Prototypical oncogene family Myc defines unappreciated distinct lineage states of small cell

lung cancer

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Summary: Historically well-known tumor promoting gene family plays a key role in cell identity

regulation in small cell lung cancer.

Abstract

Comprehensive genomic analyses of small cell lung cancer (SCLC) have revealed frequent

mutually exclusive genomic amplification of *MYC* family members. Hence, it has been long

suggested that they are functionally equivalent; however, more recently, their expression has

been associated with specific neuroendocrine markers and distinct histopathology. Here, we

explored a novel role of L-Myc and c-Myc as lineage determining factors contributing to SCLC

molecular subtypes and histology. Integrated transcriptomic and epigenomic analyses showed

that L-Myc and c-Myc impart neuronal and non-neuroendocrine associated transcriptional

programs, respectively, both associated with distinct SCLC lineage. Genetic replacement of c-

Myc with L-Myc in c-Myc-SCLC induced a neuronal state but was insufficient to induce ASCL1

lineage. In contrast, c-Myc induced transition from ASCL1-SCLC to NeuroD1-SCLC

characterized by distinct LCNEC-like histopathology. Collectively, we characterize a role of

historically defined general oncogenes, c-Myc and L-Myc, for regulating lineage plasticity

across molecular subtypes as well as histological subclasses.

Introduction

Small cell lung cancer (SCLC) represents about 15% of all lung cancers with a median survival time of approximately 10 months and 5-year overall survival at 6% (*1*). SCLCs are characterized by neuroendocrine differentiation, rapid growth, early metastatic spread and poor prognosis (*2*). The standard of care has remained cytotoxic chemotherapy for decades, mainly etoposide combined with a platinum agent (*3*) , which are only temporarily effective for the vast majority of patients (*4*). Even with recent developments in immune checkpoint inhibitors, activity against SCLCs when combined with chemotherapy has been marginal with a modest improvement in the median survival (10.3 months vs. 12.3 months) for extensive stage SCLCs treated with immunotherapy (*5*). These data reflect the urgent need for more effective therapeutics for patients with SCLC. The lack of effective therapeutics for SCLC stands in stark contrast to the breadth of targeted therapies for non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), particularly lung adenocarcinoma (*6*). The progress in drug development for NSCLCs is largely attributable to more comprehensive understanding of molecular subtypes and to identification of targetable driver oncogenes (*7*). Therefore, better characterization of the molecular subtypes of SCLC should aid future drug development and permit patient stratification for targeted therapies, a strategy that has been remarkably effective for specific subsets of advanced lung adenocarcinoma patients.

Characterization of SCLC subtypes was first noted by morphological differences over three decades ago when human SCLC cell lines were implanted as xenografts and distinguished as two primary subtypes: classic and variant SCLC (*8, 9*). The classic subtype featured relatively small cells with high nuclear:cytoplasm ratio, while the variant subtype exhibited relatively larger cells and moderate amounts of cytoplasm. However, the World Health Organization

(WHO) classification, updated in 2015, histologically recognizes SCLC as a homogenous

disease with neuroendocrine features defined by small cells, scant cytoplasm, nuclear

morphology with fine granular chromatin, and lacking prominent nucleoli, reminiscent of the

features of the 'classic' SCLC. The originally described 'variant' subtype may represent

combined SCLC with LCNEC in the current classification (*10*).

More recent efforts to distinguish SCLC molecular subtypes include profiling gene

expression and genome-wide methylation in primary human tumors and patient derived

xenografts (PDX). These profiles revealed three clusters, with a dichotomy between achaete-

scute homologue 1 (ASCL1) and neurogenic differentiation factor 1 (NeuroD1) expression, in

addition to a cluster with low expression of both (*11*). The expression of ASCL1 and NeuroD1

has been implicated to confer SCLC heterogeneity by imparting distinct transcriptional profiles

(*12*). The third neuroendocrine-low cluster led to further classification into two subtypes

characterized by transcriptional driver YAP1 or POU class 2 homeobox 3 (POU2F3) (*13*, *14*).

SCLC cell line xenograft histology has been correlated with these contrasting factors, where

variant SCLC was positively correlated with a higher NeuroD1:ASCL1 ratio, and classic SCLC

was positively correlated with a higher ASCL1:NeuroD1 ratio in SCLC cell lines (*11*).

Observations on Myc family characteristics in SCLC genetically engineered mouse

models (GEMMs) have provided insight in their contribution to histopathological characteristics

(*15*, *16*). The SCLC GEMM with conditional loss of *Rb1* and *Trp53* mouse (RP), harbored

stochastic *MYCL* amplifications or overexpression associated with classic SCLC histopathology

(*17*). On the contrary, consistent with the original report on the variant subtype to harbor

frequent *MYC* amplification (*9*), a more recent study showed that additional c-Myc

overexpression, in the RP SCLC GEMM, drives the progression of murine SCLC with variant

histopathology and reduced neuroendocrine gene expression including ASCL1 but higher

NeuroD1 expression (*18*). Yet, the molecular mechanisms underlying the distinction between L-

Myc and c-Myc driven subsets of SCLC remain unexplored.

c-Myc (*MYC*) and L-Myc (*MYCL*) belong to the MYC family of basic helix-loop-helix

(bHLH) transcription factors. The paralogs contain functionally relevant highly conserved amino

acid sequences and are structurally homologous (*19, 20*). c-Myc is a well-characterized

oncogene; L-Myc, although understudied, is implicated to have a similar oncogenic role.

Amplification of Myc family members is mutually exclusive and overall accounts for ~20% of

SCLC and overexpression for ~50% of SCLC in primary human tumors (*21*). In contrast to the

fact that *MYC* is commonly amplified across all three major lung cancer subtypes; lung

adenocarcinomas, squamous cell lung carcinomas and SCLC (*21–23*), *MYCL* and *MYCN* are

uniquely amplified in SCLC, in a manner suggestive of their role as lineage-amplified genes.

In this study, we explored a novel role of c-Myc and L-Myc as lineage specific factors to

associate SCLC molecular subtypes with histological classes. We investigated the potential of L-

Myc and c-Myc to regulate lineage state and identified transcriptional programs unique to each

Myc family member, wherein L-Myc regulates neuronal developmental pathways and c-Myc

regulates epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and Notch signaling, biological pathways that are

associated with distinct molecular subsets. We showed c-Myc expression is required to maintain

lineage state marker NeuroD1 in NeuroD1-positive SCLC. In addition, c-Myc is and is

incompatible with ASCL1-positive SCLC that ultimately leads to trans-differentiation to

NeuroD1-SCLC, consistent with previous findings (*24*). Furthermore, this trans-differentiation is

characterized by variant histopathology mediated by a transcriptional repressor, Rest.

Results

SCLC network reveals unique and distinct sub-networks for c-Myc and L-Myc

To understand biological processes that may be unique to c-Myc and L-Myc in SCLC, we

sought to investigate potential causal regulations among genes. To this end, we first built a

molecular causal network using primary SCLC datasets and then focused on networks that

involve c-Myc and L-Myc. Combining two independent primary SCLC transcriptomic datasets

(*21*, *25*), we built a Bayesian network using RIMBANET, a software package we previously

developed (see Methods). The Bayesian network comprised 8,451 unique genes (nodes) and

9,301 regulations (edges) among these genes. The regulations inferred in this Bayesian network

provide insights into biological functions associated with molecular features such as pathways or

gene signatures (*26*, *27*). This enables us to discern transcriptional sub-networks associated with

c-Myc and L-Myc that may reflect their unique biological roles. We first aimed to generate a

signature associated with each factor and then project the signature to the SCLC Bayesian

network to identify specific subnetworks (Figure 1A). To generate these signatures, we sought to

select an independent dataset. Hence, we examined copy number alteration and expression for

each Myc family member in 49 SCLC cell lines from Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE)

and classified them into four groups representing each Myc family member and low Myc (Figure

S1A). Then, we selected cell lines that belong to *MYC* and *MYCL* groups and examined mRNA

expression *MYC* and *MYCL* to select cell lines for c-Myc with high expression of *MYC* and low

expression of *MYCL* and vice versa (Figure S1B). We identified 457 differentially expressed

genes (t-test p-value < 0.01 and fold change > 1.5), 147 and 310 genes overexpressed in *MYC*

and *MYCL* SCLC cell lines respectively and defined them as their introductory gene signatures

(Figure S1C and Table S1).

To explore the sub-networks associated with L-Myc, we projected the genes upregulated in

the L-Myc expressing subset onto the network and collected all nodes within two layers from

them (see Methods). We identified one large closed sub-network (L1, Figure 1B) that comprises

959 gene nodes that included 120 of 310 genes from the L-Myc signature. To identify master

regulators of the L-Myc subnetwork, we performed Key Driver Analysis (see Methods) that

revealed 13 statistically significant genes (Table S2). Examining protein expression of Smad2, a

node in the L-Myc sub-network, revealed higher expression in L-Myc-classified cell lines

compared to c-Myc-classified cell lines (Figure S1D). Gene ontology analysis of this L-Myc

subnetwork revealed enrichments of two biological processes: cell cycle progression and

neuronal development (Figure 1C). These processes have been previously implicated as core

descriptors of classic SCLC (*2*). On the other hand, when we projected the c-Myc signature onto

the network, the c-Myc network was organized into three unique sub-networks, c1, c2 and c3,

consists of 25, 95, and 29 gene nodes, respectively (Figure 1D). Key Driver Analysis of all three

sub-networks revealed 15 statistically significant regulators (Table S3). Sub-network c1 was

enriched for canonical c-Myc functions in transcriptional, translational and metabolic regulation

(Figure 1E) (*20*). c-Myc sub-network c2 was enriched for pathways in epithelial-to-mesenchymal

transition (Figure 1E); that has been shown to be relevant in the neuroendocrine-low subtype

(*28*). Finally, c-Myc sub-network c3 was enriched for Notch signaling pathway (Figure 1E),

which has been implicated to mediate a transition from neuroendocrine to non-neuroendocrine

fate of tumor cells in a murine SCLC model (*29*). These functional pathways enriched in

subnetworks c2 and c3 describe a relationship between c-Myc and lineage state determination

pathways in SCLC.

Together, these findings suggest that c-Myc and L-Myc are associated with different

molecular mechanisms that have been implicated in SCLC biology. Specifically, it implicates c-

Myc is associated with neuroendocrine-low differentiation state in addition to its canonical

oncogenic functions in SCLC, and by contrast, L-Myc is associated with classic neuroendocrine

state of SCLC.

c-Myc and L-Myc driven SCLCs exhibit distinct chromatin states to exert differential

transcriptional programs

Next, we sought to determine whether the distinct c-Myc and L-Myc networks are

associated with their distinct cistromes. To examine the role of each Myc family member, we

selected representative cell lines for c-Myc (NCI-H82, NCI-H524, NCI-H2171 and NCI-H2081)

and L-Myc (CORL-88, NCI-H1963 and NCI-H209) based on the classification described in

(Figure S1A) and confirmed protein expression for these transcription factors (Figure 2A). Of

note, NCI-H1963 expressed MYCL-RLF fused protein as well as the wild-type protein. The

fused protein which lacks the first 27 amino acids of L-Myc and is fused to 79 amino acids of

RLF protein has been previously shown to be functional in SCLCs (*30*).

In order to define open regulatory elements potentially regulated by c-Myc and L-Myc,

we first performed the assay for transposase-accessible chromatin-sequencing (ATAC-seq) on

three representative cell lines for each Myc (selected from Figure 2A) and identified accessible

chromatin regions, then we filtered these regions with motif matrices for Myc binding (E-box)

referring to as Myc accessible regions hereafter (Figure 2B, See Methods). Of note, inferred Myc

accessible regions reasonably recapitulated c-Myc binding sites previously determined by c-Myc

chromatin-immunoprecipitation in NCI-H2171 cells (*31*) (Figures S2A and S2B). This approach

eliminates confounding factors from antibody-dependent sensitivity and specificity that are

intrinsic to ChIP based assays to compare cistromes of two distinct proteins.

Principal component analysis (PCA) of E-Box containing peaks in all six cell lines, separated

these cell lines according to Myc status (Figure 2C). Additionally, a correlation matrix of

pairwise Pearson correlation coefficient of Myc accessibility signal captured distinct clusters for

the c-Myc and L-Myc classified cell lines (Figure S2C). Examining genome-wide Myc

accessible regions in each individual cell line, we observed a fraction of peaks that overlapped

between c-Myc classified and L-Myc classified cells (cluster 1; Figure 2D), suggestive of

common functional binding that the Myc family members share. We also found distinct groups

of peaks with higher signal intensity unique to L-Myc classified cells (cluster 2; Figure 2D) and

in c-Myc classified cell lines (cluster 3; Figure 2D), suggesting distinctive DNA binding profiles

for L-Myc and c-Myc. We observed preferential accessibility at distinct genetic loci in L-Myc

cell lines when compared to c-Myc cell lines (Figure 2E). This included augmented accessibility

in L-Myc cell lines at lung and neuron development factor *FOXA2* (*32, 33*) (Figure 2E) and

POU3F2 (Brn2), a neuronal lineage factor of lung squamous cancer (Figure S2D) (*34*); while in

c-Myc cell lines at cell surface adhesion factor *ITGA4* (Figure 2E) and neuronal repressor, *REST*

(Figure S2E). Consistent with the epigenetic results, we found protein expression of Brn2 was

significantly higher in L-Myc-classified cell lines, and Rest expression was highest in two c-

Myc-classified cell lines with highest Myc accessibility at its locus while there was no

statistically significant difference between c-Myc and L-Myc classified cell lines (Figure S2F).

Of note, the chromatin landscape of NCI-H82 appeared to be intermediate to the L-Myc and c-

Myc profiles. Together, these findings reveal the commonality and distinction between c-Myc

and L-Myc binding profiles.

To gain insights into the unique biological processes c-Myc and L-Myc may impart, we

analyzed differentially enriched Myc accessible sites comparing c-Myc cell lines and L-Myc cell

lines. We identified 2,808 differentially accessible regions; 1,235 peaks enriched in L-Myc

classified cell lines and 1,573 peaks enriched in c-Myc classified cell lines (Figure 2F). Next, we

performed GREAT (Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations) analysis (*35*) on the

differentially accessible peaks. Unique L-Myc accessible sites were enriched for neuronal

pathways such as glial cell proliferation, development of the neural plate, neural fold and future

midbrain (Figure 2G). By contrast, unique c-Myc accessible sites were enriched for pathways

involved in Notch signaling (Figure 2H). While specific Notch signaling activity in *MYC*-

amplified SCLCs has not been previously noted, there have been previous reports showing Rest

as a target of the Notch signaling pathway to suppress the expression of neuronal genes (*21*, *24*,

29). These findings are consistent with the observations from the Bayesian network analysis,

providing additional evidence to suggest distinct transcriptional programs in c-Myc and L-Myc

driven SCLCs.

Next, to explore the relationship between c-Myc and L-Myc transcriptomic and epigenomic

signatures, we examined average Myc accessibility signal at L-Myc and c-Myc sub-network

genes in c-Myc- and L-Myc-classified cell lines, respectively. This analysis revealed L-Myc

subnetwork genes were preferentially accessible in L-Myc-classified cell lines while c-Myc

subnetwork genes were preferentially accessible in c-Myc lines when compared to all other

genes (Figures S3A and S3B). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of Myc accessible regions

revealed c-Myc specific accessible regions were significantly enriched for the introductory c-

Myc transcriptomic signature (defined in Figure S1C) while L-Myc specific accessible regions

were significantly enriched for the introductory L-Myc transcriptomic signature (Figure S3C),

confirming the consistency between two datasets. Altogether, these independent datasets reveal

concordant L-Myc and c-Myc signatures to distinguish the two factors.

c-Myc and L-Myc expression is associated with distinct lineage state markers

A recent review synthesized SCLC profiling studies to identify four molecular subtypes,

where two of these subtypes are classified as neuroendocrine SCLC that are driven by either

ASCL1 or NeuroD1, and the other two are classified as non-neuroendocrine driven by YAP1 or

POU2F3 (*6*). Given our findings from the Bayesian network and Myc accessibility profiling that

c-Myc and L-Myc regulate transcriptional programs associated with distinct lineage determining

programs, we sought to investigate the relationship between Myc family members and the

proposed SCLC master regulator classifiers.

Myc accessibility profile at the individual locus level of our c-Myc and L-Myc classified cell

lines for these four factors revealed augmented accessibility in the c-Myc classified cell lines at

the *NEUROD1* locus in contrast to L-Myc classified cell lines that had augmented accessibility at

the *ASCL1* locus (Figures S4A and S4B). We observed no differential or preferential

accessibility signal in either c-Myc classified and L-Myc classified cell lines at *POU2F3* and

YAP1 loci likely reflecting that these cell lines do not represent these subtypes (Figures S4C and

S4D). Protein expression of these lineage state markers showed that our L-Myc classified cell

lines had exclusive expression of ASCL1, while the c-Myc classified cell lines exclusively

expressed NeuroD1, consistent with the chromatin profile. (Figure S4E).

To understand how c-Myc and L-Myc expression correlated with the four molecular subtypes

in CCLE cell lines, we examined the expression of c-Myc and L-Myc in each of the molecular

subtypes as classified in (*6*). We observed that the non-neuroendocrine, POU2F3 and YAP1, as

well as NeuroD1 subtypes had higher expression of c-Myc (Figure S4F). On the other hand, L-

Myc expression was enriched in the neuroendocrine high ASCL1 subtype (Figure S4G).

We further sought to reproduce the classification with data from primary tumors (*21*) and

CCLE cell lines with additional data from 77 primary tumors (*25*) (Figure 3A, Table S4). Of

note, while our unsupervised clustering was in general agreement with the published

classification (*6*), the ASCL1 subtype cluster revealed heterogeneity particularly of primary

tumors with the dual expression of ASCL1 and other lineage factors that may indicate lineage

transition or intra-tumor heterogeneity (Figure 3A). In this classification, we found that L-Myc

expression was higher in samples classified as ASCL1 or NeuroD1 subtype when compared to

the non-neuroendocrine subtype, thus indicating unique expression of L-Myc in neuroendocrine

SCLC (Figure 3B). On the other hand, the expression of c-Myc was higher in tumors and cell

lines clustered in the NeuroD1 subtype and non-neuroendocrine low, POU2F3 and YAP1, as

compared to those classified as ASCL1 (Figure 3C), suggesting a negative relationship between

ASCL1 and c-Myc. Indeed, we found the expression of c-Myc is anti-correlated with ASCL1 (r

= -0.53) across the combined primary tumor and cell line datasets (Figure 3D). Together, these

data imply the dichotomy of c-Myc expression and L-Myc expression in SCLC lineages.

L-Myc induces a neuronal state but fails to transition to ASCL1 expressing SCLC

Given that L-Myc expression and c-Myc expression are enriched in distinct subtype(s),

and they regulate programs associated with its respective subtype, we hypothesized that part of

the role Myc family members play is to serve as a lineage factor. To test the potential of L-Myc

to establish the neuroendocrine lineage, we modified two c-Myc expressing NeuroD1 classified

cell line NCI-H82 and NCI-H524 by exogenous overexpression of L-Myc and CRISPR-Cas9

mediated deletion of c-Myc (Figure 4A). We found c-Myc expressing cell line, NCI-H82 and

NCI-H524 was able to tolerate the over-expression of L-Myc (Figures 4B, S5A and S5B). Cells

engineered to express both L-Myc and c-Myc exhibited comparable proliferation rates compared

to parental cells expressing only c-Myc (Figures 4C and S5C). We further demonstrated that

replacement of c-Myc with the expression of L-Myc allowed the cells to retain proliferative

potential in the absence of c-Myc in NCI-H82 and NCI-H524 (Figures 4C and S5C). This

indicates redundant roles among the two Myc family members in regards to maintaining cell

viability.

To inquire their contribution to lineage determination, we evaluated the expression of

lineage state markers on day 5. Addition of L-Myc neither induced expression of

neuroendocrine-marker ASCL1 nor altered the expression of NeuroD1 (Figures 4B and S5B). By

contrast, the replacement of c-Myc with L-Myc led to the downregulation of NeuroD1 (Figures

4B and S5B). The lack of expression of alternate neuroendocrine lineage marker ATOH1,

neuroendocrine-low lineage state markers YAP1 and POU2F3 in these ASCL1- and NeuroD1-

negative cells in both NCI-H82 and NCI-H524, indicates a unique lineage negative state for

these cells (Figures S5D and S5E).

Without L-Myc replacement, consistent with previous findings (36), c-Myc was essential

for survival in NCI-H82 (Figure 4C), thus precluding us from evaluating converted lineage state.

However, during the short window of survival, c-Myc ablation led to significant downregulation

of NeuroD1 suggesting a role of c-Myc on maintaining expression of lineage state marker

(Figure 4D and S5F).

Even with the loss in lineage marker expression, we observed no significant

morphological changes *in vitro* (Figure S5G). However, morphological characteristics in

suspension cells can be but are not always reflective of a neuroendocrine or non-neuroendocrine

state. Previous literature showed that deletion of *Mycl* (L-Myc) in the RP GEMM resulted in

tumors with mixed and NSCLC morphology (*16*) in contrast to the c-Myc expressing SCLC with

'variant' morphology (*9, 18*). Therefore, to investigate L-Myc's contribution to SCLC histology,

we implanted genetically engineered NCI-H82 cells into immunodeficient mice. Histological

analysis of NCI-H82 expressing L-Myc and NCI-H82 L-Myc ablated with c-Myc xenografts

revealed morphology similar to the control NCI-H82-LacZ/sgNT cells with polygonal cells,

large nucleoli and moderate amounts of cytoplasm representative of 'variant' SCLC consistent

with previous reports (*9*) (Figure S5H). The insufficiency of L-Myc to induce histological trans-

differentiation may partially explain the low frequency of transition from variant to classic SCLC

(*29*).

To investigate the state of these lineage-marker negative cells, we performed

transcriptomic profiling. Gene ontology analysis of 235 significantly upregulated genes by L-

Myc in the presence of c-Myc in NCI-H82 revealed enrichment for neurogenesis and neuronal

associated pathways (Figures S6A and S6B), suggesting that L-Myc imparts neuronal pathways

while not fully inducing ASCL1-lineage state. Ablation of c-Myc further upregulated 170 genes

compared to the previous condition, which are enriched for neuronal structure, suggesting the

cells are further committed to a neuronal state (Figure S6C and S6D). A direct comparison of the

control NCI-H82 cells with lineage negative-NCI-H82 cells revealed 713 significantly

upregulated genes enriched for neuronal associated pathways and 500 downregulated genes

enriched for canonical Myc function (Figures 4E, 4F and S6E). Collectively, indicating the

significance of L-Myc in inducing a more neural state. Next, to investigate which state these

lineage-marker negative cells most closely resemble, we compared the transcriptomic profile of

these genetically engineered cells to cell lines classified as ASCL1, NEUROD1, YAP1 and

POU2F3. PCA of these cell lines revealed with the replacement of c-Myc with L-Myc in NCI-

H82 cells clustered away from NEUROD1, YAP1 and POU2F3 cells and shifted towards

ASCL1-classified cell lines (Figure S6F). To more clearly see the shift, we compared the state of

these cells only to ASCL1- and NEUROD1- SCLC that revealed replacement of c-Myc with L-

Myc in NCI-H82 cells transitioned the cells closer to ASCL1 (Figure 4G). Together, these data

suggest that replacement of c-Myc with L-Myc although, induces a more neural state but does

not fully transdifferentiates to ASCL1-positive state and remains to be negative for lineage

markers used in the current consensus molecular classification (*6*).

To investigate how L-Myc rewires the Myc accessible landscape, we profiled Myc-

accessible regions of 3 NCI-H82 control cells (LacZ, LacZ/sgNT1, and LacZ/sgNT2), and 3

NCI-H82 with c-Myc replaced by L-Myc (L-Myc/sg*MYC*1, L-Myc/sg*MYC*2 and L-

Myc/sg*MYC*3). Analysis of genome-wide Myc accessibility in control cells and replacement

cells identified a common cluster of Myc accessible regions, indicating an aspect of functional

redundancy between c-Myc and L-Myc (cluster 1; Figure 4H). Additionally, we identified

unique clusters gained and lost with L-Myc over-expression and c-Myc deletion (clusters 2 and

3; Figure 4H). To investigate what these unique clusters represent, we identified 1,165 regions

uniquely enriched in replaced NCI-H82 cells compared to the controls (Figure 4I). Integrative

ontology analysis of these regions with the transcriptomic profile (from Figure 4E) revealed

enrichment for neuronal associated pathways, suggesting direct activation of these genes (Figure

4J, top panel). On the other hand, Myc accessible regions lost with this genetic engineering were

enriched for functions to maintain high metabolic state that have been reported to be regulated by

Myc (Figure 4J, bottom panel). These data suggest that L-Myc has the potential to upregulate

neuronal lineage associated pathways, suggestive of its lineage determining function in SCLC.

Aurora Kinase A Inhibition sensitivity is altered with change in Myc status

Previous findings suggest that *MYC* (c-Myc)-driven SCLC is more responsive to Aurora

kinase A inhibition (*18*, *37*). We confirmed previous findings that *MYC*-amplified cell lines

exhibit increased sensitivity and *MYCL*-amplified cell lines are resistant to alisertib (Figure

S7A). Alisertib treatment of the NCI-H82 cells expressing both c-Myc and L-Myc revealed no

changes in sensitivity to the drug nor did changes in expression of the variant state marker.

However, the cells that replaced c-Myc with L-Myc became resistance to aurora kinase

inhibition (Figure S7B). On the other hand, overexpression of c-Myc increased sensitivity at

lower concentrations of the drug (Figure S7C). This suggests either alisertib sensitivity is

attributable to c-Myc driven lineage state of the cells, or difference in molecular interaction of

Aurora kinase A with each Myc protein.

c-Myc causes loss of classic neuroendocrine SCLC features

The dependency of lineage state marker NeuroD1 on c-Myc led us to hypothesize that c-

Myc exerts a role in addition to its oncogenic role to regulate and establish a variant

differentiation state. To this end, we genetically engineered a neuroendocrine-high L-Myc

expressing NCI-H1963 and NCI-H187 with exogenous overexpression of c-Myc (Figures 5A

and 5B). Of note, exogenous expression of c-Myc led to downregulation of L-Myc in NCI-

H1963 and NCI-H187 (Figures 5A, 5B, S8A and S8B).

When c-Myc expression is introduced in NCI-H1963 or NCI-H187, we observed an

initial phase of growth suppression (Figures 5C and 5D). This observation stands in contrast to

the established role of c-Myc to promote cell cycle and cell proliferation (38). The growth

suppression is unlikely to be due to oncogene induced senescence as these cells stained negative

for beta-galactosidase (Figure S8C) and are deficient for Rb1 and p53. We investigated the cell

cycle dynamics in their growth suppressive phase and found that initial c-Myc expression (day 2)

modestly increased the proportion of cells in S and G2/M phase but did not significantly alter the

distribution of cells or induce cell cycle arrest to explain slower cell growth (Figure S8D).

Alternatively, we investigated the proportion of Annexin-V positive cells on day 2 and found c-

Myc overexpression increased the proportion of necrotic and apoptotic cells as compared to

control cells (Figures 5E and S8E) in NCI-H1963.

We hypothesized that cell death was a consequence of incompatibility of the

neuroendocrine differentiation state with c-Myc expression and that the persisting cells

eventually grown out were cells that tolerated the expression of c-Myc, potentially by trans-

differentiating to a state compatible with c-Myc expression (Figure 5C and 5D). Note that we

define trans-differentiation as change in cancer lineage state by the expression of lineage markers

and histological features, not a conversion to a different lineage hierarchy. Therefore, we

investigated the expression of lineage state markers and found that the overexpression of c-Myc

downregulated ASCL1 and upregulated NeuroD1 in NCI-H1963 and NCI-H187 cells (Figure 5A

and 5B), indicating the trans-differentiation to NeuroD1-subtype of SCLC and that c-Myc exerts

a role in dictating a distinct NeuroD1-positive neuroendocrine differentiation state. We observed

no significant morphological changes in these cells *in vitro* (Figure S8F).

To investigate if the trans-differentiation between molecular subtypes was accompanied

by histological switch *in vivo*, we injected NCI-H1963 cells genetically engineered with stable c-

MYC expression. Tumor growth dynamics recapitulated the slower growth of c-Myc

overexpressed NCI-H1963 observed *in vitro* (Figure S9A). This was associated with comparable

levels of proliferation measured by Ki67 and increased levels of apoptosis measured by cleaved

Caspase-3 (Figure S9B). We observed that NCI-H1963 overexpressed with LacZ (control cells)

had oval and elongated nuclei with a high nuclear:cytoplasm ratio, smooth granular chromatin

and no nucleoli consistent with classic SCLC histology (Figure 5F and S9C), similar to the

histology that would be typically diagnosed with SCLC in primary human tumors (Figure 5G).

Histological analysis of xenografts of NCI-H1963 overexpressed with c-Myc showed presence

of nucleoli and polygonal shaped larger cells, reminiscent of variant SCLC histology as defined

by (*9*) (Figure 5F, Figure S9C). The histopathology observed here, according to the current

WHO classification, would likely be recognized as either purely LCNEC or "combined SCLC"

that includes a component of large-cell neuroendocrine carcinomas (LCNEC), potentially

reflective of the discrepancies between clinical practice and experimental findings (Figure 5G)

(*10, 39*). Together, these results suggest that c-Myc expression drives the transition from

ASCL1-positive state characterized by classic SCLC histology to NeuroD1-positive state SCLC

characterized by 'variant' SCLC or LCNEC histology.

To examine the relevance of c-Myc expression in LCNEC, we compared distribution of

its mRNA expression levels in tumors diagnosed as LCNEC (*40*) and those diagnosed as SCLC

(*21*). After batch correction, we found a greater proportion of LCNEC tumors express c-Myc at

a level comparable to c-Myc expressing SCLC (Figure S9D). These data suggest c-Myc

expression is likely as relevant in human LCNEC as in SCLC and are consistent with the

evidence where c-Myc overexpression can induce histological characteristics reminiscent of

LCNEC in our model, while it does not necessarily indicate that LCNEC histology is defined by

the expression of c-Myc.

c-Myc mediates trans-differentiation through REST

We sought to investigate the mechanism through which c-Myc mediates trans-

differentiation to the ASCL1-negative/NeuroD1-positive state. To this end, we profiled the

accessible chromatin profile of trans-differentiated NCI-H1963. Filtering the regions to reflect

regions with Myc (E-box) motif matrices reflected a common pattern (clusters 1 to 4). c-Myc

overexpression resulted in the gain of additional regulatory regions (cluster 5) and a decrease in

accessibility at a fraction of sites in cluster 6 (Figure 6A), revealing an alteration of the Myc (E-

box) cistrome and further suggesting non-redundancy of this family of transcription factors.

Next, we sought to investigate how the re-wiring of these regulatory regions compared to c-Myc

and L-Myc expressing SCLC. PCA of Myc accessibility in these genetically engineered cells and

c-Myc and L-Myc classified cell lines revealed NCI-H1963 expressing c-Myc clustered closer to

c-Myc classified cell lines along Principal Component (PC) #1, mapping NCI-H1963

transitioning from L-Myc cistrome towards a c-Myc cistrome (Figure 6B). These data re-iterate

c-Myc mediated alteration in regulatory regions that dictate cellular identity.

To identify the transcriptional programs associated with the changes in regulatory regions

of the Myc cistrome, we performed RNA-seq on trans-differentiated NCI-H1963. We identified

775 differentially expressed genes (375 upregulated genes downregulated and 400

downregulated genes) (Figure 6C). Gene ontology analysis for upregulated genes revealed an

enrichment for epithelium development in addition to canonical c-Myc functions including

regulation of cell proliferation and regulatory region nucleic acid binding (Figure 6D, left panel)

while gene ontology analysis for downregulated of genes revealed an enrichment for neuronal

associated genes (Figure 6D, right panel). These findings suggest c-Myc expression in ASCL1

expressing SCLC induces a transition to a more epithelial state and are consistent with the loss in

neuroendocrine lineage state marker (Figure 5A), but did not reveal further specific mechanistic

insights.

Previous works have shown the negative regulation of ASCL1 by Notch signaling during

lung development (*41*) and activation of Notch signaling in SCLC suppresses ASCL1 expression

(*21, 42, 43*). Additionally, our SCLC transcriptional network analysis and Myc accessibility data

revealed Notch pathway activation preferentially in c-Myc expressing tumors and cell lines

(Figures 1E and 3C). Although, we did not observe an enrichment for an active Notch signaling

signature amongst the upregulated genes, when we investigated the expression of known Notch

signaling pathway targets in trans-differentiated NCI-H1963 (*24*), we identified Notch-target

RE-1 Silencing transcription factor (REST) was induced upon c-Myc expression (Figure 7A and

7B). Prior works have shown that Rest acts as a neuronal differentiation repressor (*44*) and REST

inhibition removes neural reprogramming block that allows for the conversion to neuronal fate in

human adult lung and dermal fibroblasts (*45*). Therefore, we overexpressed Rest expression in

NCI-H1963 and inquired the status of ASCL1, and found that Rest in this context can also

mediate the suppression of ASCL1 (Figure 7C).

To further investigate if Rest is required for c-Myc mediated suppression of ASCL1 in

SCLC, we deleted REST mediated by CRISPR-Cas9 prior to c-Myc overexpression in NCI-

H1963 cells. Suppression of Rest reversed c-Myc overexpression-induced decrease in the level

of ASCL1 (Figure 7D). Simultaneous pharmacological inhibition of Rest (*46*) and c-Myc over-

expression on NCI-H1963 cells recapitulated these findings (Figure 7E). Further, ChIP-qPCR for

Rest in c-Myc overexpressed NCI-H1963 indicated that Rest associates more significantly with

the *ASCL1* and *MYCL* loci compared to control LacZ overexpressed NCI-H1963, suggesting

Rest directly modulates the expression of these neuroendocrine markers (Figure 7F).

In murine SCLC cells, gain of Rest expression has been associated with active Notch

signaling that downregulate the expression of Ascl1 (*29*). Therefore, we sought to investigate the

c-Myc–Notch–Rest axis in mediating trans-differentiation. Pharmacological inhibition of Notch

using a γ-secretase inhibitor (GSI), DBZ (*47*) and DAPT in combination with c-Myc expression

in NCI-H1963 cells reduced the level of Hes1, confirming a suppression of the pathway, but did

not alter expression of Rest and ASCL1 (Figures 7G and 7H). Therefore, we investigate how c-

Myc activates the expression of Rest, we performed c-Myc ChIP-qPCR on c-Myc overexpressed

NCI-H1963 cells and found c-Myc binding is more enriched at the *REST* locus but not at the

ASCL1 locus compared to NCI-H1963 LacZ control cells, suggesting c-Myc directly, at least

partially, modulates the expression of Rest (Figure 7I). Together, these data suggest a novel

Notch-independent, c-Myc mediated activation of Rest and Rest mediated-suppression of

ASCL1.

Discussion

In this study, we showed a novel functional distinction between c-Myc and L-Myc in SCLC.

Moreover, our data from functional replacement of c-Myc with L-Myc in c-Myc-SCLC suggest

that c-Myc is responsible for the maintenance of NeuroD1 expression and further replacement

with L-Myc leads to transition into a neuronal state more similar to ASCL1-SCLC; however, it

does not shift into full ASCL1-SCLC state but instead to neuronal lineage-negative state. On the

other hand, c-Myc overexpression in ASCL1-SCLC with classic SCLC histology resulted in

trans-differentiation to NeuroD1-SCLC accompanied by LCNEC-like/variant SCLC histology

partially mediated through the direct upregulation of Rest (Figure 7J).

We describe c-Myc is associated not only with canonical roles including transcriptional and

translational regulation, but also with lineage associated pathways such as Notch signaling and

epithelial-mesenchymal transitions. Our findings are supported by a previous report that

described active Notch signaling negatively regulating neuroendocrine lineage by suppressing

the expression of *ASCL1* (*29*) as well as a study that showed mesenchymal-like features in

neuroendocrine-low sub-type of SCLC (*28*). On the other hand, we found L-Myc is associated

with neuronal pathways implicating their relevancy in determining the classic neuroendocrine

state of SCLC. These findings are consistent with previous observation showing a correlation of

expression between L-Myc and neuronal proteins (*28*, *48*). Taken together, contrary to the notion

that Myc family members, c-Myc in particular, exclusively act as oncogenes and general

amplifiers of expression and metabolism, our data suggest that they additionally exert lineage

defining transcriptional programs (*24*). We propose that the Myc family members regulate a

defined set of transcriptional programs that are essential in SCLC lineage subtype determination.

Of note, these biological pathways have been implicated for lineage maintenance and

determination in distinct subtypes of SCLC and correlated to different Myc family members

(*28*); here we show that Myc family members indeed regulate these SCLC lineage associated

pathways.

We found L-Myc failed to induce the expression of a neuroendocrine lineage state marker

ASCL1, suggesting its inability to fully control trans-differentiation from neuroendocrine-

low/variant state to neuroendocrine high/classic state. However, based on previous work

suggesting requirement of L-Myc to drive tumors of neuroendocrine origin in SCLC GEMM

(*16*) and our findings that revealed L-Myc regulating and inducing neuronal development

pathways, L-Myc likely plays roles in lineage state maintenance and/or is more compatible with

the neuroendocrine lineage.

Here, we report the functional importance of c-Myc in regulating cellular states (*18*, *24*). We

also report a previously undescribed function for c-Myc in lineage maintenance in NeuroD1-

positive SCLC. c-Myc expression was incompatible with ASCL1-positive SCLC and induces

trans-differentiation to NeuroD1-positive state revealing the role for c-Myc in regulating lineage

plasticity (*24*). We show that this trans-differentiation between molecular subtypes of SCLC is

accompanied by alterations in the transition of histopathology in SCLC from classic SCLC

features to variant histopathology. These data reflect that the variant histopathology, that would

typically be classified as "combined" SCLC or LCNEC per the current guidelines of WHO, can

indeed be derived from SCLC. This itself has significant clinical implication. This phenotype is

reflective of biology distinct from classic SCLC consistent with prior reports (*14*, *18*, *37*, *49*) and

therefore, warrant distinct therapeutic strategies.

We identified that the trans-differentiation is mediated independent of Notch signaling but

through the direct activation of a Notch signaling target, Rest, a transcriptional repressor. These

findings may be clinically important when evaluating the rationale for targeting SCLC by

activating Notch signaling with drugs including LSD1 and KDM5A (*42*, *43*). Our data suggests

that downstream actors of Notch signaling induces c-Myc mediated trans-differentiation. This

may not be a favorable outcome since the variant subtype has been reported to be more frequent

in tumors after initial response to chemotherapy (*9, 18*). We found that the altered differentiation

state with the gain of L-Myc and loss of c-Myc cells conferred resistance to Aurora Kinase A

inhibition and in contrast the trans-differentiation as a result of c-Myc gain and loss of L-Myc

cells conferred sensitivity to Aurora Kinase A inhibition (*37*). The differential sensitivity

associated with distinct lineage state with Myc family member status as a biomarker could

translate to significant clinical implications in stratification of patients for targeted therapy (*50*).

SCLC is a recalcitrant disease typically characterized by neuroendocrine differentiation,

nonetheless approximately 10-20% of SCLCs may lack expression of diagnostic neuroendocrine

markers. Here we report, the plasticity between these histological subtypes and molecular

subtypes is regulated by c-Myc and L-Myc. The role in lineage determination and maintenance

for this family of transcription factors is striking since the Myc family has historically been

grouped as general oncogenes. Our data suggest that the role of Myc family in SCLC

tumorigenesis could be re-defined. This will enable us to categorize these subtypes to develop

effective therapies to combat this highly lethal disease.

Methods

CCLE RNA-seq analysis

RNA-seq gene expression data and SNP-array copy number data for *MYC*, *MYCL* and

MYCN were downloaded from (CCLE) web site. Log$_2$(RSEM (transcripts per million) +1) values

for mRNA expression and log$_2$(inferred copy number/2) values for copy numbers were used to

depict a heatmap for a 49 SCLC cell lines. *MYC* classified cell lines were further refined with

expression cut-off for *MYC* at log2 RSEM > 8 and expression of *MYCL* at log2 RSEM < 2. For

MYCL classified cell lines expression cut-off was set at *MYCL* log2 RSEM > 8 and expression

of *MYC* log2 RSEM < 2.

Bayesian Network Analysis

A comprehensive regulatory network was built using the software suite, Reconstructing

Integrative Molecular Bayesian Network (RIMBANet) (Zhu et al., 2004) by combining RNAseq

data from two independent SCLC primary cohorts (*21*, *25*) . To identify sub-networks enriched

for L-Myc and c-Myc signatures, the gene signature was overlaid on the network and

neighboring nodes within two layers for each signature were selected. Then closed subnetwork

with more than 25 nodes were collected for L-MYC and c-MYC subnetworks. Then, Key Driver

Analysis (*51*) identified master regulators associated with L-Myc and c-Myc signatures in two

steps. First, for each node in the network, we compared neighboring nodes within two layers for

each signature to obtain a list of potential master regulators whose overlap is statistical

significant (Fisher's exact test (FET) p-value<0.05/(# of nodes)). After sorting candidate genes

by corresponding FET p-values, the gene with the strongest p-value was determined as a key

regulator. Any candidate regulators in its two-layered neighbors were excluded from the

candidate list. The process was iterated throughout the sorted candidate list. Enriched functions

were identified using GO terms in Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB). The significance

of the enrichment was determined based on FET p-value considering multiple testing (FET

$p < 0.05/(\text{\# of dataset tested}))$ in each category.

Cell Lines

All cells were cultured at 37°C in a humidified incubator at 5% CO_2. SCLC cell lines

NCI-H2171, NCI-H82, NCI-H524, NCI-H209, NCI-H1963, PC-9, CORL88, HCC33, NCI-H69,

and NCI-H526 were maintained in RPMI1640 (Gibco), and supplemented with 10% Fetal

Bovine Serum (FBS, Sigma) and 1mM Penicillin Streptomycin (P/S, Gibco). HEK293T cells

were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM), and supplemented with

10% FBS (Sigma) and 1mM P/S. HU-EV cells Cultured cells were regularly tested for

mycoplasma using the mycoAlert Detection Kit (Lonza).

ATAC-seq

ATAC-seq was performed as previously described (*52*). Five thousand cells were

harvested and pre-treated with DNase I (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 37°C for 20 minutes to

eliminate DNA contamination from dead cells. The cells were washed in cold Phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS) to eliminate traces of DNase. Nuclei were isolated with nuclear lysis

buffer (10 mM Tris, 10mM NaCl, 3mM $MgCl_2$ 0.1% IGEPAL-630) and centrifuged at low

speeds. The nuclei were resuspended in transposase reaction mixture (10mM Tris PH 8.0, 5 mM

$MgCl_2$, 10% Dimethlyformamide (DMF), 0.2 mg/ml Tn5 transposase complex). Transposition

was carried out at 37°C for 30 minutes followed by DNA purification with DNA Clean and

Concentrator-25 (Zymo Research) according to manufacturer's recommendation.   Following

purification, library fragments were PCR amplified with Nextera adapter primers. Sequencing

was performed at Tisch Cancer Institute sequencing core on the NextSeq500 (Illumina) for 38

nucleotides each from paired ends according to manufacturer's instructions.

ATAC-seq data analysis

Illumina sequencing adapter was removed using Cutadapt from raw sequence files in

fastq format. The reads were aligned to the hg19 reference genome using Bowtie2 with -k 1 and

default parameters. The aligned reads were used after removing PCR duplicates using Samtools

and filtered off an ATAC blacklist (*52*) for mitochondrial DNA and homologous sequences.

Both fragment ends were shifted +4 nucleotides for positive strand and -5 for negative strand to

account for distance from Tn5 binding and helicase activity to identify cut sites. Extended Tn5

cut sites were used for peak calling with MACS2 with parameters --nomodel --extsize 100 --shift

50 --nolambda --keep-dup all. Fraction of reads in peaks (FRiP) score was calculated for each

sample and was used as a normalization factor for pileup rescaled to a total number of uniquely

alignable sequences by WigMath function of Java-Genomic Toolkit. Peaks were filtered by

MYC motif using findMotifsGenome function in Homer using four motif matrices *MA0058.2*

(MAX), MA0059.1 (MAX::MYC), MA0104.4 (MYCN), and MA0147.3 (MYC). The peaks filtered

with MYC motifs were visualized in heatmaps by *k*-means clustering (*k*=8) using Cistrome ((*10,*

35) (*11*)) or using *k*-means clustering (*k*=6 for genetically engineered NCI-H1963 and *k*=4 for

genetically engineered NCI-H82 cells) using plotHeatmap function of deepTools (*53*) with

wiggle files. Normalized ATAC-seq signals for each sample was visualized on integrative

genome viewer (IGV) genome browser (*54*).

Differentially bound sites comparing three c-Myc classified cell lines vs three L-Myc

classified cell lines were identified using R package DiffBind with cutoffs at fold change ≥ 5 and

FDR ≤ 0.05. Functional analysis of the differentially bound regions was performed using

Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT)(*35*). For NCI-H82, differentially

bound sites were identified using R package DiffBind between 3 NCI-H82 control cells (LacZ,

LacZ/sgNT 1, and LacZ/sgNT2) and 3 c-Myc replaced by L-Myc (L-Myc/sg*MYC*1, L-

Myc/sg*MYC*2 and L-Myc/sg*MYC*3) with cutoffs at fold change > 16 and FDR <0.01. Functional

analysis of the differentially bound regions integrated with differentially expressed genes from

transcriptomic data of the same samples was performed using Cistrome-GO (*55*).

Western Blot and Antibodies

Protein lysates were prepared by washing cells with 1 ml of cold PBS and resuspended in

lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl at pH 8.0, 1% NP-40, 0.5% Na deoxycholate, 0.1%

SDS, protease inhibitors) for 30 min at 4°C. Lysates were centrifuged at 5°C for 15 minutes at

13,000 rpm to remove insoluble debris. Protein concentrations were quantified using Pierce™

BCA (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Proteins were separated by electrophoresis on a SDS-PAGE gel

(BioRad), transferred to a PVDF membrane (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and blocked with 5%

milk in Tris-buffered saline with Tween-20 (TBS-T). The membranes were immunoblotted with

anti-c-Myc (sc-40, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-L-Myc (PCRP-MYCL1-1A3, University of

Iowa), anti-vinculin (Sigma), anti-ASCL1 (#556604, BD Biosciences), anti-NeuroD1(12081-1-

AP, Proteintech), anti-Smad2 (#5339, Cell signaling technology), anti-Rest (07-579, Millipore

sigma), anti-Hes1 (sc-166410, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-Brn2 (12137, Cell signaling

technology), anti-YAP1 (13584-1-AP, Proteintech) or anti-vinculin (Sigma). Immunoblots were

quantified using Image J.

Lentiviral introduction of genes

c-Myc, L-Myc or LacZ open reading frame (ORF) was cloned into pLEX_307 (a gift

from David Root, Addgene #41392) using the Gateway® cloning methods according to

manufacturer's recommendations. (Thermo Fisher Scientific). HEK293T cells were seeded in a

10 cm tissue culture dish and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2. At 80% confluency the cells were

co-transfected with 10 μg of plasmid constructs, 7.5 μg of psPAX2 (a gift from Didier Trono,

Addgene #12260) and 2.5 μg of pMD2.G (a gift from Didier Trono, Addgene #12259) vectors

using TransIT-Lenti (Mirus) following manufacturer's recommendations. At 48h post

transfection, virus-containing supernatants were collected, filtered (0.45 μm) and stored at

−80°C. Cells were infected with lentiviral supernatant supplemented with polybrene at a final

concentration of 8 μg/mL or lentiBlast (OZ BioSciences) at a ratio of 1:1000. Cells were selected

with puromycin (1-2 μg/mL for 4-6 days).

CRISPR-Cas9 genome editing

Cells with stable human codon-optimized S. pyogenes Cas9 expression were generated

by infection with the lentiCas9-Blast plasmid (a gift from Feng Zhang, Addgene # 52962).

sgRNAs targeting *MYC* and *MYCL* were selected from the Brunello library (*56*). Non-target

sgRNA from the Gecko library v2 (*57*) were used as non-target sgRNAs. sgGRNA target

sequences are listed in Supplementary Table S5. sgRNAs were cloned using BbsI site

downstream of the human U6 promoter in a lentiviral vector containing EGFP downstream of the

human PGK promoter (a kind gift of Brown laboratory, ISMMS). Lentivirus was produced as

described above. Cas9 expressing cells were then infected with pLenti-GFP-sgRNA.

Cell proliferation assay

Cells were plated at a density of 5,000 cells/well with five replicates in a 96-well plate;

four identical plates were prepared. Cell viability was assayed at 0, 2, 4 and 6 days after plating

with alamarBlue Cell Viability Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and fluorescence at 585 nm

was measured on a Spectra Max3 plate reader (Molecular Device) according to the

manufacturer's protocol at excitation of 555 nm. Cell viability at 2, 4 and 6 days were corrected

for the ratio to control cells from the day 0 reading to account for plating unevenness.

RNA-seq

Total RNAs from engineered NCI-H82 and NCI-H1963 cell lines were extracted using

RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Poly-adenylated RNA was enriched from 1ug of RNA for each sample

with the NEBNext® PolyA mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (NEB), incubated at 94°C for 15

min and double-strand cDNA was synthesized using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and NEBNext® Ultra™ II Directional RNA Second Strand Synthesis

Module (NEB). Up to 10 ng of cDNA was used for the Illumina sequencing library construction

using NEBNext® Ultra™ DNA Library Prep Kit (NEB). Paired ends sequencing was performed

on NextSeq 500 (Illumina) for 38 nucleotides from each end according to the manufacturer's

instructions.

RNA-seq analyses

Sequencing reads were pseudoaligned to the human reference transcriptome GRCh38.95

from Ensembl and transcript abundance was estimated using kallisto (v0.45.0) (*58*). Transcript

abundance was aggregated to gene level abundance using biomaRt annotation. DEseq2 (*59*) was

used to identify differentially expressed genes between control NCI-H82 cells　(LacZ,

LacZ/sgNT1, LacZ/sgNT2) and L-Myc-overexpressed NCI-H82 cells (L-Myc, L-Myc/sgNT1

and L-Myc/sgNT2). The same strategy was used for L-Myc-overexpressed NCI-H82 cells (L-

Myc, L-Myc/sgNT1 and L-Myc/sgNT2) and c-Myc replaced with L-Myc NCI-H82 cells (L-

Myc/sg*MYC*1, L-Myc/sg*MYC*2 and L-Myc/sg*MYC*3), as well as for LacZ-overexpressed NCI-

H1963 cells and c-Myc overexpressed NCI-H1963 cells.

Differentially expressed genes were determined based on cutoffs of fold change> 2 and

FDR<0.05. To identify potentially enriched functions of selected gene sets of interest, we

compared these gene sets with the genes annotated by Gene Ontology (GO) terms curated in the

Molecular Signature Database (MSigDB). Each of 5,917 GO terms included in "C5" collection

(version 7.0) was compared with query gene sets using Fisher's exact test. The significance of

the overlap was determined based on p-value adjusted for multiple comparisons (FDR<0.05).

Any GO terms consisting of more than 2,000 genes were considered non-specific and removed

from the analysis.

Beta-galactosidase staining

Cells were stained with beta-galactosidase FluoReporter™ Galactosidase Quantification

Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, F2905) according to manufacturer's recommendations in

technical triplicates.

Cell cycle analysis

Cells were harvested at day 2 after selection and fixed with 70 % ethanol overnight at

4°C, were washed with PBS, then, incubated in PBS containing 100 μg/ml RNase and 50 μg/ml

propidium iodide at room-temperature for 1 hour. DNA content was analyzed by FACS Canto II

(BD Bioscience), and quantitative analyses for the proportions of cells in cell cycle were

performed using FlowJo software (BD Bioscience).

Annexin-V staining

Cells were harvested at day 2 after selection and washed with PBS. Cells were stained

with Annexin-V and propidium iodide using Alexa Fluor® 488 annexin V/Dead Cell Apoptosis

Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to manufacturers' recommendations. Fluorescence was

measured by FACS Canto II (BD Bioscience). Quantitative analyses for the cell viability

proportions were performed using FlowJo software (BD Bioscience).

Xenograft model

All animal procedures and studies were approved by the Mount Sinai Institutional

Animal Care Use Committee (IACUC) (protocol number, IACUC-2018-0021). H1963 cells

which overexpressed LacZ or c-Myc (5×10^6 cells) were injected with a 1:1 mixture of 50 μl cell

suspension and 50 μl Matrigel (Corning) subcutaneously into both flank regions of 4- to 6-week-

old male NOD-scid gamma mice (Jackson Laboratory). Tumor volume (length x width^2 /2) was

measured twice a week. When tumor size reached at 1000 mm^3, mice were sacrificed and tumors

were immersed in formalin for histological analysis. Histopathology was reviewed by a board-

certified lung cancer pathologist (M. B. Beasley).

Immunohistochemistry

Xenograft tumor specimen formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue slides (5 μm thick)

were deparaffinized and rehydrated. For antigen-retrieval slides were heated at 95°C in 10 mM

citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for 30 minutes. The sections were incubated with 0.3% H_2O_2 in TBS for

15 minutes to block endogenous peroxidase activity and were incubated with 10% normal horse

serum (Jackson ImmunoResearch) in TBS for 30 minutes to block non-specific staining. The

sections were rinsed with TBS + 0.025% Triton X-100 and then incubated with anti-cMYC

antibody (1:150; Abcam #ab32072), anti-NeuroD1 (1:1000, Abcam #ab60704) or anti-ASCL1

(1:100, BD Biosciences #556604) at 4°C overnight. This was followed by incubation with

biotin-conjugated Horse anti-Mouse secondary antibody (Vector Laboratories) at room

temperature for 1 hour. Then, the sections were incubated with the ABC reagent (Vector

Laboratories, CA) and visualized with ImmPACT-DAB Peroxidase Substrate (Vector

Laboratories). All slides were counterstained with hematoxylin before being mounting.

Aurora Kinase Inhibition Assay

Cells were seeded in a 96-well plate at a density of 5,000 cells/well with five replicates. Cells

were treated with Alisertib at concentrations ranging from 1 nM to 10 μM for 96h. Cell viability

was measured using alamarBlue Cell Viability Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and

fluorescence at 585nm was measured on a Spectra Max3 plate reader (Molecular Devices, CA)

according to the manufacturer's protocol at excitation of 555 nm.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by quantitative PCR

Chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed as previously described (ref). 1×10^7 cells

were crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde in PBS for 10 minutes at room temperature, washed in 5

mg/mL BSA in PBS and then in just cold PBS, resuspended in lysis buffer [50 mmol/L Tris-HCl

pH 8.1, 10 mmol/L EDTA, 1% SDS, $1 \times$ protease inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher Scientific)]

and sonicated with the Covaris M220 sonicator to obtain chromatin fragment lengths of 100-to-

1,000 bp judged by Bioanalyzer DNA High Sensitivity Kit (Agilent). Fragmented chromatin was

diluted in immunoprecipitation (IP) buffer (20 mmol/L Tris-HCl pH 8.1, 150 mmol/L NaCl, 2

mmol/L EDTA, 1% Triton X-100) and incubated overnight at 4°C with protein G magnetic

beads (Dynabeads, Thermo Fisher Scientific) that had been preincubated with anti-MYC (#9402,

Cell signaling technology) or anti-REST (07-579, Millipore Sigma) antibodies.

Immunoprecipitates were washed six times with the wash buffer (50 mmol/L HEPES pH 7.6, 0.5

mol/L LiCl, 1 mmol/L EDTA, 0.7% sodium deoxycholate, 1% IGEPAL CA-630) and twice with

Tris-EDTA buffer. Immunoprecipitated (or no IP input) DNA was treated with RNase A and

Proteinase K on the beads, recovered in 1% SDS and 0.1 mol/L $NaHCO_3$ over a period of 7

hours at 65°C, and purified with DNA clean and concentrator-25 (Zymo Research).

Real-time quantitative PCRs were performed in duplicate (Applied Biosystems) on a

7500 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) with results normalized to input. Primers are

listed in Supplementary Table S6.

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR

For expression analysis, RNA was extracted from cells using the Qiagen RNeasy Mini

Kit and cDNA was prepared with the Qiagen QuantiTect Reverse Transcription Kit. Real-time

quantitative PCRs were performed as described above with results normalized

to *GAPDH* expression. Primers are listed in Supplementary Table S6.

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Author Contribution

Conceptualization & Methodology, A.S.P. and H.W.; Data Collection: A.S.P., S.Y., R.K., T.S.,
A.S., S.K., L.B., M.F., K.E. and H.W.; Resources, M.B.B., C.A.P. and H.W.; Data Analysis,
A.S.P., S.Y., G.N., M.B.B. and H.W.; Writing – Original Draft, A.S.P. and H.W.; Writing –
Review & Editing, A.S.P., S.Y., C.A.P., M.B.B, J.Z. and H.W.; Supervision, C.A.P., J.Z. and
H.W.; Project Administration & Funding Acquisition, H.W.

Data and Materials Availability

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the

Supplementary Materials. Additional data may be available from authors upon request. The

sequencing data have been deposited into GEO with the accession number GSE156334.

Declaration of Interests

J. Zhu is the head of data science and S. Yoo is an employee at Sema4 Genomics, a Mount Sinai

venture, a for-profit organization that promotes genomic sequencing for patient-centered

healthcare.

Figure legends

Figure 1: Bayesian network analysis reveals unique L-Myc and c-Myc networks associated with

distinct biological processes

A. Schematic of workflow to use SCLC Bayesian causal gene regulatory network to identify

networks involving c-Myc and L-Myc.

B. L-Myc sub-network showing directionality and association of genes when L-Myc gene

signature (Figure S1C, Table S1) is projected to SCLC Bayesian network. Circles colored

in pink represent nodes from L-Myc gene signature. Size of pink circles is directly

proportional to the number of outgoing nodes. Nodes indicated in larger text are Key

drivers of the sub-network (Table S2).

C. Gene Ontology analysis for L-Myc neighbor subnetwork. Enriched functions for these

genes are identified based on hypergeometric test against GO terms.

D. Three c-Myc sub-networks showing directionality and association of genes when c-Myc

associated gene signature (Figure S1C, Table S1) is projected to SCLC Bayesian

network. Circles colored in blue represent nodes from c-Myc gene signature. Size of blue

circles is directly proportional to the number of outgoing nodes. Nodes indicated in larger

text are Key drivers of the sub-network (Table S3).

E. Gene Ontology analysis for corresponding c-Myc neighbor subnetwork. Enriched

functions for these genes are identified based on hypergeometric test against GO terms.

Figure 2: c-Myc and L-Myc driven SCLCs exhibit distinct chromatin states to regulate distinct

transcriptional programs

A. Protein expression of c-Myc and L-Myc as well as vinculin as a loading control in a panel

of representative SCLC cell lines (blue: c-MYC-classified lines, pink: L-MYC-

classified lines)

B. Schematic showing the analytic approach to define MYC accessible regions.

C. Principal component analysis of open chromatin regions with E-Box motif in six

SCLC cell lines. Each dot represents a SCLC cell line that is colored based on Myc

status (blue: c-Myc-classified cell lines, pink: L-Myc-classified cell lines).

D. Each heatmap depicting global MYC (E-box) accessibility in individual SCLC cell

lines at 72,833 combined peaks. ATAC-seq signal intensity is shown by color shading.

E. Genome browser view tracks of ATAC-seq signals at the *FOXA2* and *ITGA4* loci (pink:

L-Myc-classified cell lines, blue: c-Myc-classified cell lines).

F. Heatmap showing 2,808 differentially accessible regions (fold change $\geq$ 5 and FDR $\leq$

0.05) between 3 L-Myc cell lines shown in pink and 3 c-Myc cell lines shown in blue.

G. Enriched ontology by GREAT analyses for regions differentially accessible in L-Myc

classified cells.

H. Enriched ontology by GREAT analyses for regions differentially accessible in c-Myc

classified cells.

Figure 3: c-Myc and L-Myc expression is associated with distinct molecular subtype markers

A. Unsupervised clustering of 137 primary tumors and 51 CCLE cell lines using the

expression of ASCL1, NeuroD1, POU2F3 and YAP1 distinguishing four molecular

subtypes (Table S4).

B. Box plot showing mRNA expression of L-Myc across four molecular subtypes for

combined primary tumor and cell line classification described in Figure 3A.

C. Box plot showing mRNA expression of c-Myc across four molecular subtypes for

combined primary tumor and cell line classification described in Figure 3A.

D. Scatter-plot with best-fit line showing negative correlation between c-Myc and ASCL1

expression for combined primary tumor and cell lines. Pearson's correlation coefficient

(r) = -0.53, P <0.01 t-test.

Figure 4: L-Myc induces neuronal state not defined by ASCL1 expression

A. Workflow schematic to genetically engineer replacement of c-Myc with L-Myc.

B. Protein expression of L-Myc, c-Myc, ASCL1, NeuroD1 and YAP1, with vinculin as

loading control in replaced NCI-H82 cells. Quantified in Figure S5A.

C. Cell growth curve for genetically engineered NCI-H82 cells. **, P <0.01 vs. Lac-Z/sgNT

NCI-H82 cells, t-test.

D. Protein expression of c-Myc and NeuroD1 with vinculin as loading control in NCI-H82

cells with c-Myc ablation. Quantified in Figure S5F.

E. Volcano plot showing 1,213 differentially expressed genes (713 upregulated in pink and

500 downregulated in blue). NCI-H82 (LacZ and LacZ/sgNT) vs NCI-H82

(LMYC/sg*MYC*).

F. Ridgeplot showing distribution of fold-change for genes in each enriched gene ontology

term for upregulated genes (Figure 4E).

G. PCA of 14 SCLC cell lines, including 3 ASCL1, 2 NEUROD1 and 9 genetically

engineered NCI-H82 cells, 3 control (LacZ or LacZ/sgNT), 3 L-Myc overexpressed (L-

Myc and L-Myc/sgNT) and 3 c-Myc replaced with L-Myc (L-Myc/sg*MYC*).

H. Each heatmap depicting *k-means* (k =4) clustering of global Myc accessibility in NCI-

H82 LacZ/sgNT (left) and NCI-H82 L-MYC/sgMYC (right) at 170,711 combined

peaks. ATAC-seq signal intensity is shown by color shading.

I. Heatmap showing 2,807 differentially accessible regions (fold change > 16 and FDR

<0.01) between 3 NCI-H82 control cells (LacZ and LacZ/sgNT) and 3 c-Myc replaced by

L-Myc (L-Myc/sg*MYC*)

J. Enriched ontology by Cistrome-GO analyses for regions Myc accessible regions gained

(top) and lost (bottom) after replacement.

Figure 5: c-Myc expression in ASCL1-subtype SCLC induces trans-differentiation to

histologically distinct NeuroD1-positive state

A-B. Protein expression of c-Myc, L-Myc, ASCL1, and NeuroD1, as well as vinculin as

loading control in genetically engineered NCI-H1963 (A) and NCI-H187 (B) cells.

Quantification in Figure S8A (NCI-H1963) and S8B (NCI-H187).

C-D. Cell growth curve for NCI-H1963 (C) and NCI-H187 (D) cells with over-expression of

c-Myc or control Lac-Z. Mean ± SD of five technical replicates. **, P <0.01 vs. Lac-Z

overexpressed control cells, t-test.

E. Bar chart shows proportions of viable, necrotic and apoptotic cells in NCI-H1963 c-Myc

overexpressed and control cells measured by Annexin-V staining. Mean ± SD of three

biological replicates. ** *P <0.01*, t-test. Scatter plots shown in Figure S8E.

F. Hematoxylin-eosin staining and immunohistochemical staining of c-Myc, ASCL1 and

NeuroD1 in LacZ-overexpressed (top panel) or c-Myc-overexpressed (bottom panel)

NCI-H1963 xenograft. H&E original images, x600 and IHC original images, x20.

G. Hematoxylin-eosin staining of typical SCLC and LCNEC primary human tumors.

Original images, x400.

Figure 6: c-Myc rewires Myc-accessible chromatin regulatory elements to regulate distinct

lineage associated pathways

A. Each heatmap depicting *k-means* (k =6) clustering of global Myc (E-box) accessibility

in NCI-H1963 overexpressing LacZ (left) and NCI-H1963 overexpressing cMYC (right)

at 44,722 combined peaks. ATAC-seq signal intensity is shown by color shading.

B. Principal component analysis of open chromatin regions with E-Box motif in six

SCLC cell lines in addition to NCI-H1963-LacZ (control) and NCI-H1963-c-Myc in

triplicate. Each dot represents a SCLC cell line that is colored based on Myc status

(pink: L-MYC, blue: c-MYC, red: NCI-H1963 LacZ, light blue: NCI-H1963 cMYC).

C. Volcano plot showing 775 differentially expressed genes (375 upregulated in light blue

and 400 downregulated in red) between control NCI-H1963 cells with LacZ-

overexpression cells and NCI-H1963 cells with c-Myc-overexpression.

D. Dot plot showing gene ontology analysis for differentially upregulated (right panel) and

downregulated (left panel) genes.

Figure 7: c-Myc induces neuronal repressor REST to mediates lineage conversion

A. Expression of *REST* in NCI-H1963 cells with LacZ over-expression and NCI-H1963 with

c-Myc overexpression (n =3).

B. Protein expression of c-Myc, and Rest, as well as vinculin as loading control in

genetically engineered NCI-H1963 cells.

C. Protein expression of Rest, ASCL1, as well as vinculin as a loading control in genetically

engineered NCI-H1963 cells to overexpress Rest.

D. Protein expression of c-Myc, Rest, and ASCL1 as well as vinculin as a lading control in

genetically engineered NCI-H1963 cells genetically deleted for REST and over-

expressed with either LacZ as control or c-Myc.

E. Protein expression of c-Myc, L-Myc, ASCL1, and Rest, as well as vinculin as loading

control in genetically engineered NCI-H1963 cells treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 10

µM of a Rest inhibitor (X5050) for 48 hours.

F. REST ChIP-qPCR in NCI-H1963 c-Myc overexpressed cells and LacZ overexpressed

cells (negative control) at the *ASCL1* and *MYCL* loci with *7q31* and *HOPX* as negative

control loci. One representative of three biological replicates is shown.

G. Protein expression of c-Myc, L-Myc, ASCL1, and Rest, as well as vinculin as loading

control in genetically engineered NCI-H1963 cells treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 0.5

µM of a Notch inhibitor (DBZ) for 48 hours.

H. Protein expression of c-Myc, L-Myc, ASCL1, and Rest, as well as vinculin as loading

control in genetically engineered NCI-H1963 cells treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 10

µM of a Notch inhibitor (DAPT) for 48 hours.

I. c-Myc ChIP-qPCR in NCI-H1963 c-Myc overexpressed cells and LacZ overexpressed

cells (negative control) at the *ASCL1* and *REST* loci with *7q31* and *HOPX* as negative

control loci. One representative of three biological replicates is shown.

J. Graphical schematic representing role of c-Myc and L-Myc as lineage determining

factors in SCLC.

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Figure 1

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