

1 **Brief Communication:**

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4 **Lymphatic metastases have more diverse roots than distant metastases**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Both lymphatic and distant metastases arise through cancer cell migration and
26 colonization of ectopic sites. Nonetheless, the two metastasis types are associated with
27 significantly different clinical outcomes, suggesting that distinct biological mechanisms
28 may drive their formation. Here we show fundamental differences in the seeding patterns
29 of lymphatic and distant metastases. Analyzing the reconstructed phylogenies of human
30 colorectal cancers, we find that distant metastases typically are monophyletic, originating
31 from one common ancestor. Lymphatic metastases, in contrast, are almost exclusively
32 polyphyletic and can be seeded from many primary tumor regions. We develop a rigorous
33 mathematical framework for quantifying the phylogenetic diversity of metastases while
34 accounting for differential lesion sampling among patients. Our results indicate that a
35 smaller fraction of primary tumor cells gives rise to distant metastases than lymphatic
36 metastases. Thus, the two metastasis types exhibit profoundly distinct phylogenetic traits,
37 indicating that different evolutionary mechanisms may drive their formation and influence
38 their clinical behavior.

39 **Main text**

40 In most cancers, metastasis to distant organs confers a considerably worse prognosis
41 than spread to locoregional lymph nodes. For example, 5-year survival for colorectal
42 cancers that have metastasized to local lymph nodes or the pericolonic fat (stage III) is
43 53-90% but drops to 12% for patients with spread to distant organs (stage IV)¹. The
44 survival difference for patients with locoregional and distant disease is similar for other
45 tumor types, such as breast cancer and melanoma^{2,3}.

46
47 The formation of both lymphatic and distant metastases depends on cancer cell migration
48 and colonization of foreign microenvironments⁴. Given that both types of metastasis
49 require similar cellular abilities⁵ and indicate the presence of a potentially lethal cell type
50 capable of ectopic growth, it is worth asking why clinical outcomes of stage IV patients
51 differ so markedly from those of stage III patients.

52
53 The simplest explanation is that distant metastases often affect vital organs such as the
54 liver and the lungs and therefore lead to accelerated death. However, locoregional
55 recurrence may be equally dangerous in some cancer types. For example, autopsy
56 studies have shown that local recurrence was the cause of death in approximately 50%
57 of colorectal cancer patients⁶, highlighting the importance of locoregional disease control.
58 Similarly, in pancreatic cancer, local recurrence has been estimated to be responsible for
59 approximately 30% of deaths⁷.

60

61 Are lymphatic metastases perhaps easier to remove than distant metastases? 5-year
62 survival for colorectal cancer patients with resectable liver metastases is 25-44%⁸, well
63 above average for stage IV disease, suggesting that surgical management of metastases
64 can make a difference. Yet, clinically, resection of affected lymph nodes is not a high
65 priority in colorectal cancer. Nodes are primarily resected for staging and not for
66 therapeutic purposes⁹. Pre-operative imaging of mesenteric lymph nodes is challenging¹⁰
67 and lymph node harvest practices vary by institution¹¹. Therefore, affected nodes
68 probably stay behind in a fraction of patients. In rectal cancer, clinical trials have shown
69 that extended lateral pelvic lymph node dissection did not improve survival^{12,13}, echoing
70 similar findings in breast cancer¹⁴ and melanoma¹⁵. Collectively, these data suggest that
71 “left-behind” positive nodes do not necessarily lead to local recurrence and call into
72 question the idea that relative ease of surgical management is the reason for the survival
73 difference between patients with lymphatic and distant metastases.

74
75 Finally, distant and lymphatic metastases may represent fundamentally different disease
76 forms that are driven by distinct biology and dissemination mechanisms. To date, no
77 systematic comparative studies have investigated the evolutionary features of lymphatic
78 and distant metastases in humans. Here, we show that lymph node metastases in
79 colorectal cancer are a phylogenetically more diverse group than distant metastases.
80 Genetic heterogeneity among lymph node metastases mirrors the genetic diversity of the
81 primary tumor. Phylogenetic analyses show that lymphatic metastases intermingle with
82 primary tumor regions on the evolutionary tree, indicating that in stage III patients, many
83 if not all primary tumor regions are capable of seeding lymph node metastases. In stark

84 contrast, distant metastases are a homogeneous, monophyletic group that tends to be
85 the terminal branch of the phylogenetic tree. Their distinctive phylogenetic features
86 indicate that lymphatic and distant metastases arise from cancer cells with different
87 biological properties.

88
89 To investigate the evolution of lymphatic and distant metastases, we took advantage of a
90 recently published collection of colorectal cancer phylogenies¹⁶. From this study, we
91 selected all patients (n=18) with multiple primary tumor regions (range 2-10) and/or lymph
92 node and/or distant metastases (range 2-10). These data formed the basis of our analysis
93 (see Supplementary Table 1 for detailed patient information). Importantly, this cohort was
94 exhaustively sampled, and a majority of resected metastases of sufficient size and purity
95 were included, minimizing sampling bias¹⁶. Phylogenies were reconstructed based on
96 small insertions and deletions in hypermutable polyguanine tracts, a method that
97 produces rich mutation data and robust trees¹⁷. We had previously used this patient
98 cohort to ascertain that most liver metastases originate in the primary tumor and do not
99 share a common subclonal origin with lymph node metastases¹⁶. Here, we analyzed the
100 evolutionary trees from a fundamentally different perspective, asking whether lymphatic
101 and distant metastases *as a group* consistently display distinct phylogenetic features.

102
103 Evaluating patient trees (**Fig. 1a** and Supplementary Figures 1-3), we noticed a recurring
104 pattern. Lymph node metastases and primary tumor samples typically diverged, often in
105 alternating succession, from the tree trunk, while distant lesions usually had one common
106 ancestor and tended to form the terminal branch of the tree (Supplementary Fig. 4). Given

107 the consistency of this observation, we sought to formalize it. First, to avoid sampling
108 bias, we reduced the data set to one sample per lymphatic and distant metastasis. That
109 is, in cases where multiple biopsies were taken from the same metastasis, we randomly
110 removed all but one sample, such that each metastasis was represented by only one
111 biopsy in the final data set (see Supplementary Figs. 1-3 for all phylogenies). Then, we
112 determined the fraction of patients in whom all anatomically distinct distant metastases
113 had one common ancestor and grouped together in a monophyletic clade that did not
114 include any primary tumors or lymphatic metastases. We found that in 67% of patients,
115 distant metastases were part of such a clade. In contrast, lymphatic metastases formed
116 a monophyletic group in only 10% of patients (**Fig. 1b**, $p = 0.036$, two-tailed Fisher's exact
117 test). A slightly altered classification approach in which we considered distant and
118 lymphatic metastases a monophyletic group if the clade contained all metastases but no
119 primary tumor samples (allowing for the other metastasis type to be part of the branch)
120 gave similar results, with 20% and 83% of patients having one common ancestor for all
121 lymphatic and distant metastases, respectively ($p = 0.035$, two-tailed Fisher's exact test,
122 Supplementary Fig. 5). Note that the classification into monophyletic and polyphyletic
123 groups is unrelated to our previously described common and distinct origin categories,
124 which reflect whether lymphatic and distant metastases have a common subclonal
125 origin¹⁶. For example, all phylogenetic trees in Fig. 1a show polyphyletic lymph node
126 metastases and monophyletic distant metastases, although C45 and C66 belong to the
127 distinct origins category, while C36 shows common origin of lymphatic and distant
128 metastases¹⁶.

129 We further explored the high phylogenetic homogeneity of distant metastases (**Fig. 1b**)
130 by calculating, for every patient, the mean phylogenetic distance (number of internal
131 nodes) separating different primary tumor regions and distinct lymphatic and distant
132 metastases. The distances were not significantly different for primary tumor regions and
133 lymphatic metastases (mean distances of 0.50 vs 0.42) but significantly lower for distant
134 metastases (mean distance of 0.24, $p=8.4e-3$ and $p=0.045$, two-tailed Mann-Whitney
135 tests), confirming the relative homogeneity of this group (**Fig. 1c**).

136
137 We wondered whether differential sampling of lymph node and distant metastases may
138 have affected the results. For example, if ten lymphatic but only two distant metastases
139 are included in a phylogeny, it is far more likely that all distant metastases will have one
140 common ancestor by chance. We did not observe a significant difference between the
141 number of lymphatic and distant metastases in our data set, but the mean and variance
142 were slightly higher in the lymph node metastasis group (mean 3.7 vs 3.0 metastases,
143 $p=0.54$, Student's t-test, **Fig. 1d**). Additionally, the number of primary tumor regions
144 sampled in each case further affects the odds of finding monophyletic metastasis groups
145 by chance alone. To account for the different number of lesions sampled in each patient,
146 we developed a mathematical framework that allowed us to quantify the likelihood of
147 common origin for any given phylogeny. We define m as the number of metastasis
148 samples under investigation (either lymphatic or distant), and k as the number of all other
149 tumor samples in the phylogeny (**Supplementary Methods**). We calculate a *root diversity*
150 *score* (RDS) defined by the probability that at least l out of m metastases form a common
151 clade in a tree with $n = k + m$ samples (Supplementary Table 2). In other words, the root

152 diversity score denotes the probability that a tree with an equally or more extreme
153 clustering of metastases occurs by chance alone. For example, in subject C36 (**Fig. 1a**),
154 the root diversity score for distant metastasis is 0.067, as the likelihood that two distant
155 metastases ($m=2$) will cluster by chance in a phylogeny with $n=9$ samples is 6.7%. The
156 power to detect non-random clustering of metastases increases with the number of
157 samples n in a phylogeny (**Fig. 2a**).

158
159 We used the root diversity score to quantify the homogeneity of distant metastases in our
160 cohort. We found that after accounting for the number of other samples (k) in the
161 phylogenies, indeed the root diversity score was generally very low (**Fig. 2b**), even for
162 phylogenies where distant metastases did not form a monophyletic clade. To validate the
163 low root diversity of distant metastases in an independent cohort, we searched the
164 literature for colorectal cancer phylogenies with at least two primary tumor samples and
165 multiple anatomically distinct distant lesions. We found one appropriate study comprising
166 five patients with a total of 17 liver metastases¹⁸. We calculated the root diversity scores
167 for distant metastases for all five patients (trees are shown in Supplementary Fig. 6) and
168 found the smallest possible root diversity score in every case (**Fig. 2b**), independently
169 confirming our observation that distant metastases tend to be monophyletic. In 8 out of
170 11 patients with multiple distant lesions in the combined two cohorts, the likelihood that
171 metastases would cluster to the observed degree by chance alone was below 10%
172 (Supplementary Table 2). Furthermore, combining all root diversity scores, we calculated
173 a combined p-value of $4.5e10^{-7}$ for the entire patient population. This p-value corresponds
174 to the likelihood that distant metastases would cluster to the observed degree by chance.

175 Thus, we find strong evidence for distant metastasis homogeneity both within individual
176 phylogenies and across the whole patient cohort.

177
178 Returning to our original question, we next applied the root diversity score to lymphatic
179 and distant metastases in a comparative analysis. The results showed highly significant
180 differences in root diversity between the two metastasis types (mean diversity score of
181 0.69 vs 0.090; $p=2.6e10^{-3}$, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test), confirming that lymphatic
182 metastases are far more likely to be polyphyletic than distant metastases (**Fig. 2c**), even
183 after accounting for differential sampling in a mathematically rigorous fashion.

184
185 We wondered whether these differences might be due to treatment effects. Treatment did
186 not affect the majority of patients in the combined two cohorts, as 16 out of 23 cases
187 (70%) had synchronous metastasis. In these cases, all primary and metastatic lesions
188 were resected at the same time. Seven patients had metachronous metastasis and
189 received treatment in the time interval between the resection of the primary tumor and
190 associated lymphatic metastases and the resection of distant metastases. Two of these
191 did not have multiple distant metastases (C65, C39) and therefore were not included in
192 **Fig. 2c**. Only five patients with multiple distant metastases had metachronous metastasis
193 and treatment in the interval between resections (C66, C36, C69, CRC2 and CRC5). In
194 one case (C69), some distant metastases (Liv1, Liv2) were resected along with the
195 primary tumor and the lymph nodes, and others (Liv3) 6 months later, after a
196 chemotherapy regimen. All distant metastases still clustered together in this case
197 (Supplementary Fig. 2), arguing against an effect of the treatment on the inferred

198 phylogeny. Nonetheless, we recalculated the root diversity score after excluding *all*
199 treated patients (C66, C36, C69, CRC2 and CRC5) from the analysis and found that the
200 results remained highly significant ($7.0e10^{-3}$, Supplementary Fig. 7).

201
202 In summary, our results indicate that in colorectal cancer, lymphatic and distant
203 metastases are phylogenetically distinct groups. Lymph node metastases are
204 polyphyletic, mirror the heterogeneity of the primary tumor and are furthermore polyclonal,
205 according to a recent report¹⁹. These observations suggest the absence of strong
206 selection during the formation of lymph node metastases: many cells from the primary
207 tumor appear capable of migrating to and thriving in lymph nodes. Distant metastases, in
208 contrast, typically have one common ancestor and form a monophyletic group (**Fig. 2d**).

209
210 Multiple explanations for the high phylogenetic similarity of distant metastases exist. First,
211 metastases may have given rise to each other²⁰⁻²². Most lesions in our data set were liver
212 metastases and could have formed through intra-hepatic seeding. Standing on its own,
213 we consider this explanation relatively unlikely, as many phylogenetically similar
214 metastases (e.g. C69, C36, CRC3, CRC4) presented in different liver segments, which
215 are independent functional units with separate vascular systems. Furthermore, the two
216 patients in our cohort who had metastases in different organs (C45 and C38) still showed
217 monophyletic origin of these lesions.

218
219 Second, it is possible that distant metastasis represents a specific selective bottleneck
220 and thereby, in contrast to lymphatic metastasis, selects for a particular subpopulation.

221 The ability to enter and exit the blood stream²³, travel longer distances²⁴, or survive in
222 organ-specific microenvironments²⁵ may represent such a bottleneck. This possibility is
223 further supported by a recent study which showed that distant metastases in different
224 cancer types were more often monophyletic than expected by chance²⁶. The existence of
225 an (epi-) genetically defined metastatic clone has been strongly debated over the years²⁷.
226 Our results motivate a continued search for the molecular traits of this clone. It will
227 furthermore be important to determine whether metastasis to different organs selects for
228 different lineages²⁵, a question that cannot be conclusively answered with our liver-centric
229 data set.

230
231 Most importantly, our data show that lymphatic metastases evolve by fundamentally
232 different rules than distant metastases in colorectal cancer. Lymphatic metastases'
233 phylogenetic features reflect the relative absence of strong selective pressures, and no
234 specialized clone appears to be necessary for their formation, potentially explaining their
235 more benign clinical implications.

236
237

238 **Methods**

239
240 **Root diversity score.** The root diversity score (RDS) denotes the probability that in a
241 cancer phylogeny with n tumor samples at least l out of m metastases samples form a
242 single clade. We generalized Edwards' and Cavalli-Sforza's approach to calculate the
243 number of distinct phylogenies with a given number of samples in which at least l of m

244 metastases samples form a monophyletic group^{28,29} (**Supplementary Methods**). To
245 obtain the probability that such a phylogeny would evolve by chance, we divide this
246 number of phylogenies by the total number of phylogenies with n tumor samples (see
247 Equation S2 in **Supplementary Methods**). All RDS values are provided in
248 Supplementary Table 2.

249
250 **Code availability.** The source code to calculate the root diversity score as well as to
251 produce various figure panels is available as jupyter notebook at
252 <http://www.github.com/johannesreiter/rootdiversity>. (The code will be released upon
253 publication; for review please see supplementary files). The notebooks are implemented
254 in Python 3.6. All required input data is contained in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2.

255
256 **Data availability.** Results are based on previously published data and inferred cancer
257 phylogenies. Original raw polyguanine profiling data, and phylogenetic trees can be
258 downloaded from datadryad.org (<http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.vv53d>). Original whole-
259 exome sequencing data of Kim et al.¹⁸ was deposited to the Sequence Read Archive
260 (SRA) at the NCBI under the project ID of PRJNA271316. All figures have associated raw
261 data.

262
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266

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268 research and wrote the manuscript.
269
270 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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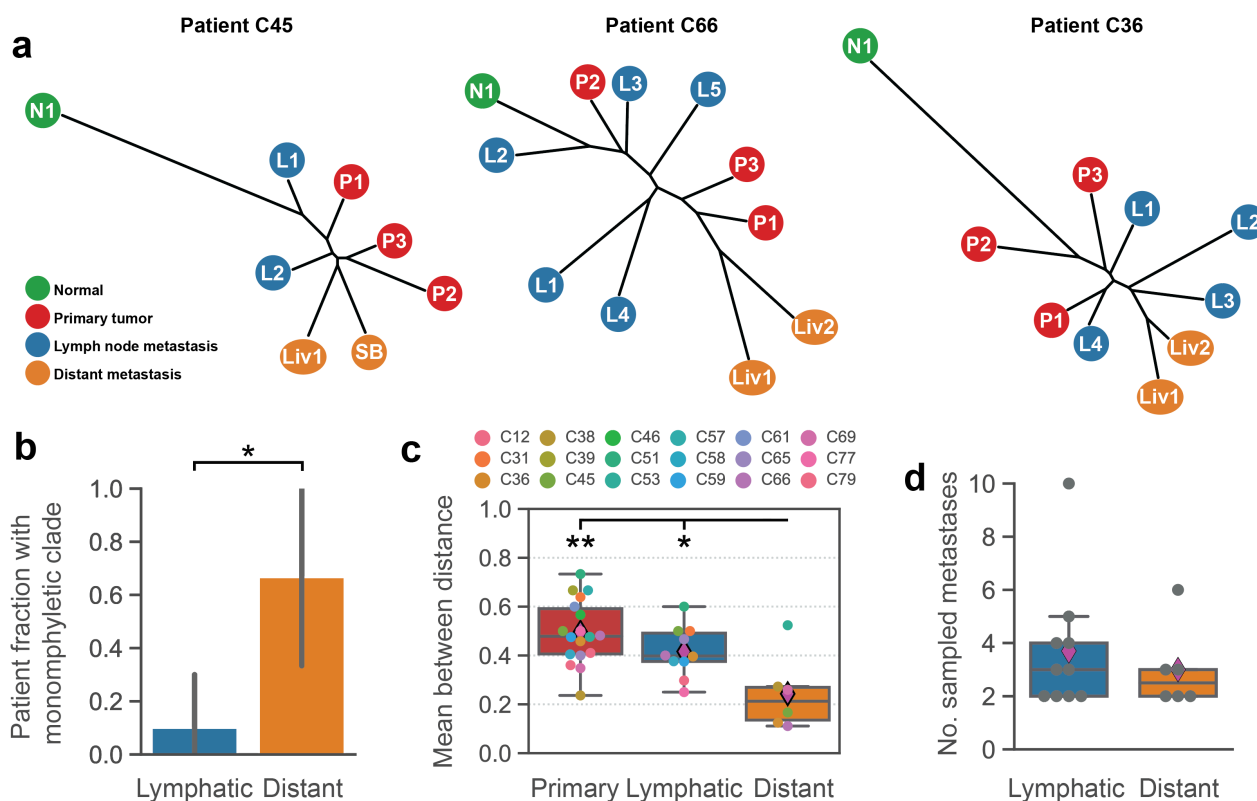


Fig. 1: Distant but not lymphatic metastases form monophyletic clades in most

patients. **a** | Phylogenetic trees of colorectal cancer patients C45, C66, C36, adapted from Naxerova et al.¹⁶. Distant metastases arise from a common ancestor in all cases.

Liv, liver metastasis; SB, small bowel metastasis. **b** | All distant metastases formed a monophyletic clade in 67% (4/6) of patients. All lymphatic metastases formed a monophyletic group in 10% (1/10) of patients ($p = 0.036$, two-tailed Fisher's exact test).

The black bars denote 90% confidence intervals. **c** | The normalized mean number of internal phylogenetic nodes that separated a pair of distinct distant metastases was significantly lower than the mean for primary tumor samples (0.24 vs 0.5) or lymphatic metastases (0.24 vs 0.42), respectively. No statistically significant difference was observed between the mean distances of primary tumor samples and lymphatic metastases ($p=0.11$, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test). Center line, median; box limits, upper

and lower quartiles; points, outliers. Magenta diamonds illustrate the mean in each group.

d | No statistically significant difference was observed between the number of lymphatic and distant metastases samples (mean of 3.7 vs 3; $p=0.54$, two-tailed t-test).

* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$.

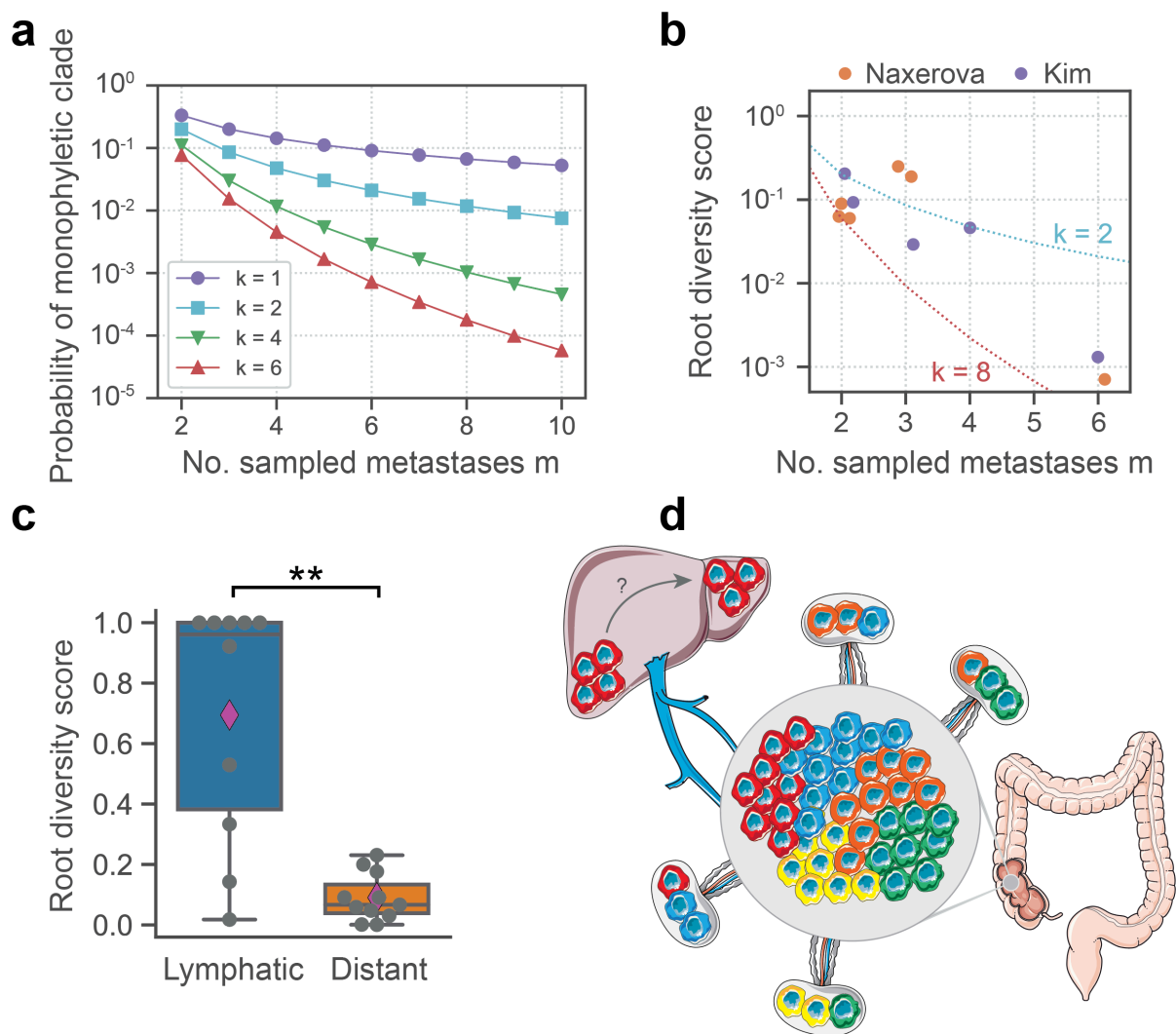


Fig. 2. Distant but not lymphatic metastases exhibit a very low root diversity score.

a | The probability of observing a monophyletic clade of all sampled metastases m by chance decreases with increasing m and increasing number of other cancer samples k .

b | In both cohorts, the root diversity score decreases as the power to observe a low score increases with the number of sampled distant metastases. k ranges between 2 and 8 in both cohorts.

c | The root diversity score was significantly lower for distant metastases than lymphatic metastases (0.09 vs 0.65; $p=0.0026$; two-tailed Mann-Whitney test).

Center line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; points, outliers. Magenta

diamonds illustrate the mean in each group. **d** | Summary schematic showing that lymphatic metastases can be seeded from many primary tumor regions and mirror the heterogeneity of the primary tumor, while distant metastases are typically formed by one clone, either due to selection or intra-organ metastasis.