which on average have fewer or older cells are targets for metastasis from a
143 larger number of different primary tumors, in accordance with Paget's seed and soil hypothesis.
144 In this case, they receive more links because they are inherently more suitable to be colonized,
145 and this is likely one of the mechanisms behind preferential attachment, and hence nestedness.
146 Finally, the truncation phenomenon observed in the degree distribution of our networks is likely
147 the result of the small and finite number of nodes (organs) that can potentially be part of the
148 network (51), and which limits the spread and filling of the distribution.

149 Nestedness in ecological systems can arise because habitat patches display a gradient in ei-
150 ther colonization or extinction probabilities (11, 52). In the case of the cancer network presented
151 herein, both extinction and colonization appear to influence observed patterns. Extinction in the
152 context of metastasis corresponds to failed colonization (to the point of producing a detectable
153 tumor), resulting from either intrinsic inhospitability of certain organs to cancer cell growth, or
154 from characteristic non-compatibility between certain primary tumor metastatic cells and spe-
155 cific organ microenvironments. As per colonization, we found positive correlations between
156 blood flow through an organ and the incidence of metastasis and this is valid for both BSI and
157 NSI (Figure 3). Blood flow is correlated with the number of propagules that could potentially
158 arrive in a patch, or 'propagule pressure' (17). Similarly, the degree, of a source organ is neg-
159 atively correlated with cell turnover in that organ (Figure 3). This implies that source organs
160 with more frequent cell division (i.e. shorter turnover time) generate more metastasis to differ-

161 ent acceptor organs. Taken together, these results suggest both a role for propagule pressure,
162 hence colonization, in the observed nested pattern of the cancer network, and the importance of
163 stem cells' life history and organ turnover (53–55) in understanding the emergence of primary
164 tumors and metastasis. Finally, as suggested by Ewing's hypothesis, we have found that spatial
165 closeness related to arterial blood supply, as a proxy for spatial proximity, is correlated with
166 metastatic incidence (Kendall- $\tau = 0.096$, p-value = 0.003), suggesting that the probability of
167 metastasis in an acceptor organ increases if it shares an artery with the source organ organ (Fig.
168 S2) (see methods in Supporting Material).

169 It is clear that further research beyond a static view of network structure is needed to
170 understand the observed variation in susceptibility of organs to metastasis. Network dynam-
171 ics can be of great importance, particularly in understanding the phenomenon of tumor self-
172 seeding (56, 57) or the possibility of stepping stone migration from a primary source to an
173 acceptor organ via intermediate organs (23, 31). The ecological network approach presented
174 here has the power to generate insights to direct both fundamental and applied research of ther-
175 apeutic relevance. In particular, and considering the asymmetric nature of the cancer network
176 reflected in its nested subset structure, it is important to resolve the mechanisms behind the
177 gradient in specificity/generality observed in source and acceptor organs.

178 **Conclusions** We show that both niche-related processes occurring at the organ level as well
179 as spatial connectivity and propagule pressure are consistent with patterns in metastatic spread
180 as evidenced by a non-random cancer network, which exhibits a truncated power law behavior,
181 clustering and nested subset structure.

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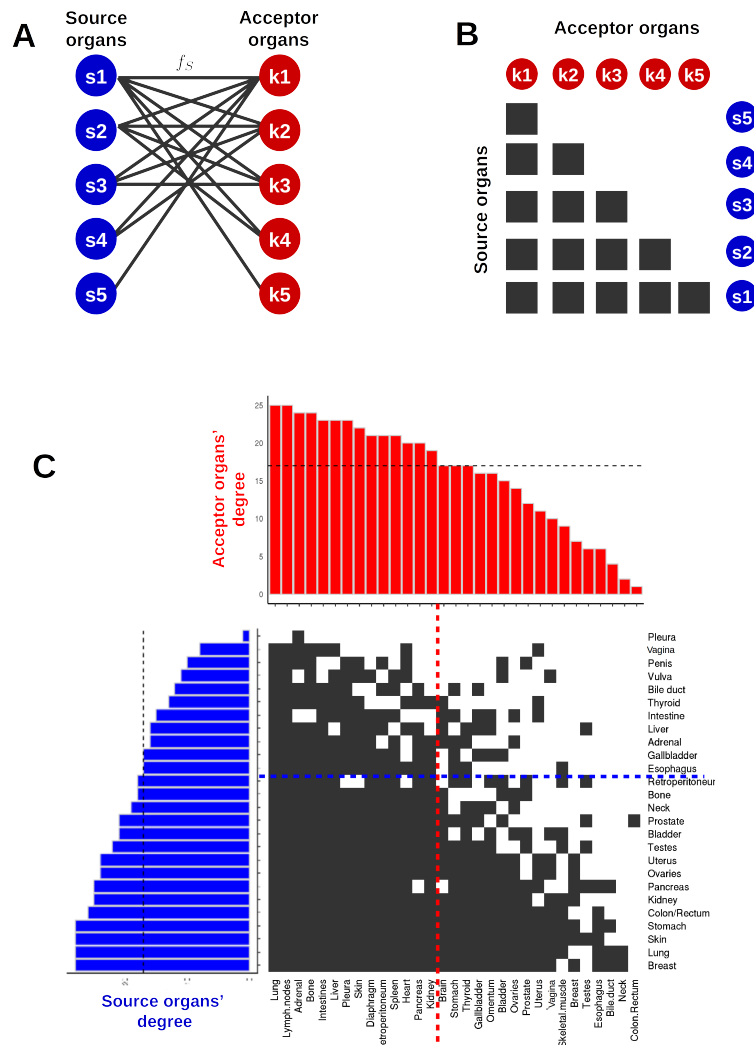
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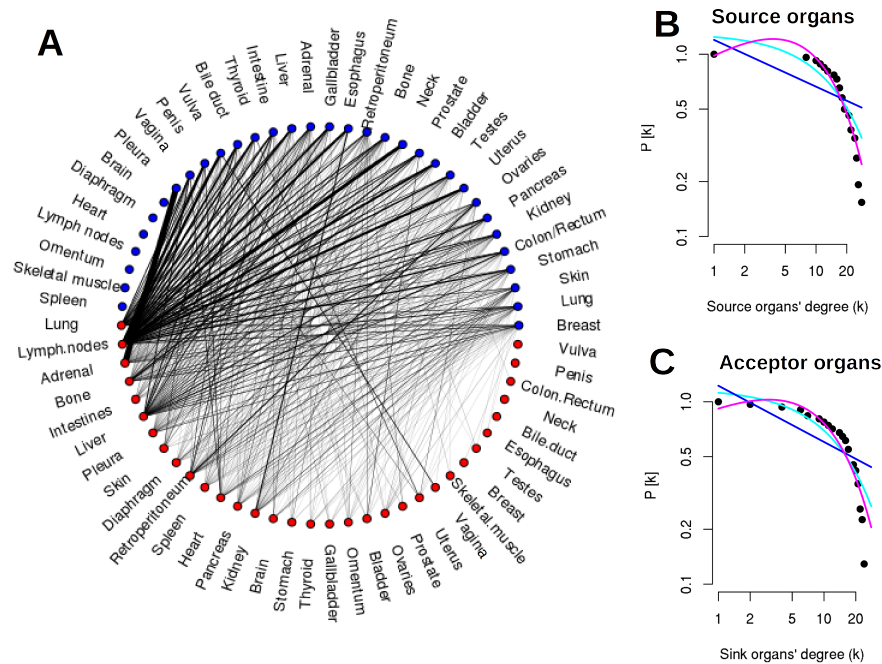
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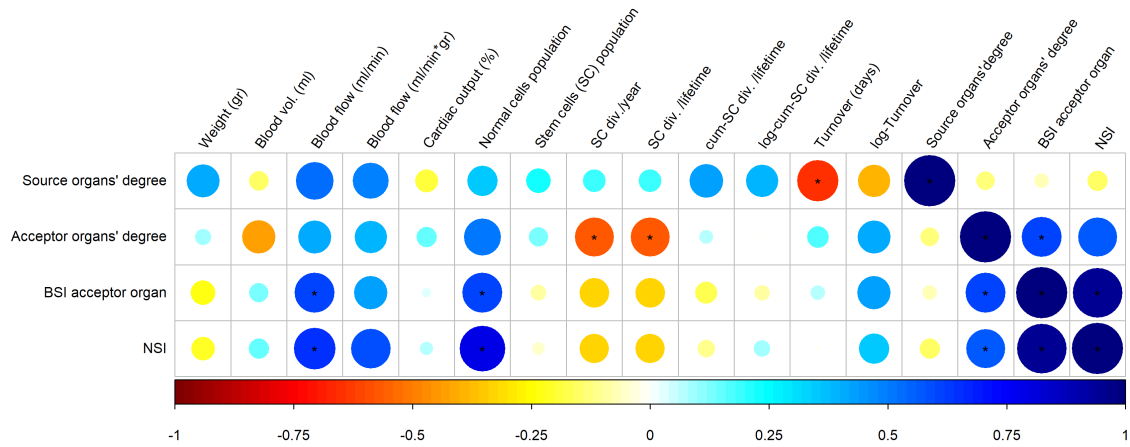
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258 **Fig. 1.** The cancer network. (A) Schematic view of the bipartite network connecting source
 259 $S = (S_1, \dots, S_5)$ and acceptor $K = (K_1, \dots, K_5)$ organs through metastatic propagules $f_S :$
 260 $S \rightarrow K$ (B) This network can be represented as a matrix with rows and columns arranged
 261 according to their degree, in this case the matrix is perfectly nested. (C) The observed cancer
 262 matrix connecting source (rows) with acceptor (columns) organs. Histograms show the degree
 263 corresponding to each organ. Dashed lines identify the median of the degree distribution. They
 264 define a core of highly interacting organs and a periphery where low-degree organs interact with
 265 high-degree ones.



266

267 **Fig. 2.** A scale-free cancer network. (A) Shows links from a source organ (blue nodes) to
 268 acceptor organs (red nodes). Links width is proportional to NSI. (B) Three different models
 269 were fitted to the probability that the degree of a randomly chosen organ is larger than k or
 270 $P[x \geq k]$ where k is the number of links or degree of the organ: exponential (blue), power law
 271 (cyan) and truncated-power law (magenta). The best fit model was truncated power law (for
 272 summary statistics see Table S1).



273

274 **Fig. 3.** Correlation matrix testing the linear association between our network measures for each
 275 organ (rows) and data from literature (see methods for details and references). Asterisks(*)
 276 indicate that the correlation coefficient differs significantly from 0. (BSI: broad sense incidence.
 277 NSI: Narrow sense incidence).

278 **Supplementary Materials**

279 **Materials and Methods**

280 We studied the metastatic network between organs by constructing a bipartite network based
281 on a matrix representing the number of occurrences that a primary neoplasm in a source organ
282 generated a metastasis in an acceptor organ. The data was obtained from the literature (1–12).
283 Following diSibio and French (1), 33 anatomical zones (referred here as 'organs') were iden-
284 tified (Fig. 1). We categorized a *source* as the organ where the primary carcinoma was found,
285 and as *acceptor* organs those organs with secondary growth of a neoplasm, according to the
286 reported metastatic sites. A total of 20,326 occurrences were included in the analysis, based
287 on autopsies and tomographies in the case of muscular cancers. Medical records are from the
288 USA, Switzerland, Germany and Slovenia. In analytical terms, we define the metastatic pro-
289 cess as a graph $G = (S, K, E)$ where S and K denote the set of source and acceptor organs,
290 respectively and E identifies the links or edges connecting them. We focus our analysis in the
291 weighted network ($W = G = (S, K, E)$) of source-acceptor organ interactions $S_i \times K_j$ with
292 $S_i \in S$, $K_j \in K$ and $S = K = (1, \dots, N)$, where N corresponds to 33 anatomical sites. Let us
293 define f_S as the metastatic process $f_S : S \rightarrow K$. The values of the source to acceptor weight
294 (narrow sense metastatic incidence or NSI) $f_S \in [0, 1]$ corresponds to the number of metastases
295 found at an acceptor organ that derived from a given *source* organ out of the total number of
296 metastases recorded for that source organ in the population of cases. Thus, f_S represents the
297 relative importance of acceptor organs for the propagules generated by the primary tumor in
298 the source patch. Similarly, the number of times that a primary tumor was recorded in a source
299 organ or that a metastasis was recorded in an acceptor one, out of the total number of cases in
300 the population, corresponds to the Broad Sense Incidence or BSI of source or acceptor organs.

301

302 Vascular incidence matrices were estimated based on the main artery or vein conducting
303 blood flow between organs. We identified the main arteries associated with an organ's blood
304 supply: thoracic aorta, abdominal aorta, left gastric coeliac trunk, splenic artery, common hep-
305 atic artery, superior mesenteric artery, and internal iliac artery; and those involved in blood
306 drainage: renal veins, inferior phrenic vein, hepatic vein, gastric veins, splenic vein, mesen-
307 teric vein, internal iliac vein, and internal jugular vein. To characterize the spatial association
308 emerging from the vascular arrangement, we constructed a vascular squared matrix $n_i \times n_j$
309 with $n = (n_1, n_2, n_{i/j}, \dots, N)$ being the number of organs (number of rows/columns). When
310 two organs shared an artery or a vein, we recorded this co-occurrence as a 1. In contrast when a
311 couple (n_i, n_j) did not share a vessel we assigned a 0. For example, because pancreas and liver
312 share blood supply through the abdominal aorta, the supply matrix has a value of 1 associated
313 to the pair 'pancreas, liver'. Our first approach was to correlate the weighted metastatic matrix
314 with both vascular matrices independently, expecting that if organ connectivity plays a role in
315 cancer spread, it will manifest in a significant statistical association. Our results show that,
316 the drainage network is not statistically associated with metastatic incidence in source organs
317 (Kendall- $\tau = 0.042$, p-value = 0.204), although there are some cases where acceptor organs
318 that share a proximal vein with the source have higher metastatic incidences (Fig. S3). On the
319 other hand, the supply network, based on common arteries shared by organs, was significantly
320 correlated with the metastatic incidence network (Kendall- $\tau = 0.096$, p-value = 0.003), suggest-
321 ing that organs which share an artery, on average, have higher metastatic incidences (Fig. S2).
322 These results follows the intuitive idea that metastatic propagules leaving their source organ
323 follow blood flow, increasing their chances of colonizing new patches.

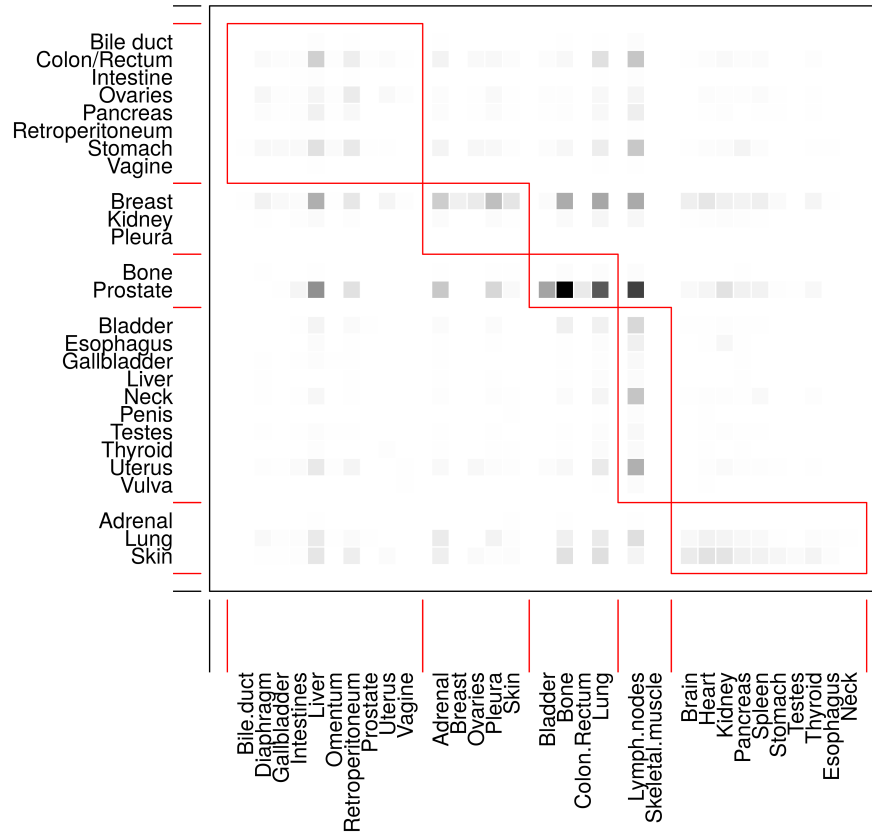
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325 All data analyses were performed in R (13). Nestedness measures were contrasted against a
326 random null model (function `nestedchecker`, package `vegan`) under a non-sequential al-

327 gorithm for binary matrices that only preserves the number of occurrences within the matrix. In
328 this case the statistical significance of the estimated C-score was analyzed. We tested linear cor-
329 relations (null hypothesis: $\rho = 0$) of our network metrics (source organ degree, acceptor organ
330 degree and metastatic incidence) against the following estimates extracted from the literature:
331 From Weiss et al (14): organ weight, blood volume (ml), blood flow (ml/min), mass-specific
332 blood flow (ml/(min*gr)). From Sidhu et al 2011 (15): cardiac output (%). From Tomasetti and
333 Volgestein (16): normal cell population number, number of stem cells, number of division of
334 each stem cell per year, number of divisions of each stem cell per lifetime, cumulative divisions
335 of each stem cell per human lifetime. From Richardson, Allan and Le (17): organ turnover.

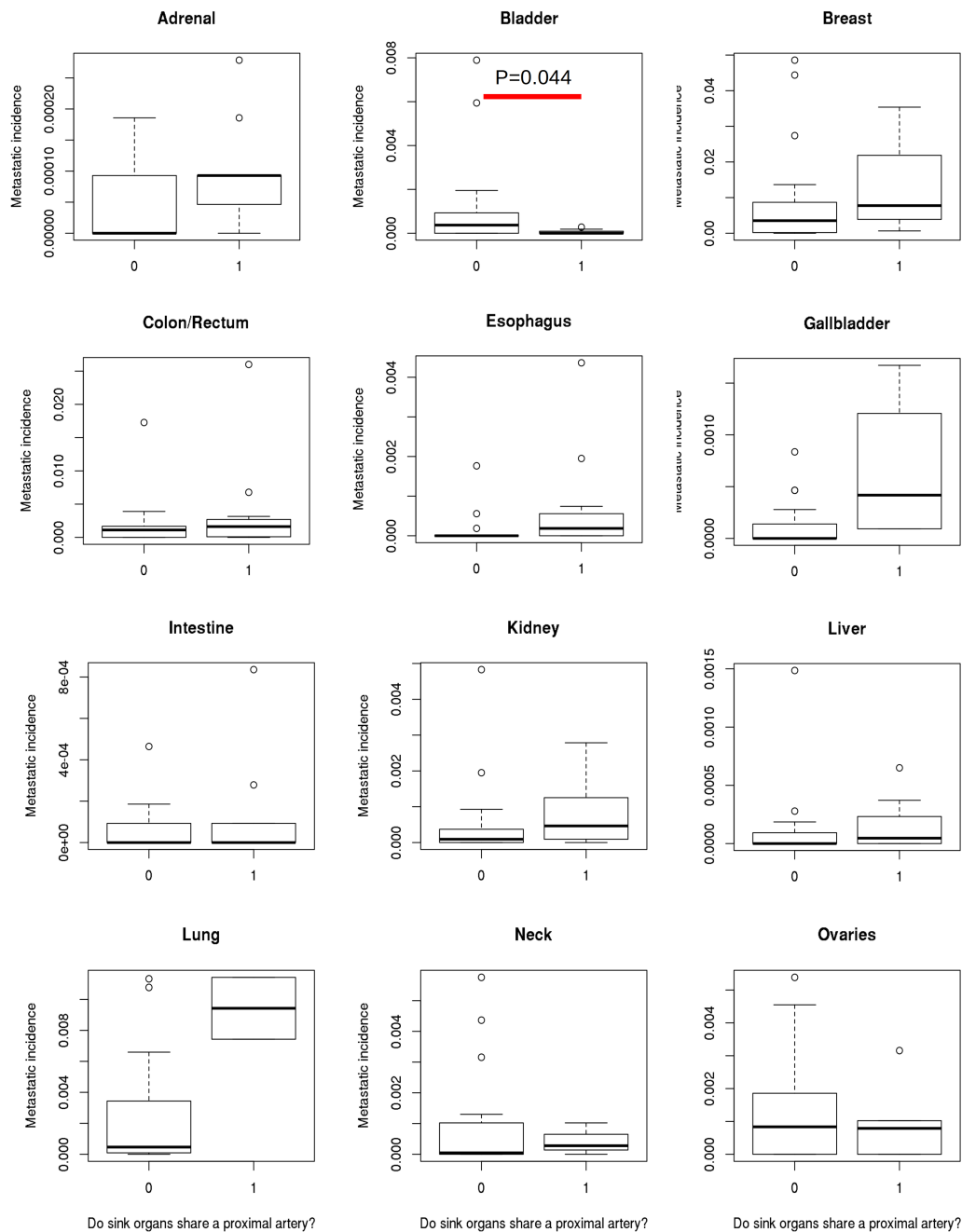
336 **Modularity analysis**

337 Modularity was obtained with the package `bipartite` implementing the QuanBiMo al-
338 gorithm (18) for bipartite networks' module detection. This algorithm allows the detection of
339 modules based on metastatic incidence patterns.



340

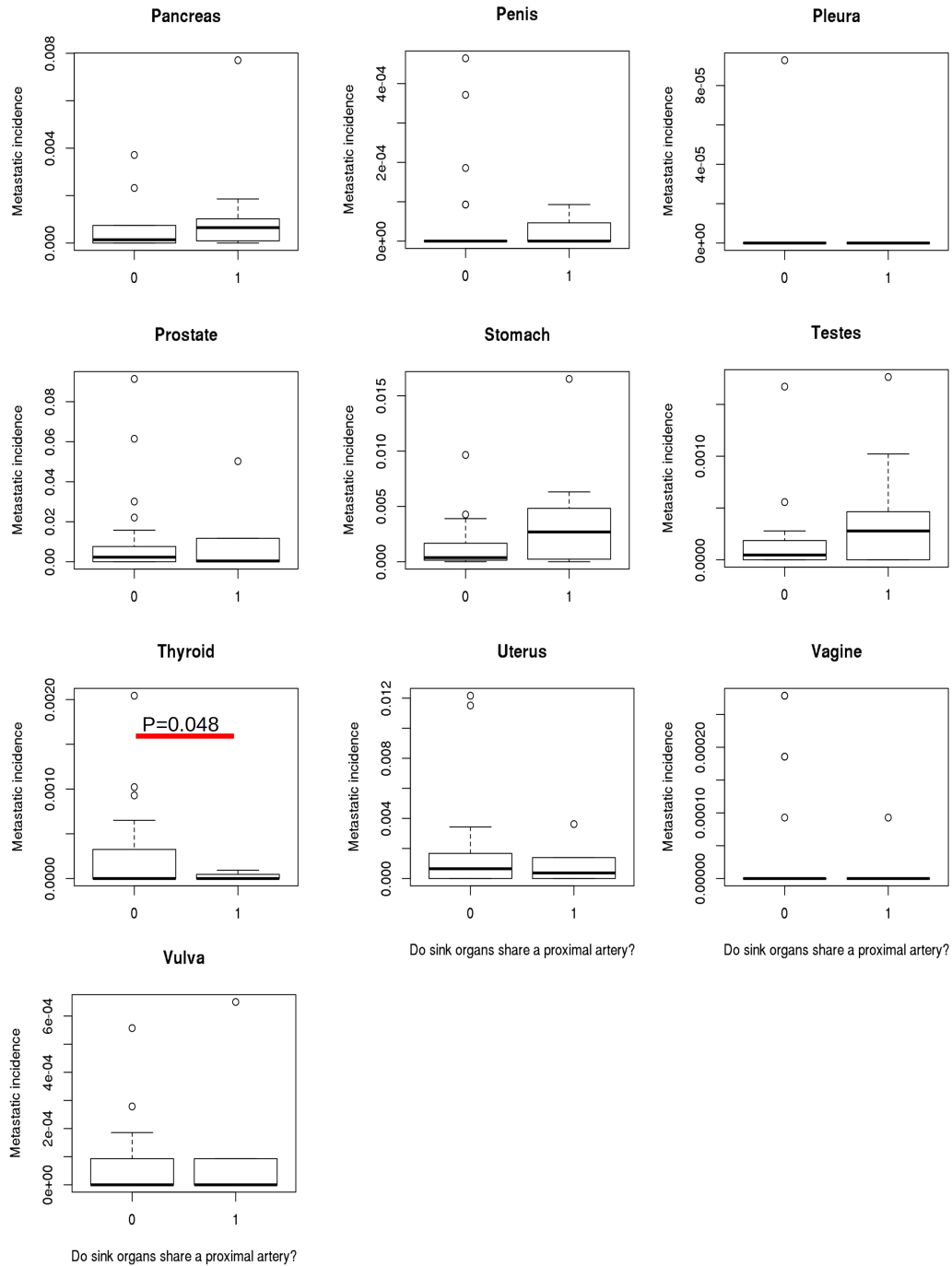
341 **Fig. S1.** The identification of modules based on BSI for the metastatic spread from source
 342 organs (rows) to acceptor organs (columns). Red boxes delineate the modules detected by
 343 QuanBiMo algorithm (18).



344

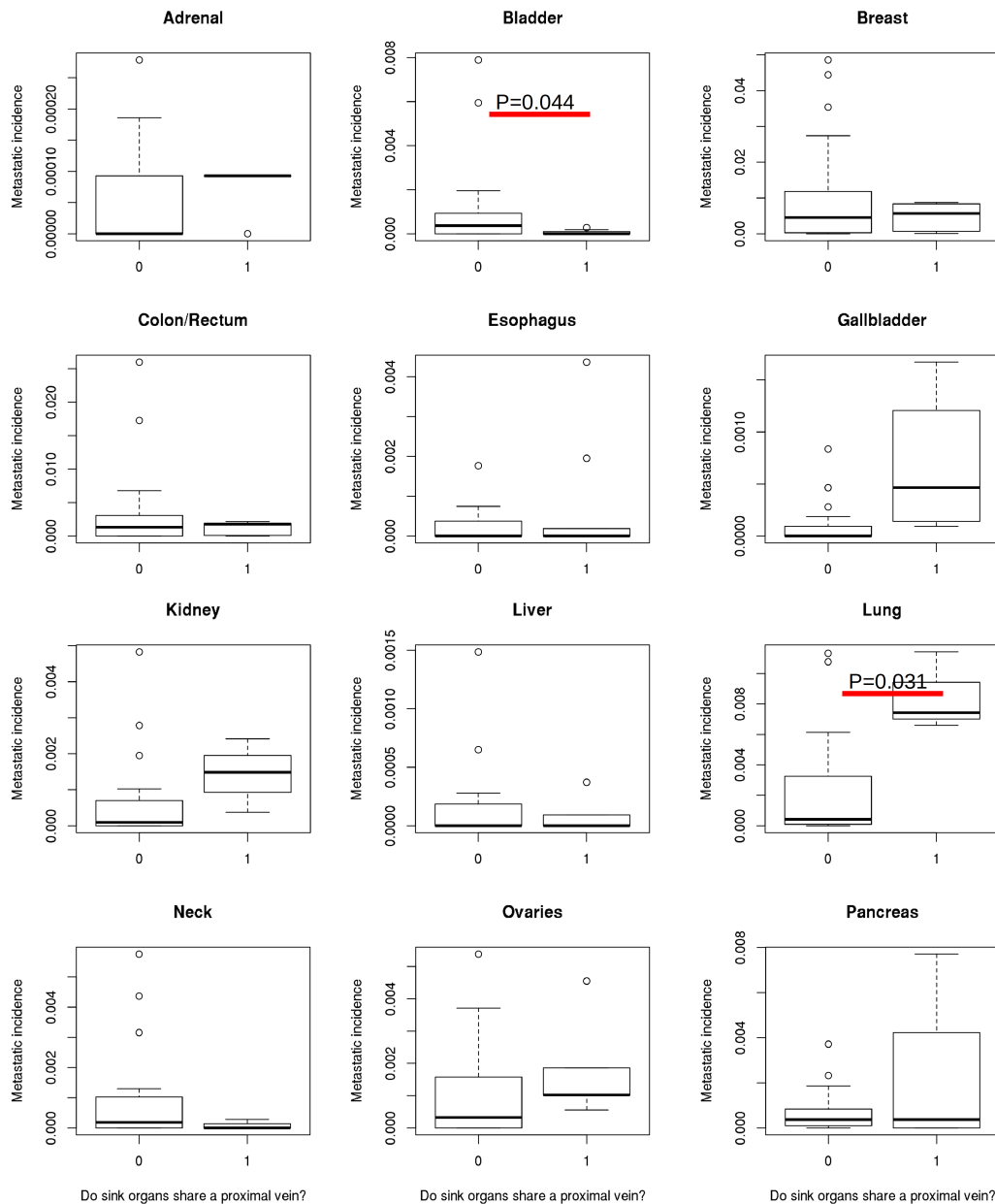
345 **Fig. S2.** Each plot represents a primary tumor showing the relationship between broad sense
346 incidence (BSI) and common blood supply (0=no, 1=yes) of acceptor organs with the corre-
347 sponding source. Only statistical differences are shown ($p < 0.05$). For each primary tumor, we

348 tested (using the Student t-test) if organs sharing a vessel has an effect on the average metastatic
349 incidence value. All statistical tests were evaluated under the same criteria (Type I error rate
350 $\alpha = 0.05$).



351

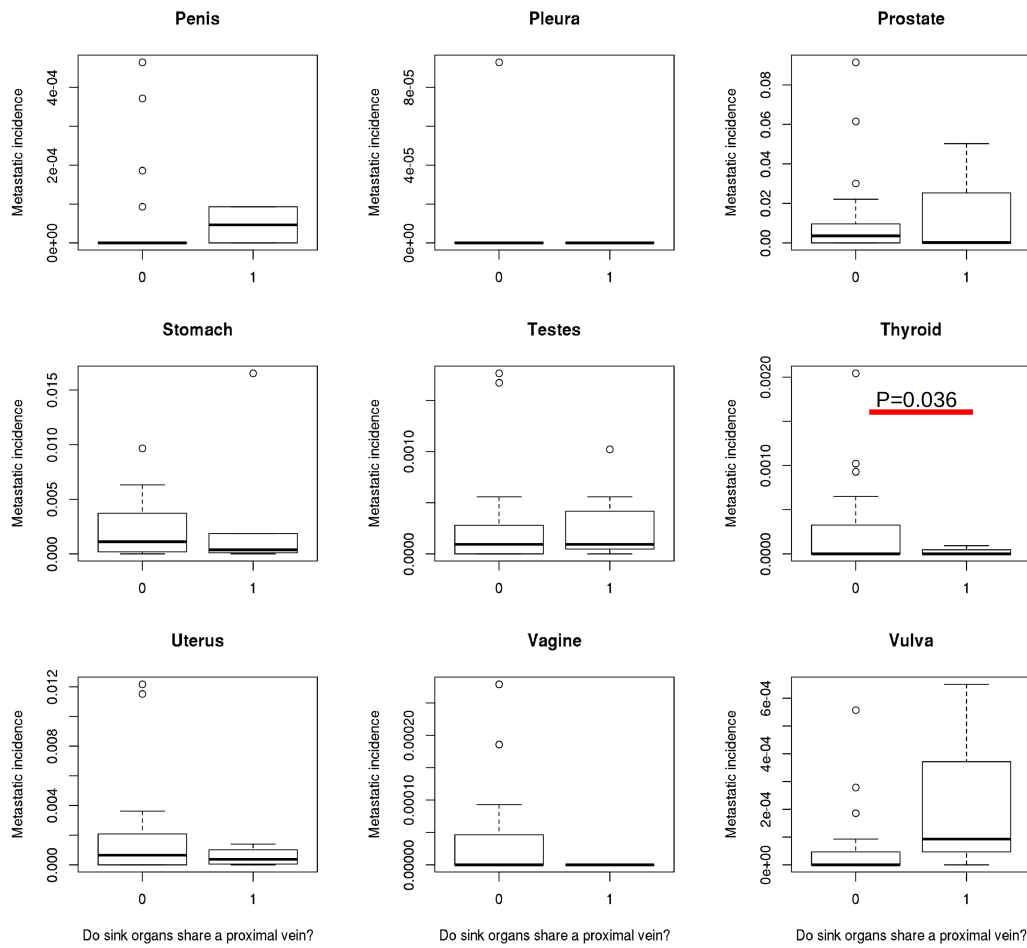
352 **Fig. S2(cont.).**



353

354 **Fig. S3.** Each plot represents a primary tumor showing the relationship between broad sense
355 incidence (BSI) and common blood drainage (0=no, 1=yes) of acceptor organs with the corre-
356 sponding source. For each primary tumor, we tested (using the Student t-test) if organs sharing
357 a vessel (arteries or veins) has an effect on the average metastatic incidence value. All statis-

358 tical tests were evaluated under the same criteria (Type I error rate $\alpha = 0.05$). Only statistical
359 differences are shown ($p < 0.05$).



360

361 **Fig. S3 (cont.).**

362 Table S1: Summary of the different statistical fits applied to the probability distribution
 363 $P[k]$ for the degrees k for source and sink organs. The truncated power law fits two coeffi-
 364 cients: slope and cut-off; in this table only the slope estimation is shown.

Source organs					
Fit	Estimate	Std. error	$\Pr(> t)$	R^2	AIC
Exponential	0.047	0.006	2.47×10^{-6}	0.898	-17.585
Power law	0.257	0.072	2.9×10^{-3}	0.643	0.827
Truncated power law	-0.357	0.055	1.48×10^{-5}	0.978	-41.159
Acceptor organs					
Fit	Estimate	Std. error	$\Pr(> t)$	R^2	AIC
Exponential	0.053	0.006	3.36×10^{-8}	0.923	-26.932
Power law	0.308	0.061	7.71×10^{-5}	0.757	-5.112
Truncated power law	-0.263	0.081	4.6×10^{-3}	0.958	-35.561

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