A Nove	el Model of Estrogen Receptor-Positive Breast Cancer Bone Metastasis with Antiestrogen	1
Respon	nsiveness	2
	l L. Langsten ¹ , Lihong Shi ¹ , Adam S. Wilson ² , Brian Westwood ² , Maria T. Xie ¹ , Victoria E. ¹ , JoLyn Turner ¹ , Ravi Singh ^{1,3} , Katherine L. Cook ^{1,2,3} , Bethany A. Kerr ^{1,3} *	3 4
		5
1	Department of Cancer Biology, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157	6
2	Department of Surgery, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157	7
3	Wake Forest Baptist Comprehensive Cancer Center, Winston-Salem, NC 27157	8
*	Correspondence: Bethany Kerr, Ph.D., Wake Forest School of Medicine, Medical Center Blvd,	9
Winsto	on-Salem, NC, 27157. Telephone: 336-716-0320; Fax: 336-716-0255; Twitter:	10
@Betha	anyKerrLab; e-mail: <u>bkerr@wakehealth.edu</u> ; ORCID: 0000-0002-2995-7549	11
		12
Simple	Summary: Estrogen receptor alpha positive (ER+) breast cancer is the most common subtype	13

of breast cancer. When it metastasizes to bone, it becomes incurable. Little advancement has 14 occurred in the treatment of bone metastasis from ER+ breast cancer, partly due to the lack of 15 animal models. To establish an animal model of ER+ BC, we genetically modified two triple-negative 16 breast cancer cell lines to express $ER\alpha$ and injected the cell lines into murine mammary glands. Mice 17 were treated with standard antiestrogen therapies, the selective estrogen receptor modulator 18 tamoxifen or the selective estrogen receptor degrader ICI 182,780. We found that compared to mice 19 with triple-negative breast cancer, mice with ER+ breast cancer developed bone metastases and 20 were responsive to antiestrogen therapy. This model allows for further exploration of bone 21 metastasis mechanisms and for the development of new therapeutics, translating into improved 22 clinical outcomes for women with bone metastasis from ER+ breast cancer. 23

24

Abstract: Most women diagnosed with breast cancer (BC) have estrogen receptor alpha positive 25 (ER+) disease. ER+ BC preferentially metastasizes to bone; at which time it is considered incurable. 26 Treatments for bone metastasis have not advanced in decades, in part due to a lack of appropriate 27 ER+ BC bone metastasis models. We developed an immunocompetent ER+ BC murine model with 28 spontaneous bone metastasis and antiestrogen responsiveness. To do this, we transduced triple-29 negative (TN) bone-tropic murine BC cell lines 4T1.2 and E0771/Bone to express ERa. These cells 30 were then injected into the mammary fat pads of Balb/c (n=21) or C57Bl/6 (n=27), respectively. 31 Once tumors established, mice were treated with either the selective estrogen receptor modulator 32 (SERM) tamoxifen (TAM), the selective estrogen receptor degrader (SERD) ICI 182,780 (ICI, Faslodex, 33 fulvestrant), or vehicle control for 21 days. Tumor volumes and weights significantly decreased in the 34 ER+ groups treated with TAM and ICI compared with ER+ vehicle-treated groups. Staining for 35

immune profiles and total RNA sequencing demonstrated modified immune cell infiltration between36TN and ER-derived tumors. Approximately 25% of the mice with ER+ 4T1.2 tumors developed37metastases to long bones while none of the mice with TN tumors developed metastases. This38immunocompetent ER+ 4T1.2 BC model may allow for further exploration of ER+ BC bone metastasis39mechanisms and for the development of new therapeutics for women diagnosed with bone40metastasis from ER+ BC.41

42

43

44

45

Keywords: Estrogen receptor alpha, metastasis, bone metastasis, antiestrogen treatment

1. Introduction

Breast cancer (BC) is the most common non-skin related cancer diagnosed in women globally and is 46 the leading cause of female cancer mortality in 110 countries [1]. Cancer associated deaths are 47 overwhelmingly related to metastasis [2] and of the women with metastatic BC, 65-80% will have 48 bone metastases [3]. While early diagnosis of BC prior to bone metastasis is ideal, approximately 49 3.7% of women with BC will have bone metastases at the time of first diagnosis [4]. Once in the 50 bone, metastases are associated with extreme pain, bone fractures, nerve, and spinal compression, 51 and are considered incurable [5]. Better strategies are needed to prevent and treat bone metastases 52 of BC. 53

A significant factor in the development of bone metastasis is positive estrogen receptor (ER+) status 54 in the breast tumor. ER+ BC is the most common subtype of BC representing approximately 70% of 55 all BC cases [6,7]. While ER+ BC bone metastases presents a substantial clinical problem, few 56 advancements have been made for the prevention and treatment of disease in recent decades [8]. 57 This is due, in part, to the fact that there are few animal models of ER+ BC that metastasize to the 58 bone spontaneously after injection into the mammary gland. Currently, most models of ER+ BC 59 metastasis rely on intra-cardiac injection of tumor cells [9–11]. While this does result in tumor 60 growth in many tissues, including bone, it leaves researchers without the ability to study the initial 61 steps of the metastatic cascade where tumor cells in the mammary gland infiltrate surrounding 62 tissue and gain access to the vasculature. Studies of BC metastasis also often rely on exogenous 63 estrogen which modifies the bone microenvironment, meaning that it is not entirely representative 64 of human disease [12]. Models of BC that originate in the mammary gland and metastasize to bone 65 currently utilize triple-negative (TN) BC cell lines, and many use genetically modified or 66 immunocompromised mouse strains, which can be difficult to maintain and may not translate well 67 to human disease [13–16]. A recent study demonstrated bone metastasis after intraductal injection 68 of ER+ ZR751 human xenograft cells [17]; however, the xenograft-based system did not allow for 69 analysis of interaction with the immune system. Until researchers have a model of ER+ BC that 70 spontaneously metastasizes to bone from the mammary gland in an immunocompetent 71

environment, mechanisms driving the initial metastatic cascade and the tendency towards 72 metastasizing to bone cannot be fully understood. 73 Considering the above limitations, we developed a model of ER+ BC that spontaneously metastasizes 74 to the bone from the mammary gland and is responsive to antiestrogen therapy in 75 immunocompetent mice. Furthermore, we characterized the immune profiles, RNA profiles, and 76 metastatic ability of the ER+ tumors. We genetically modified two bone-tropic, TN BC cell lines to 77 express $ER\alpha$ and injected the cells into the mammary glands of mice. Mice were then treated with 78 commonly used antiestrogen therapies, either the selective estrogen receptor modulator (SERM) 79 tamoxifen (TAM) or the selective estrogen receptor degrader (SERD) ICI 182,780 (ICI). Using multiple 80 methods (histology, immunohistochemistry, and RNA sequencing), we found that when compared to 81 mice with TN tumors, ER+ tumors were larger and were responsive to antiestrogen therapy. 82 Furthermore, there were differences in immune cell infiltration within TN and ER+ tumors. Only mice 83 with ER+ 4T1.2 tumors developed bone metastases. This immunocompetent ER+ 4T1.2 model holds 84 the potential to direct advancement in treatment for the underserved population of women with 85 ER+ BC bone metastasis. 86 87 2. Materials and Methods 88 2.1 Cell Line Generation 89 The E0771/Bone and 4T1.2 murine bone-tropic, TNBC lines were provided under material transfer 90 agreements with Drs. Hiraga and Anderson, respectively [14,16]. These two sublines were derived 91 from the parental TNBC 4T1 and E0771 to have increased bone tropism by repeated intracardiac 92 injection and isolation of resulting bone metastatic subclones. Using an ER α -GFP construct 93 developed by Dr. Elaine Alarid, we generated ER+ sublines of both cell lines in collaboration with the 94 Wake Forest Comprehensive Cancer Center Cell Engineering Shared Resource (CESR). To confirm its 95 identity, the ERα-GFP construct was sent to GeneWiz (South Plainfield, NJ) for Sanger sequencing 96 using standard M13-F and M13-R sequencing primers. The ERα-GFP expression cassette was cloned 97 into a lentivirus transfer vector using methods based upon the ViraPower™ Lentiviral Gateway™ 98 Expression system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Briefly, following sequencing, the ERα-99 GFP expression cassette was PCR amplified to introduce the attB and attL-R sites using following 100 primers: 101 Forward: 5'- CACCACGGCCACGGACCATGA - 3' 102 Reverse: 5'- TTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGCCGAG - 3' 103 A Gateway entry clone was generated using the Gateway pENTR/D-TOPO linear vector cloning kit 104 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to insert the ERα-GFP expression cassette into the Gateway donor vector. 105 Restriction analysis at Noti-HF (NEB #R3189L, 20K U/mL, Lot 10030794), Nrul-HF (NEB #R3192S, 20K 106 U/mL, Lot 10030601), and AgeI-HF (NEB #R3552S, 20K U/mL, Lot 10028839) was performed with a 107

CutSmart Buffer at 37C for either 5-15min or overnight to verify the correct orientation of the insert. 108 The ER α -GFP expression cassette was then transferred from the entry clone to a Gateway 109 compatible lentivirus transfer vector (pLenti CMV Blast DEST (706-1), a gift from Eric Campeau & 110 Paul Kaufman (Addgene plasmid #17451; http://n2t.net/addgene:17451; RRID:Addgene 17451, 111 [18]) using LR Clonase II. The transfer vector was then packaged into a lentivirus using the pPACKH1 112 HIV third generation lentiviral expression system kit and PureFection reagent (both from System 113 Biosciences, Palo Alto, CA) into HEK293-T cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA). Lentiviral particles were 114 concentrated using the Clontech Lenti-X Concentrator (Takara Bio USA, Mountain View, CA). The 115 concentrated lentivirus was used to transduce the cell lines, and ERα-GFP expressing cells were 116 obtained after antibiotic selection for two weeks. A lentivirus transfer vector expressing GFP alone 117 (pLenti CMV GFP Puro (658-5), a gift from Eric Campeau & Paul Kaufman (Addgene plasmid #17448; 118 http://n2t.net/addgene:17448 ; RRID:Addgene_17448, [18]) was packaged into lentiviral particles as 119 described above. Both TNBC parental cell lines were transfected with this vector and GFP expressing 120 cells obtained after antibiotic selection. All cells tested negative for mycoplasma and murine viruses 121 prior to injection into animals. 122

2.2 Animal experiments

2.3 Immunohistochemistry

All experiments were performed in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use 125 Committee at the Wake Forest School of Medicine (IACUC A20-10). Seven-week-old, intact female, 126 Balb/c (n=21) and C57BI/6 (n=27) mice from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, MI) were housed with 127 12-hour dark/light cycles and ad libitum access to food and water. Mice were restrained and 1x105 128 TN or ER+ 4T1.2 or E0771/Bone cells suspended in 20 μL of sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 129 were injected into the 4th inguinal mammary fat pad. Tumors were allowed to establish and reach a 130 volume of 100 mm3. At this time, mice with $ER\alpha$ expressing tumors were treated with either 131 tamoxifen (TAM) at 5 mg over 30 days as a time release pellet (ER+ 4T1.2, n=6; ER+ E0771/Bone, 132 n=7), ICI 182,780 (ICI) at 1 mg per week subcutaneously (ER+ 4T1.2, n=6; ER+ E0771/Bone, n=7), or a 133 subcutaneous injection of sterile PBS as a vehicle control (ER+ 4T1.2, n=4; ER+ E0771/Bone, n=6). 134 Tumor volumes were measured every three days. After 21 days of treatment, mice were humanely 135 euthanized and tumors, visceral organs, and long bones were collected. Tumors were weighed and 136 collected fresh-frozen or in 4% paraformaldehyde prior to being embedded in paraffin. After fixation 137 in 4% paraformaldehyde, the hind limb bones were isolated from whole legs and decalcified in 14% 138 neutral buffered EDTA for 2 weeks prior to being embedded in paraffin. 139

140

123

124

141

Immunohistochemistry on formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tumors and hind limbs from mouse142experiments were performed to characterize the tumors and identify metastatic tumor cells.143Paraffin embedded tumors and bones were sectioned at 5 µm thick and placed on charged glass144

slides. For tumors, antigen unmasking was performed by heat-induced epitope retrieval using 0.05% 145 citraconic anhydride solution (pH 7.4) for 45 minutes at 98°C; for bone samples, antigen unmasking 146 was performed by heat-induced epitope retrieval using Tris-EDTA PH 9.0 for 20 minutes at 95°C. 147 Endogenous horseradish peroxidase (HRP) activity was quenched by incubating with BLOXALL 148blocking solution for 10 minutes. Samples were blocked with 1% BSA for 30 minutes at room 149 temperature then incubated with primary antibody overnight at 4°C. Immunohistochemistry of the 150 tissue sections was performed using antibodies against CD3, CD68, CD45R, and neutrophil elastase 151 on the primary tumors and GFP, pan-cytokeratin, Sca-1, and endomucin on the bone (Table 1). After 152 incubation, samples were washed with PBS then incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody 153 (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) followed by Nova Red chromogen (Vector Laboratories, 154Burlingame, CA) for staining development. All samples were counterstained with hematoxylin. Slides 155 were then scanned using a Hamamatsu NanoZoomer by the Virtual Microscopy Core in the Wake 156 Forest School of Medicine. Immunostaining was quantified using the VisioPharm digital pathology 157 analysis software. Briefly, the total area of region of interest (ROI) was measured for each specimen; 158 custom-designed apps were then used to identify and measure regions with positive staining within 159 the ROI, and the ratios of the positive staining area vs the total area were calculated. Three separate, 160 non-consecutive tissue sections of whole tibiae (including trabecular regions in the metaphysis, the 161 epiphysis, and the diaphysis) were analyzed for pan-cytokeratin or GFP staining to quantify numbers 162 of metastases in the tibiae. 163

164

165

Antibody	Concentration	Company	Catalogue No.
СДЗ	1:750	Abcam	Ab16669
GD68	1:2000	Abcam	Ab125212
GD45R (B220)	1:500	Abcam	Ab64100
Neutrophil elastase	1:500	Abcam	Ab68672
GFP	1:1000	Thermo Fisher Scientific	OSE00003G
Pan-cytokeratin	1:1000	Cell Signaling Technology	4545S
.72 Sca-1	1:400	Abcam	Ab109211
173			

174

Éndomucin

2.4 Bone Structure and Osteoclast Analysis

1:200

To visualize changes in the bone structure and osteoclasts, paraffin-embedded bones were 176 sectioned at 5 µm and placed on charged glass slides. Sections were stained for 1 hour at 37oC in 177

Thermo Fisher Scientific

175

14-5851-82

tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP) staining solution (0.3 mg/mL Fast Red Violet LB, 0.05 M 178 sodium acetate, 0.03 M sodium tartrate, 0.05 M acetic acid, 0.1 mg/mL naphthol, 0.1% Triton X-100, 179 pH 5.0) to visualize osteoclasts. Sections were counterstained with Gill Method Hematoxylin Stain 1 180 (ThermoFisher). Slides were scanned at 20x with the Hamamatsu NanoZoomer by the Virtual 181 Microscopy Core in the Wake Forest School of Medicine. Bone histomorphometry, osteoclast 182 numbers, and growth plate organization were analyzed with the BioQuant Osteo software (RRID: 183 SCR_016423) using a ROI approximately 150 µm distal to the metaphysis encompassing the 184 trabecular region of the tibiae. Osteoclasts are detected based on thresholding for the red/purple 185 TRAP staining. 186

2.5 RNA sequencing and Gene Set Enrichment

3. Results

187

188

To extract RNA for sequencing, sections of TN and ER+ 4T1.2 derived tumors were collected on ice 189 and washed in PBS at a pH of 7.4 until all blood and debris was removed. Total RNA was extracted 190 using the QIAGEN RNeasy mini-Kit (Qiagen GMBH, Hilden, Germany) per the manufacturer's 191 protocol. The concentration of total RNA was estimated using a Nanodrop One C (Thermo Fisher 192 Science) and RNA library formation was performed using the Illumina HiSeq 6000 (Illumina), S4 193 flowcell platform with PE150 seq parameter by Novogene. To mine for gene sets that were enriched 194 in the ER+ tumors, datasets provided by Novogene (Ensembl output) were filtered using both 195 membership in SwissProt and Entrez conversion in DAVID [19–21]. RNA log-fold change was only 196 considered in the analysis if the p-value was <0.1 and there was an average count of 64 or more for 197 all subjects in the analysis. GSEA pre-ranked analysis [22,23] was run for KEGG pathways, collapsed 198 to gene symbol for filtered set. If a pathway was identified with an FDR≤ 0.25, then genes in that 199 pathway were considered enriched. Enriched gene sets in the mouse tumors were analyzed in ER+ 200 and ER- tumors from BC patients using the publicly available METABRIC (Molecular Taxonomy of 201 Breast Cancer International Consortium) dataset [24] via cBioPortal (www.cbioportal.org). Briefly, 202 tumors with ER positivity and negativity were queried and compared, each of the genes identified in 203 the mouse gene set were searched and the fold change was calculated using cBioPortal. Genes that 204 were significantly dysregulated from the human gene set identified via cBioPortal were plotted 205 against patient survival for ER+ BC patients using KMplotter (http://kmplot.com) [25,26]. 206

207

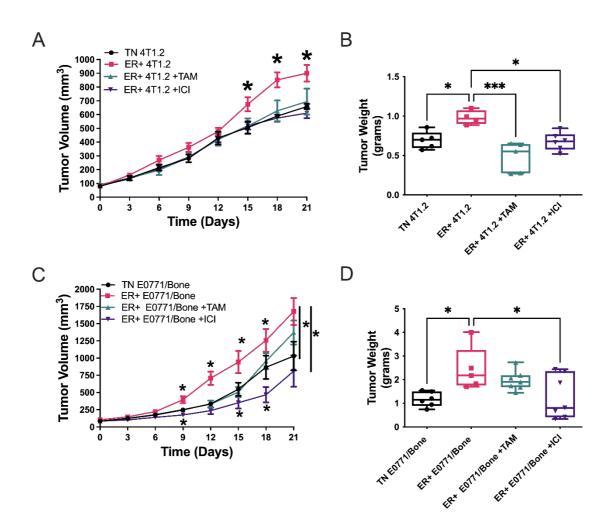
2.6 Statistical Analysis208To determine statistical significance, Student's t test, one-way, or two-way analysis of variance209(ANOVA) with Tukey post-test were used to analyze data with the GraphPad Prism 9 software (RRID:210SCR_002798). Error bars represent the SEM of experiments. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, and *** p<0.005.</td>211

212

213

3.1 ER+ tumors were larger than TN tumors and were responsive to antiestrogen treatments

To examine the effects of ER-reexpression and antiestrogen treatment on tumor growth, bone-	214
tropic, BC 4T1.2 or E0771/Bone cells with and without ER were injected into Balb/c or C57BI/6	215
mammary fat pads, respectively. These two sublines demonstrate increased bone tropism after	216
derivation by repeated intracardiac injection and isolation of bone metastatic clones from the TNBC	217
4T1 or E0771 parental cell lines [14,16]. Tumor volumes were significantly elevated (approximately	218
1.5-fold increase) for ER+ 4T1.2 (900 mm3 average) and ER+ E0771/Bone (1,677 mm3 average)	219
derived tumors when compared with the tumors derived from TN parental cell lines (658 mm3 and	220
1,029 mm3 average, respectively; Two-way ANOVA, p<0.05, Figure 1A, 1C). At study termination,	221
average tumor weight for ER+ E0771/Bone (2.44 g average) was significantly heavier (1.7-fold	222
increase) than TN E0771/Bone (1.17 g average; Figure 1B, One-way ANOVA, p<0.05). Additionally,	223
ER+ 4T1.2 tumors weighed more (1.4-fold increase; 0.98 g average) when compared with TN 4T1.2	224
tumors (0.69 g average; Figure 1D, One-way ANOVA, p<0.05). All mouse groups with ER+ tumors	225
that were treated with either TAM or ICI had significantly lower tumor volumes and weights than	226
ER+ tumors without treatment (Two-way ANOVA, p<0.05, Figure 1A-D), except for ER+ E0771/Bone	227
treated with TAM which tended to have lower tumor volumes and weights, but was not significantly	228
decreased. These data demonstrate that ER+ expression results in increased tumor growth.	229



232

Figure 1. ER+ tumors are significantly larger and responsive to antiestrogen treatment. Parent TN 233 and ER+ 4T1.2 (A and B) or E0771/Bone (C and D) BC cells were injected into the 4th inguinal 234 mammary fat pad in Balb/c or C57Bl/6 mice, respectively. Once tumor volumes reached 100 mm3, 235 mice were treated with vehicle control, 5 mg/ 30-day time-release pellet tamoxifen (TAM), or 1 236 mg/wk ICI 182,780 (ICI). Tumor volume was tracked over time (A and C) and are represented as 237 mean tumor volume ±SEM (n=4-7). Tumor weight was measured upon experimental termination (B 238 and D) and are represented as mean tumor weight ±SEM (n=4-7). * represents p<0.05 and *** 239 represents p<0.005 by two-way (A and C) or one-way ANOVA (B and D). 240

241

3.2 ER+ tumors had a modified inflammatory microenvironment compared with TN242The immune landscape within a breast tumor has implications of the patient's prognosis, most243notably with CD68+ macrophage infiltration being associated with worse prognosis [27]. By244examining ER+ tumor growth in immunocompetent animals, we can better define the immune245landscape in ER+ and TN BC. Immunohistochemistry for immune cells were performed on TN and246ER+ tumors to measure differences in immune cell infiltration between the tumor types (Figure 2A).247In ER+ tumors, while not significantly altered, the percentage of CD3+ T cells were decreased by 0.9-248

fold and 0.7-fold and CD45R+ B cells were increased by 2.3-fold and 2.0-fold for ER+ 4T1.2 and ER+	249
E0771/Bone, respectively when compared with TN derived tumors (Figure 2B, 2C, Student's T-test,	250
p>0.05). The ER+ E0771/Bone tumors had significantly increased percentages of neutrophil elastase	251
positive cells (24.5-fold increase) and CD68+ macrophages (3.5-fold increase) compared with the TN	252
E0771/Bone tumors (Figure 2C, Student's T-test, p<0.05). The ER+ 4T1.2 tumors displayed a similar	253
but non-significant trend of increased neutrophil and macrophage infiltration (Figure 2B). Thus,	254
neutrophil and macrophage recruitment may be increased in ER+ tumors compared with their TN	255
counterparts.	256

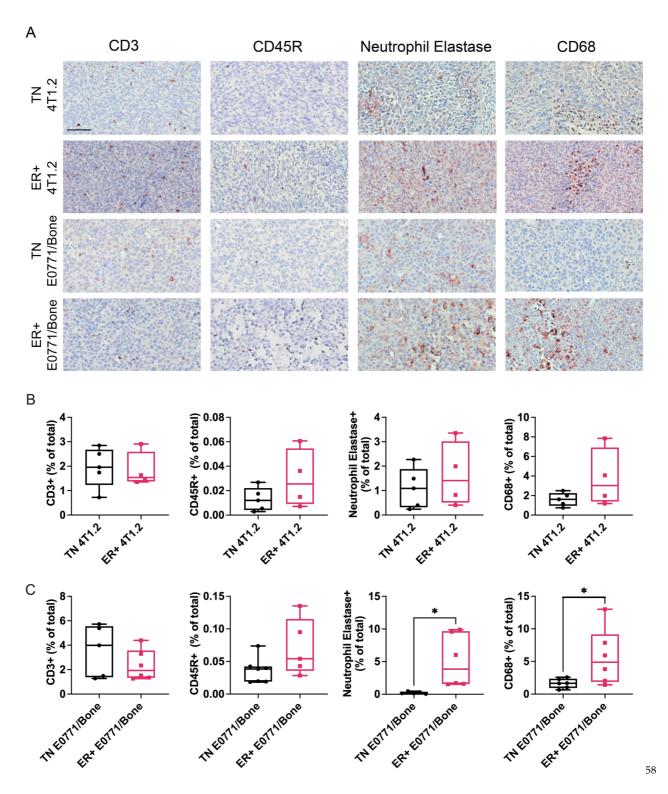


Figure 2. ER+ primary tumors have a modulated immune landscape compared with TN tumors.259Representative images of immunohistochemistry (IHC) on primary TN and ER+ 4T1.2 and260E0771/Bone (A). Scale bar represents 70 µm. Quantification of tumors for CD3+ T cells, CD45R+ B261cells, CD68+ macrophages, and neutrophil elastase (neutrophils). Using the pathology analysis262software, Visiopharm, the percentage of immunoreactive cells out of the total tumor area was263determined with a custom-made app. Percentages of positive cells are represented as single values264

with the mean ± SEM for the 4T1.2 TN and ER+ (B) and E0771/Bone TN and ER+ (C) tumors (n=4-7). * 265 represents p<0.05 by Student's T-test. 266

267

268

269

270

271

3.3 ER+ 4T1.2 tumors had significantly downregulated T cell signaling receptor pathways when compared with TN tumors

To further characterize the differences between ER+ and TN BC tumors, we performed RNA 272 sequencing on TN and ER+ 4T1.2 derived tumors. RNA expression profiles have been utilized to 273 determine prognostic factors and potential therapeutic targets for women [28–30]. We identified a 274 21 gene set signature negatively enriched in ER+ tumors (n=4) compared with TN tumors (n=5, 275 Figure 3A) associated with decreased T cell receptor signaling pathways, indicating a possible 276 mechanism for the slightly decreased in CD3+ T cell infiltration demonstrated in Figure 2. Of those 277 21 genes, 17 were significant downregulated in the ER+ tumors (Table 2, p<0.05). Using the 278 METABRIC human breast cancer data set [24], the gene set negatively enriched in ER+ mouse tumors 279 was found to largely be significantly downregulated in human ER+ tumors compared with ER 280 negative tumors. Three genes were significantly downregulated in humans only, FYN, CDK4, and 281 PIK3R5 and three genes significantly downregulated in mice only, RASGRP1, NFATC2, and PI3KR1 282 (Figure 3B; Table 2). Only one of the genes, AKT1, was not significantly decreased in either mice or 283 human ER+ tumors when compared with ER negative, although in both species it tended to be 284 decreased. Of the 14 genes significantly downregulated in both humans with ER+ BC and our mouse 285 model of ER+ BC, expression levels in four were significantly associated with survival outcome 286 (Figure 3C; n=877, p<0.05). Of the four genes, lower expression of ZAP70 (-0.4- and -1.1-fold change 287 in humans and mice, respectively), GRAP2 (-0.1- and -1.4-fold change in humans and mice, 288 respectively), and CD3G (-0.4- and -1.6-fold change in humans and mice, respectively) were 289 associated with worse survival outcomes while lower expression of CARD11 was associated with 290 increased survival outcomes in women with ER+ BC (Figure 3C; n=877, p<0.05). Genes that were 291 significantly downregulated in humans and mice were plotted against survival for ER+ tumors (non-292 significant Kaplan-Meier curves shown in Figure 4). Our data demonstrate a potential immune gene 293 signature associated with worse prognosis in ER+ BC. 294

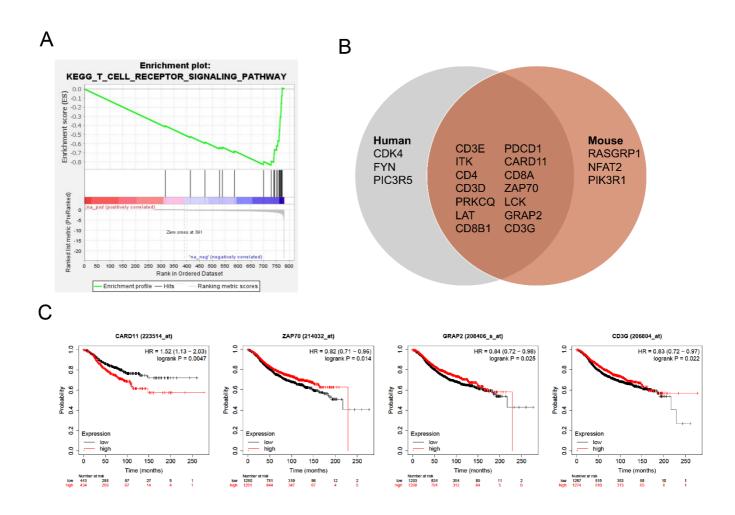


Figure 3. Gene sets associated with T-cell signaling pathways were down regulated in ER+ primary 297 tumors in mice and humans when compared with TN tumors and some of the shared genes were 298 associated with worse outcomes in patients with ER+ tumors. RNA sequencing data from TN 4T1.2 299 (n=5) and ER+ 4T1.2 (n=4) tumors was performed by Novogene and gene set enrichment was 300 performed using SwissProt keywords in DAVID followed by KEGG pathway analysis. A 21 gene-set 301 involved in T-cell receptor signaling pathways identified with 17 of the genes being significantly 302 negatively enriched in ER+ 4T1.2 tumors compared with TN 4T1.2 tumors (A; p<0.05). To determine 303 clinical significance of the gene set, the negatively enriched gene set was used in cBioPortal to 304 compare human RNA expression data from the METABRIC study. Log fold change for the genes 305 identified in our study were analyzed in ER+ and ER negative tumors, fifteen of the 21 genes were 306 significantly decreased in both ER+ humans and mice with 4T1.2 ER+ tumors (B). Three genes were 307 significantly down regulated in humans only, FYN, CDK4, and PIK3R5 and three genes significantly 308 down regulated in mice only, RASGRP1, NFATC2, and PI3KR1 (B). Of the 14 genes significantly 309 downregulated in both humans with ER+ BC and our mouse model of ER+ BC, expression levels in 310 four were significantly associated with survival outcome (C; n=877, p<0.05). Of the four genes, 311 CARD11, ZAP70, GRAP2, and CD3G, in all but CARD11 lower expression was associated with worse 312 survival. 313

314

315

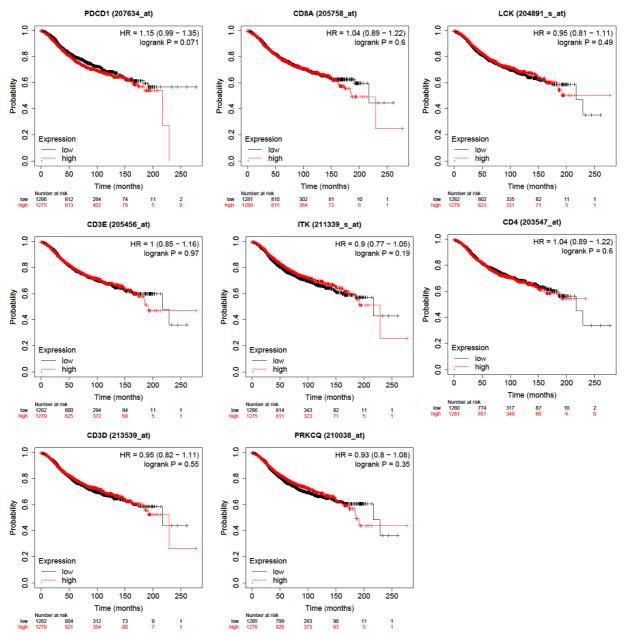
316

Table 2. Log fold changes between RNA expression of T cell receptor signaling pathways in TN and317ER+ tumors. RNA sequencing on 4T1.2 (n=5) and 4T1.2 ER+ (n=4) tumors from mice was analyzed for318enriched gene sets. A set of 21 genes associated with down regulated T cell receptor pathways was319downregulated in ER+ tumors compared with TN tumors, with 17 of the 21 being significantly320downregulated. RNA expression of these genes was compared between ER+ and ER negative tumors321in the METABRIC data set. Gene names, log fold change, and significance level are shown.322

22	2
32	э

Gene Symbol	Mouse	Mouse	Human	Human
	Log Fold change	p-value	Log Fold Change	p-value
CDK4	0.24	0.06991	-0.23	2.92E-19
AKT1	-0.24	0.09	-0.02	0.562
FYN	-0.29	0.062017	-0.45	1.69E-33
NFATC2	-0.36	0.033046	0.01	0.386
PIK3R5	-0.38	0.063169	-0.04	4.88E-04
PIK3R1	-0.45	0.046698	-0.3	2.34E-16
PDCD1	-0.76	0.037408	-0.27	8.74E-28
CARD11	-1.00	0.020303	-0.26	6.15E-35
CD8A	-1.10	0.000681	-0.63	3.17E-24
ZAP70	-1.10	0.01126	-0.37	6.00E-24
RASGRP1	-1.13	0.000667	-0.03	0.262
LCK	-1.20	0.000444	-0.2	5.26E-26
GRAP2	-1.40	0.000292	-0.06	3.96E-08
CD3G	-1.48	0.000545	-0.41	6.17E-28
CD8B(1)	-1.50	7.13E-05	-0.11	4.37E-15
CD3E	-1.62	1.54E-05	-0.34	2.72E-23
ІТК	-1.66	0.000276	-0.54	7.12E-32
CD4	-1.80	6.47E-05	-0.33	2.87E-29
CD3D	-1.85	0.000215	-0.89	3.46E-36

PRKCQ	-1.94	0.000201	-0.28	5.57E-25
LAT	-2.04	6.74E-05	-0.25	6.68E-19



25

324

Figure 4. Kaplan-Meier curves of the not significantly downregulated genes in ER+ human tumors326from the publicly available METABRIC data source. The expression level of the above genes was not327significantly associated with differences in ER+ BC patient survival (n=877, p>0.05).328

329

3.4 ER α positive E0771/Bone cells demonstrate potential metastasis to liver

BC demonstrates metastasis to visceral organs such as the lung and liver. The TN 4T1.2 cell line was 331 previously demonstrated to spread to both bone and lungs [16]. Additionally, the parental TN E0771 332 line demonstrated metastasis to lungs, while the TN E0771/Bone line spread to bone [14]. To test for 333 potential metastatic spread, visceral organ weights were measured at study termination. Lung 334 weights between all treatment groups were not significantly different for TN (0.27 g, 0.16 g) or ER+ 335 (0.26 g, 0.18g) 4T1.2 or E0771/Bone cells, respectively (One-Way ANOVA, p>0.05; Figure 5A,C). Liver 336 weights were 1.2-fold heavier in the ER+ E0771/Bone mice when compared with parental TN line 337 (One-Way ANOVA, p<0.01; Figure 5B). Mice with ER+ E0771/Bone tumors treated with ICI had 338 significantly decreased liver weights when compared with the non-treated ER+ cohort (One-way 339 ANOVA, p<0.05; Figure 5B). Thus, ER expression in E0771/Bone may promote liver metastasis. 340

341

342

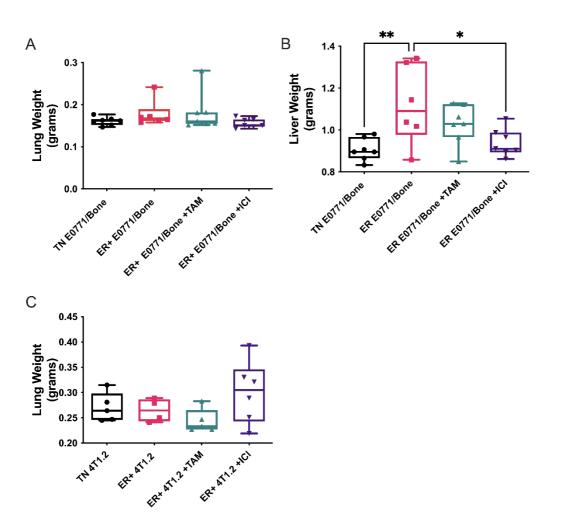


Figure 5. Lung and liver weights representing soft tissue metastases. Lungs and livers were isolated343from mice after tumor implantation with E0771/Bone (A and B) or 4T1.2 (C) TNBC or ER+ breast344cancer cells and treatment with vehicle controls, 5 mg/ 30 day time release pellet tamoxifen (TAM),345or 1 mg/wk ICI 182,780 (ICI). Tissues were weighed and represented as mean weight ± SEM (n=4-7).346* represents p<0.05 and ** represents p<0.01 by one-way ANOVA.</td>347

	348
	349
3.5 Only ER α positive 4T1.2 tumors spontaneously metastasized to bone	350
To further examine metastatic spread, hindlimbs were isolated from mice injected with ER+ BC after	351
treatment with tamoxifen or ICI and compared to hindlimbs from TN BC injected mice. Tibiae of mice	352
were examined with immunohistochemistry for anti-GFP or anti-pan-cytokeratin, which would	353
identify the GFP labeled TN and ER+ tumor cells injected into the mice and epithelial cells. Only mice	354
injected with ER+ 4T1.2 mice had visible metastases within the bone (Figure 6A). Interestingly,	355
metastases were observed in all ER+ 4T1.2 groups, regardless of treatment (Figure 6B), likely due to	356
the establishment of tumors prior to the initiation of treatment.	357
Disseminated BC cells enter the bone microenvironment through the vasculature and colonize the	358
bone at the hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) niche [31]. To assess whether changes in colonization	359
niche were responsible for alterations in bone metastatic spread, we stained bones for Sca-1+ HSC	360
cells and endomucin+ blood vessels (Figure 7A). We found that mice with ER+ E0771/Bone derived	361
tumors had significantly increased percentages of Sca-1 positive HSC (64.4-fold increase) and	362
endomucin positive vasculature (2.8-fold increase) within the bone marrow when compared with TN	363
E0771/Bone tumors (Figure 7C and E). There were no significant differences between Sca-1 or	364
endomucin positivity between mice with TN or ER+ 4T1.2 derived tumors (Figure 7B and D). These	365
data indicate that ER+ 4T1.2 spread to bone was not due to altered colonization niches. These data	366
further suggest that ER+ E0771/Bone tumor growth may induce premetastatic bone	367
microenvironment alterations.	368
	369

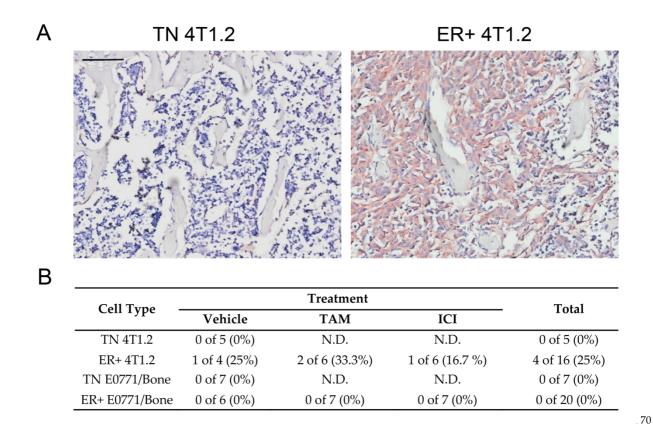


Figure 6. Only ER+ 4T1.2 tumors metastasized to the bone. Immunohistochemistry on tibiae from all 371 mice (n=48) for pan-cytokeratin were performed and analyzed using VisioPharm pathology analysis 372 software. Scale bar represents 150 µm. Only the ER+ 4T1.2 tumors metastasized to the bone, 373 regardless of antiestrogenic treatment. (A) Examples of TN 4T1.2 and ER+ 4T1.2 pan-cytokeratin IHC 374 at the metaphysis are shown. Scale bar represents 150 µm. (B) Numbers of mice with metastatic 375 lesions are quantified with percentages of positive mice shown in the table for each cell type and 376 treatment group. N.D.; not determined 377

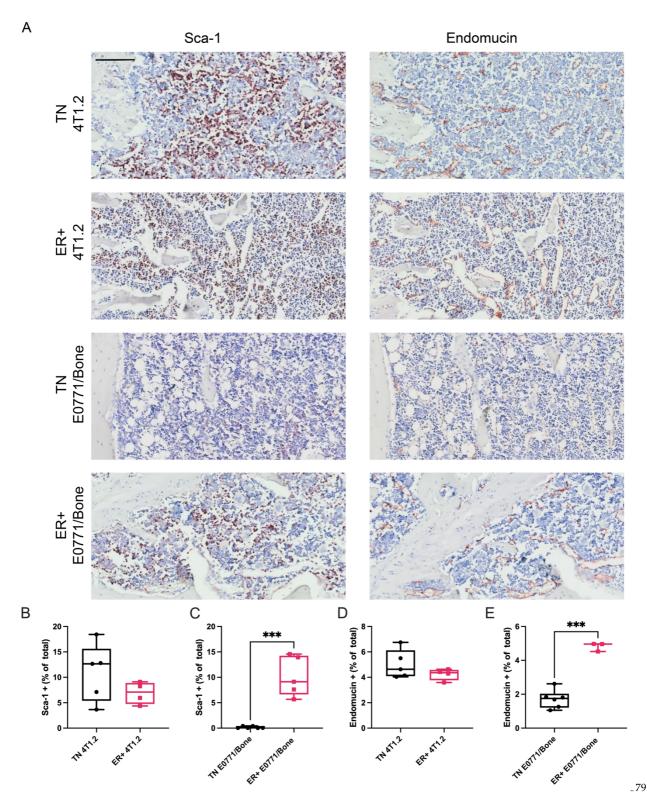


Figure 7. Within the tibiae of mice with ER+ E0771/Bone tumors, there were increased380hematopoietic stem cells and vasculature compared with mice with TN E0771/Bone derived tumors.381IHC for hemopoietic stem cell marker Sca-1 (A) was performed on tibiae from mice with TN and ER+3824T1.2 and E0771/Bone tumors and was analyzed using a custom-made app on the pathology analysis383software, Visiopharm (n=4-7, B and C). Scale bar represents 150 µm. There was a significant increase384

in percentage of Sca-1 positive area within the medullary cavity of the mice with ER+ E0771/Bone 385 tumors when compared with mice with TN E0771/Bone (mean ± SEM, n=5-7, Student's T-test, *** 386 represents p<0.005; C). IHC for the blood vessel marker endomucin (A) was performed on tibiae 387 from mice with TN and ER+ 4T1.2 and E0771/Bone tumors and was analyzed using a custom-made 388 app on the pathology analysis software, Visiopharm (n=4-7, D and E). There was a significant 389 increase in percentage of endomucin positive area within the medullary cavity of the mice with ER+ 390 E0771/Bone tumors when compared with mice with TN E0771/Bone (mean ± SEM, n=3-7, Student's 391 T-test, *** represents p<0.005; E). 392

393

394

3.6 Tamoxifen induced alterations in the premetastatic bone niche

To further characterize premetastatic alterations in the bone microenvironment, we examined the 395 bone structure and osteoclast differentiation. Histomorphometry on tibiae just distal to the growth 396 plate was used to determine the bone volume to tissue volume fraction. No significant changes in 397 the bone fraction was measured between mice with ER+ and TN BC tumors (Figure 8A and C). Mice 398 injected with ER+ 4T1.2 cells that were treated with TAM had significantly increased bone volume: 399 tissue volume percentage when compared with ER+ 4T1.2 cell injected mice that were treated with 400 ICI (Two-way ANOVA, p<0.01, Figure 8A). Similarly, mice injected with ER+ E0771/Bone cells that 401 were treated with TAM tended to have increased bone volume: tissue volume percentage when 402 compared with all other groups (Figure 8C). Thus, TAM treatment alone may alter the bone structure 403 in ways that could alter metastatic spread. 404

BC bone metastases are often osteolytic and activation of osteoclasts is associated with reactivation 405 of dormant BC cells in the bone [31]. TRAP+ osteoclasts were quantified in mice implanted with ER+ 406 and TN BC. No significant changes in osteoclast number were seen between ER+ and TN BC-injected 407 mice (Figure 8B and D). ER+ E0771/Bone tumors treated with TAM had significant increased 408 percentage of osteoclasts at the bone surface over total bone surface when compared with both ER+ 409 E0771/Bone non-treated mice and with the parental E0771/Bone mice (Two-way ANOVA, p<0.05, 410 Figure 8D). There were no significant differences in percentage of osteoclast surface to bone surface 411 in any of the mice with 4T1.2 tumors (Figure 8B). Thus, neither osteoclast activation nor alterations 412 in bone structure were responsible for the increased ER+ 4T1.2 bone metastasis. 413

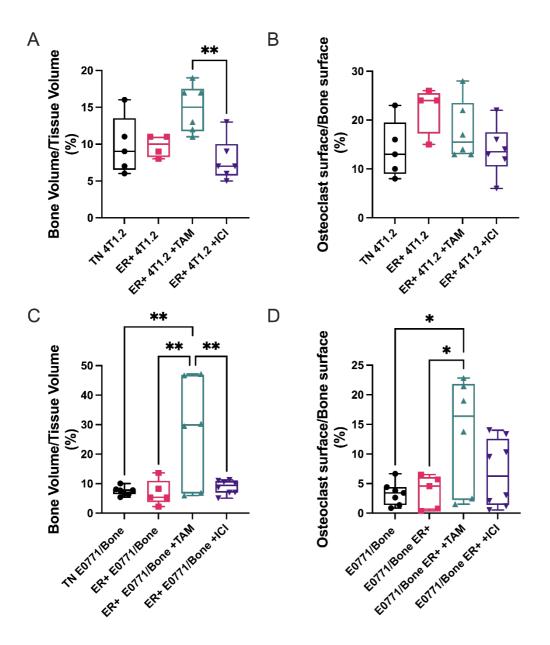


Figure 8. Tamoxifen induced alterations in the bone niche. Tibiae were isolated from mice after 415 tumor implantation with 4T1.2 (A and B) or E0771/Bone (C and D) TNBC or ER+ breast cancer cells 416 and treatment with vehicle controls, 5 mg/ 30-day time-release pellet tamoxifen (TAM), or 1 mg/wk 417 ICI 182,780 (ICI). Bones were stained for TRAP+ osteoclasts and bone histomorphometry performed 418 to calculate bone volume: tissue volume fraction (A and C) or Osteoclast Surface per Bone Surface (B 419 and D). A significant decrease in bone volume: tissue volume was appreciated in the mice with 4T1.2 420 ER+ treated with ICI when compared with TAM (A). In both cell types, TAM treatment tended to 421 have increased bone volume: tissue volume compared with all other groups (A and C). Mice with 422 E0771/Bone ER+ tumors treated with TAM had significantly increased percentages of osteoclasts at 423 the bone surface compared with ER+ E0717/bone without treatment and the E0771/Bone tumors 424 (D). Both are represented as mean percentage ± SEM (n=4-8). * represents p<0.05 and ** represents 425 p<0.01 by one-way ANOVA. 426

4. Discussion

Bone metastasis from ER+ BC is a significant clinical problem with few advancements in treatment or 429 prevention in recent decades. Two TN, bone-tropic cell lines, 4T1.2 and E0771/Bone which are 430 derived from mouse mammary tumors and devoid of hormone receptors or human epidermal 431 growth factor receptor 2, were transduced to express ERa. Through this we were able to produce 432 ER+ cell lines that, when injected into the mammary glands of mice, established tumors that were 433 responsive to two current antiestrogen therapies. The ER+ 4T1.2 cell line, unlike its TN parental line, 434 metastasized to bone. ER+ tumors in the mammary glands not responded to antiestrogen treatment, 435 but they had different immune profiles within the mammary gland with macrophages, B cells, and 436 neutrophils being significantly increased or tending to be increased in the ER+ compared to TN 437 tumors. The 4T1.2 ER+ model, which exemplifies important features of ER+ BC bone metastasis in 438 women, will allow for further investigation into the initial steps, and potential treatment, of 439 metastasis and preferential metastasis to bone of ER+ BC. 440

In our study, ER+ tumors were larger than TN tumors for both cell lines, indicating that ER within the 441 cells was acting in a pro-tumorigenic fashion. When ER+ were treated with antiestrogen compounds, 442 ER+ tumor weights and volumes decreased to approximately the size of the TN tumor, 443 demonstrating that the transduced ER was functional and responsive to therapies targeted towards 444 it. While this demonstrates that the tumor expresses a functional ER that these antiestrogen 445 compounds can target, there were no differences in estrogen-related gene sets between the TN and 446 ER+ tumors derived from the 4T1.2 cell line. Although unclear, this may be due to the fact that RNA 447 sequencing of the tumors included not only tumor cells, but stroma, fibroblasts, inflammatory cells, 448 and many other cell types that express ER [32]. It is possible that the addition of ER within the ER+ 449 tumors did not overshadow the large amount of ER already present within the tumor 450 microenvironment. 451

As mentioned above, RNA sequencing data from the TN and ER+ 4T1.2 mammary tumors did not 452 show differences in estrogen receptor associated pathways. There were, however, significant 453 downregulation of the RNA expression of genes associated with T cell receptor pathways in the ER+ 454 4T1.2 derived tumors. Also of note, CD3+ T cells tended to be decreased in ER+ tumors compared 455 with TN tumors in our study. Decreased tumor infiltrating lymphocyte numbers has been observed 456 in patients with ER+ disease when compared with TN tumors [33–36]. Additionally, of note is the set 457 of 15 genes significantly downregulated in ER+ tumors in both humans and mice compared with ER-458 and TN tumors, respectively. Of those 15 shared genes, expression levels of 4 were associated with 459 significant changes in patient survival, CARD11, ZAP70, GRAP2, and CD3G. Decreased expression of 460 ZAP70, GRAP2, and CD3G is associated with worse survival in humans. This finding increases 461 translatability and accuracy of disease modeling in mice and may provide for a novel model to guide 462 novel, targeted therapies. 463

427

Aside from the influence of T cell infiltration into the mammary tumor, the influence of other 464 immune cells within the tumor microenvironment has substantial impact on the prognosis of 465 women. For example, tumor associated macrophages are associated with worse prognosis [27]. In 466 our study, the mice with ER+ E0771/Bone derived tumors had significantly higher CD68+ 467 macrophages and neutrophils within the tumor compared with the TN E0771/Bone derived tumors. 468 Neutrophil infiltration is associated with increased metastatic spread, as neutrophil depletion 469 prevents metastatic outgrowth [37] and colonization of metastatic niches [38]. Treatment of ER+ BC 470 with SERMs, such as TAM, reduced T cell cytotoxicity while increasing neutrophil inflammation. 471 SERDs, including ICI, increased infiltration of T cells [39]. Thus, antiestrogen treatment may further 472 impact the immune landscape in ways that can be better studied with immunocompetent models. 473 While assessing long-term disease progression was outside of the scope of our study, it is plausible 474 that the differing immune landscapes seen in ER+ tumors when compared with TN may have 475 implications for tumor progression. 476

A main purpose of our study was to develop an immunocompetent ER+ bone metastasis model. 477 While we accomplished this, only mice with tumors from ER+ 4T1.2 cells, but not the ER+ 478 E0771/Bone cells, developed metastases to the bone. Tumors in the ER+ 4T1.2 injected mice, but 479 not TN, were present by 4 to 5 weeks post injection of transduced cells into the mammary glands. It 480 is possible that with resection of the primary tumor and additional time, additional bone metastases 481 would develop in more animals and possibly in the ER+ E0771/Bone model. Our short, 4-5 week time 482 course for bone metastasis development is similar to the time course described in the seminal intra-483 mammary model of 4T1.2 cells, where cancer cells with stem-like properties were identified as early 484 as 22 days following intra-mammary injection [40]. One major difference between our study and the 485 previous report is that they used TN 4T1.2 cell lines to establish their models. Within a similar 486 timeline, the previous study observed metastases from the TN 4T1.2-derived tumors, where we did 487 not. This discrepancy may be due to differences in detection methods, with the previous study using 488 a bone crush and clonogenic growth method and ours using histology, or which bones were isolated, 489 the previous study focusing largely on the vertebral column and us focusing on the tibiae. Another 490 model of intra-mammary injection of tumor cells with bone metastases found that bone metastasis 491 did not occur within the first 30 days following injection of TN 4T1 tumor cells [41]. The xenograft 492 model of ER+ ZR751 intraductal injection resulted in bone metastasis around day 88 [17], which is a 493 much longer time course. While this may be due to differences in detection methods, as these 494 studies used a luciferase reporting system to identify metastases, which may not be able to detect 495 metastases if the cell numbers are small, it may represent differences in bone tropism and 496 upregulation of metastatic mechanisms in the ER+ 4T1.2 cell line. 497

Interestingly, in our study all groups with tumors from ER+ 4T1.2 cells, regardless of antiestrogen498therapy, had some evidence of bone metastasis. It is possible that these metastases occurred before499the antiestrogen therapy began, since tumors were allowed to establish to 100 mm3 before500treatment began. One of the antiestrogen compounds used in our study, TAM, is a SERM and is one501

of the most frequently used treatments for ER+ BC [42]. As a SERM, TAM works in an antiestrogen 502 manner in the tumor to inhibit tumor growth, while acting in a pro-estrogen manner in the bone to 503 maintain bone volume in post-menopausal women [42,43]. The result reported here are consistent 504 with previous studies; mice treated with TAM had increased bone volume percentages when 505 compared with mice treated with a vehicle control. It is important to note that mice with TN tumors 506 were not treated with antiestrogen compounds in this study, so the influence of TAM on the bone 507 microenvironment, although likely similar to the response in the mice with ER+ tumors, could not be 508 assessed. 509

We did identify other changes in the bone microenvironment between mice with TN and ER+ tumors 510 without evidence of bone metastasis, thus representing a premetastatic niche. The percentages of 511 Sca-1 positive and endomucin vasculature, markers for hematopoietic stem/tumorigenic cells and 512 blood vessels, respectively, within the bones of mice with ER+ E0771/Bone derived tumors were 513 significantly increased when compared with TN derived tumors. Previous studies across multiple 514 cancer types have demonstrated that tumors can modulate the premetastatic bone 515 microenvironment to become a more hospitable environment by increasing hematopoietic stem 516 cells and vasculature [44–46]. Thus, the numbers of potential colonization niches were increased in 517 mice with ER+ E0771/Bone tumors. While the specific mechanisms driving the premetastatic 518 increase in stem cell and endothelial cells is unclear in our study, it is apparent that the expression of 519 ER within the E0771/Bone, but not the 4T1.2, mammary tumors were associated with downstream 520 modification of the bone microenvironment. 521

While the 4T1.2-based model may be useful in the future to study ER+ BC bone metastasis, several 522 shortcomings of the study must be acknowledged. Relatively few mice were used in each cohort and 523 relatively few mice with ER+ BC developed bone metastasis. The study was designed and powered to 524 measure changes in the primary tumor as the rate of metastasis was initially unknown. Since 525 monitoring for bone metastasis was done by histological and immunohistochemical evaluation of 526 the tibia, it is possible that some bone metastases were missed. Future studies will include the 527 introduction of luciferase into the cells. Initial characterization was performed without luciferase as 528 its introduction into 4T1 cells was shown to reduce metastatic spread due to interaction with the 529 immune system [47]. Furthermore, RNA sequencing on the metastasis was not performed which 530 could give important information into the characteristics of the metastatic population of cells versus 531 the primary tumor. Lastly, mice with TN tumors were not treated with antiestrogen compounds. 532 While there we would not expect tumor volumes and weights in the TN group to change since there 533 is not a functioning ER, these treatments will likely alter the bone microenvironment and could 534 affect metastasis and immune cell infiltration. 535

536

In summary and conclusion, we generated an immunocompetent model of ER+ BC that 537 spontaneously metastasizes to bone with the ER+ 4T1.2 cells. This model allows for further 538

5. Conclusions

exploration of bone metastasis mechanisms and for the development of new therapeutics in the presence of an intact immune system, which may translate into improved clinical outcomes for women with bone metastasis from ER+ BC.	539 540 541
AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS	542 543
Conceptualization, RS, KLC, and BAK; methodology, KLL, LS, ASW, KLC, and BAK; formal analysis, KLL, BW, LS; investigation, MTX, JT, VES; writing—original draft preparation, KLL and LS; writing—review and editing, KLL, LS, ASW, BW, MTX, VES, JT, RS, KLC, and BAK; visualization, KLL, LS, BW; supervision, RS, KLC and BAK; funding acquisition, KLC and BAK. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.	544 545 546 547 548 549
FUNDING	550
Generation of the ER-α cell lines was funded by an Ignition Fund Award from the Wake Forest CTSI Grant (NIH/NCATS UL1 TR001420) to BAK and KLC. RNA sequencing and animal experiments were funded by a grant from the Susan G. Komen Foundation (CCR18547795 to KLC) and Breakthrough Award from the Department of Defense Breast Cancer Research Program (W81XWH-20-1-0014 to KLC). Core services including the Cell Engineering Shared Resource were funded in part by the Wake Forest Baptist Comprehensive Cancer Center Shared Resources Grant (NIH/NCI P30 CA012197). KLL was supported by a NIH Training Grant (T32 OD010957).	551 552 553 554 555 556 557 558
DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT	559
RNA sequencing data will be made publicly available at GEO; a reference will be provided when in review.	560 561
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	562 563
We would like to thank Dr. Elaine Alarid for the generous donation of the ERα-GFP construct. The authors would also like to thank Amanda Salis at the Salis Institute for her time and effort editing the manuscript.	564 565 566
CONFLICTS OF INTEREST	567 568

The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the 569 collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to 570 publish the results. 571 572 References 573 Sung, H.; Ferlay, J.; Siegel, R.L.; Laversanne, M.; Soerjomataram, I.; Jemal, A.; Bray, F. Global 1. 574 Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 575 185 Countries. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians 2021, 71, 209–249, doi:10.3322/caac.21660. 576 2. Chaffer, C.L.; Weinberg, R.A. A Perspective on Cancer Cell Metastasis. Science 2011, 331, 577 1559-1564. 578 3. Weilbaecher, K.N.; Guise, T.A.; McCauley, L.K. Cancer to Bone: A Fatal Attraction. Nature 579 reviews. Cancer 2011, 11, 411–25, doi:10.1038/nrc3055. 580 4. Huang, J.-F.; Shen, J.; Li, X.; Rengan, R.; Silvestris, N.; Wang, M.; Derosa, L.; Zheng, X.; Belli, 581 A.; Zhang, X.-L.; et al. Incidence of Patients with Bone Metastases at Diagnosis of Solid Tumors in 582 Adults: A Large Population-Based Study. Annals of Translational Medicine 2020, 8, 482–482, 583 doi:10.21037/atm.2020.03.55. 584 5. Roodman, G.D. Mechanisms of Bone Metastasis. The New England journal of medicine 2004, 585 350, 1655-64, doi:10.1056/NEJMra030831. 586 6. Cancer Genome Atlas Network, T. Comprehensive Molecular Portraits of Human Breast 587 Tumours. 2012, doi:10.1038/nature11412. 588 7. Arciero, C.A.; Guo, Y.; Jiang, R.; Behera, M.; O'Regan, R.; Peng, L.; Li, X. ER+/HER2+ Breast 589 Cancer Has Different Metastatic Patterns and Better Survival Than ER-/HER2+ Breast Cancer. Clinical 590 breast cancer 2019, 19, 236–245, doi:10.1016/j.clbc.2019.02.001. 591 8. Beuzeboc, P.; Scholl, S. Prevention of Bone Metastases in Breast Cancer Patients. 592 Therapeutic Perspectives. Journal of Clinical Medicine 2014, 3, 521–536, doi:10.3390/jcm3020521. 593 9. Yi, B.; Williams, P.J.; Niewolna, M.; Wang, Y.; Yoneda, T. Tumor-Derived Platelet-Derived 594 Growth Factor-BB Plays a Critical Role in Osteosclerotic Bone Metastasis in an Animal Model of 595 Human Breast Cancer. Cancer research 2002, 62, 917–23, doi:10.1210/edrv-16-5-559. 596 10. Canon, J.; Bryant, R.; Roudier, M.; Branstetter, D.G.; Dougall, W.C. RANKL Inhibition 597 Combined with Tamoxifen Treatment Increases Anti-Tumor Efficacy and Prevents Tumor-Induced 598 Bone Destruction in an Estrogen Receptor-Positive Breast Cancer Bone Metastasis Model. Breast 599 cancer research and treatment 2012, 135, 771-80, doi:10.1007/s10549-012-2222-2. 600

11.Holen, I.; Lefley, D. v; Francis, S.E.; Rennicks, S.; Bradbury, S.; Coleman, R.E.; Ottewell, P. IL-1601Drives Breast Cancer Growth and Bone Metastasis in Vivo. Oncotarget 2016, 7, 75571–75584,602doi:10.18632/oncotarget.12289.603

12.Holen, I.; Walker, M.; Nutter, F.; Fowles, A.; Evans, C.A.; Eaton, C.L.; Ottewell, P.D. Oestrogen604Receptor Positive Breast Cancer Metastasis to Bone: Inhibition by Targeting the Bone605Microenvironment in Vivo. Clinical & experimental metastasis 2016, 33, 211–24,606doi:10.1007/s10585-015-9770-x.607

13.Yoneda, T.; Williams, P.J.; Hiraga, T.; Niewolna, M.; Nishimura, R. A Bone-Seeking Clone608Exhibits Different Biological Properties from the MDA-MB-231 Parental Human Breast Cancer Cells609and a Brain-Seeking Clone In Vivo and In Vitro. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research 2001, 16,6101486–1495, doi:10.1359/jbmr.2001.16.8.1486.611

14.Hiraga, T.; Ninomiya, T. Establishment and Characterization of a C57BL/6 Mouse Model of612Bone Metastasis of Breast Cancer. Journal of bone and mineral metabolism 2019, 37, 235–242,613doi:10.1007/s00774-018-0927-y.614

15.Buijs, J.T.; Matula, K.M.; Cheung, H.; Kruithof-de Julio, M.; van der Mark, M.H.; Snoeks, T.J.;615Cohen, R.; Corver, W.E.; Mohammad, K.S.; Jonkers, J.; et al. Spontaneous Bone Metastases in a616Preclinical Orthotopic Model of Invasive Lobular Carcinoma; the Effect of Pharmacological Targeting617TGFβ Receptor I Kinase. The Journal of pathology 2015, 235, 745–59, doi:10.1002/path.4488.618

16.Lelekakis, M.; Moseley, J.M.; Martin, T.J.; Hards, D.; Williams, E.; Ho, P.; Lowen, D.; Javni, J.;619Miller, F.R.; Slavin, J.; et al. A Novel Orthotopic Model of Breast Cancer Metastasis to Bone. Clinical &620experimental metastasis 1999, 17, 163–70, doi:10.1023/a:1006689719505.621

17.Sflomos, G.; Dormoy, V.; Metsalu, T.; Jeitziner, R.; Battista, L.; Scabia, V.; Raffoul, W.;622Delaloye, J.-F.; Treboux, A.; Fiche, M.; et al. A Preclinical Model for ERα-Positive Breast Cancer Points623to the Epithelial Microenvironment as Determinant of Luminal Phenotype and Hormone Response.624Cancer Cell 2016, 29, 407–422, doi:10.1016/J.CCELL.2016.02.002.625

18.Campeau, E.; Ruhl, V.E.; Rodier, F.; Smith, C.L.; Rahmberg, B.L.; Fuss, J.O.; Campisi, J.;626Yaswen, P.; Cooper, P.K.; Kaufman, P.D. A Versatile Viral System for Expression and Depletion of627Proteins in Mammalian Cells. PloS one 2009, 4, e6529, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0006529.628

19.Huang, D.W.; Sherman, B.T.; Lempicki, R.A. Systematic and Integrative Analysis of Large629Gene Lists Using DAVID Bioinformatics Resources. Nature protocols 2009, 4, 44–57,630doi:10.1038/nprot.2008.211.631

20.Huang, D.W.; Sherman, B.T.; Lempicki, R.A. Bioinformatics Enrichment Tools: Paths toward632the Comprehensive Functional Analysis of Large Gene Lists. Nucleic acids research 2009, 37, 1–13,633doi:10.1093/nar/gkn923.634

21. UniProt Consortium UniProt: The Universal Protein Knowledgebase in 2021. Nucleic acids 635 research 2021, 49, D480–D489, doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa1100. 636 22. Subramanian, A.; Tamayo, P.; Mootha, V.K.; Mukherjee, S.; Ebert, B.L.; Gillette, M.A.; 637 Paulovich, A.; Pomeroy, S.L.; Golub, T.R.; Lander, E.S.; et al. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis: A 638 Knowledge-Based Approach for Interpreting Genome-Wide Expression Profiles. Proceedings of the 639 National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2005, 102, 15545–50, 640 doi:10.1073/pnas.0506580102. 641 23. Mootha, V.K.; Lindgren, C.M.; Eriksson, K.-F.; Subramanian, A.; Sihag, S.; Lehar, J.; Puigserver, 642 P.; Carlsson, E.; Ridderstråle, M.; Laurila, E.; et al. PGC-1alpha-Responsive Genes Involved in 643 Oxidative Phosphorylation Are Coordinately Downregulated in Human Diabetes. Nature genetics 644 2003, 34, 267-73, doi:10.1038/ng1180. 645 24. Mukherjee, A.; Russell, R.; Chin, S.F.; Liu, B.; Rueda, O.M.; Ali, H.R.; Turashvili, G.; Mahler-646 Araujo, B.; Ellis, I.O.; Aparicio, S.; et al. Associations between Genomic Stratification of Breast Cancer 647 and Centrally Reviewed Tumour Pathology in the METABRIC Cohort. npj Breast Cancer 2018, 4, 5, 648 doi:10.1038/s41523-018-0056-8. 649 25. Györffy, B.; Lanczky, A.; Eklund, A.C.; Denkert, C.; Budczies, J.; Li, Q.; Szallasi, Z. An Online 650 Survival Analysis Tool to Rapidly Assess the Effect of 22,277 Genes on Breast Cancer Prognosis Using 651 Microarray Data of 1,809 Patients. Breast Cancer Research and Treatment 2010, 123, 725–731, 652 doi:10.1007/s10549-009-0674-9. 653 26. Györffy, B.; Lanczky, A.; Eklund, A.C.; Denkert, C.; Budczies, J.; Li, Q.; Szallasi, Z. An Online 654 Survival Analysis Tool to Rapidly Assess the Effect of 22,277 Genes on Breast Cancer Prognosis Using 655 Microarray Data of 1,809 Patients. Breast cancer research and treatment 2010, 123, 725–31, 656 doi:10.1007/s10549-009-0674-9. 657 27. Mwafy, S.E.; El-Guindy, D.M. Pathologic Assessment of Tumor-Associated Macrophages and 658 Their Histologic Localization in Invasive Breast Carcinoma. Journal of the Egyptian National Cancer 659 Institute 2020, 32, 6, doi:10.1186/s43046-020-0018-8. 660 28. Paterni, I.; Granchi, C.; Katzenellenbogen, J.A.; Minutolo, F. Estrogen Receptors Alpha (ERα) 661 and Beta (ER^β): Subtype-Selective Ligands and Clinical Potential. Steroids 2014, 90, 13–29, 662 doi:10.1016/j.steroids.2014.06.012. 663 29. Horvath, A.; Pakala, S.B.; Mudvari, P.; Reddy, S.D.N.; Ohshiro, K.; Casimiro, S.; Pires, R.; 664 Fuqua, S.A.W.; Toi, M.; Costa, L.; et al. Novel Insights into Breast Cancer Genetic Variance through 665 RNA Sequencing. Scientific reports 2013, 3, 2256, doi:10.1038/srep02256. 666 30. Pennock, N.D.; Jindal, S.; Horton, W.; Sun, D.; Narasimhan, J.; Carbone, L.; Fei, S.S.; Searles, 667 R.; Harrington, C.A.; Burchard, J.; et al. RNA-Seq from Archival FFPE Breast Cancer Samples: 668

Molecular Pathway Fidelity and Novel Discovery. BMC medical genomics 2019, 12, 195,	669
doi:10.1186/s12920-019-0643-z.	670
31. Croucher, P.I.; McDonald, M.M.; Martin, T.J. Bone Metastasis: The Importance of the Neighbourhood. Nature reviews. Cancer 2016, 16, 373–86, doi:10.1038/nrc.2016.44.	671 672
	072
32. Kovats, S. Estrogen Receptors Regulate Innate Immune Cells and Signaling Pathways. Cellular	673
immunology 2015, 294, 63–9, doi:10.1016/j.cellimm.2015.01.018.	674
33. Terranova-Barberio, M.; Pawlowska, N.; Dhawan, M.; Moasser, M.; Chien, A.J.; Melisko,	675
M.E.; Rugo, H.; Rahimi, R.; Deal, T.; Daud, A.; et al. Exhausted T Cell Signature Predicts	676
Immunotherapy Response in ER-Positive Breast Cancer. Nature communications 2020, 11, 3584,	677
doi:10.1038/s41467-020-17414-y.	678
34. Ali, H.R.; Glont, SE.; Blows, F.M.; Provenzano, E.; Dawson, SJ.; Liu, B.; Hiller, L.; Dunn, J.;	679
Poole, C.J.; Bowden, S.; et al. PD-L1 Protein Expression in Breast Cancer Is Rare, Enriched in Basal-like	680
Tumours and Associated with Infiltrating Lymphocytes. Annals of oncology : official journal of the	681
European Society for Medical Oncology 2015, 26, 1488–93, doi:10.1093/annonc/mdv192.	682
35. Wimberly, H.; Brown, J.R.; Schalper, K.; Haack, H.; Silver, M.R.; Nixon, C.; Bossuyt, V.; Pusztai,	683
L.; Lannin, D.R.; Rimm, D.L. PD-L1 Expression Correlates with Tumor-Infiltrating Lymphocytes and	684
Response to Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy in Breast Cancer. Cancer immunology research 2015, 3,	685
326–32, doi:10.1158/2326-6066.CIR-14-0133.	686
36. Terranova-Barberio, M.; Thomas, S.; Ali, N.; Pawlowska, N.; Park, J.; Krings, G.; Rosenblum,	687
M.D.; Budillon, A.; Munster, P.N. HDAC Inhibition Potentiates Immunotherapy in Triple Negative	688
Breast Cancer. Oncotarget 2017, 8, 114156–114172, doi:10.18632/oncotarget.23169.	689
37. Janiszewska, M.; Tabassum, D.P.; Castaño, Z.; Cristea, S.; Yamamoto, K.N.; Kingston, N.L.;	690
Murphy, K.C.; Shu, S.; Harper, N.W.; del Alcazar, C.G.; et al. Subclonal Cooperation Drives Metastasis	691
by Modulating Local and Systemic Immune Microenvironments. Nature Cell Biology 2019, 21, 879–	692
888, doi:10.1038/s41556-019-0346-x.	693
38. Wculek, S.K.; Malanchi, I. Neutrophils Support Lung Colonization of Metastasis-Initiating	694
Breast Cancer Cells. Nature 2015, 528, 413–417, doi:10.1038/nature16140.	695
39. Huang, H.; Zhou, J.; Chen, H.; Li, J.; Zhang, C.; Jiang, X.; Ni, C. The Immunomodulatory Effects	696
of Endocrine Therapy in Breast Cancer. Journal of Experimental and Clinical Cancer Research 2021,	697
40, 1–16.	698
	(00
40. John, T.; al, et; Lelekakis, M.; Moseley, J.M.; Martin, T.J.; Hards, D.; Williams, E.; Ho, P.; Lowen, D.; Javni, J.; et al. A Novel Orthotopic Model of Breast Cancer Metastasis to Bone. Clinical &	699 700
experimental metastasis 1999, 17, 163–70, doi:10.1023/A:1006689719505.	700 701

41. Paschall, A. v.; Liu, K. An Orthotopic Mouse Model of Spontaneous Breast Cancer Metastasis. Journal of visualized experiments : JoVE 2016, 2016, 54040, doi:10.3791/54040.	702
	703
42. Yang, G.; Nowsheen, S.; Aziz, K.; Georgakilas, A.G. Toxicity and Adverse Effects of Tamoxifen	704
and Other Anti-Estrogen Drugs. Pharmacology & therapeutics 2013, 139, 392–404,	705
doi:10.1016/j.pharmthera.2013.05.005.	706
43. Love, R.R.; Mazess, R.B.; Barden, H.S.; Epstein, S.; Newcomb, P.A.; Jordan, V.C.; Carbone,	707
P.P.; DeMets, D.L. Effects of Tamoxifen on Bone Mineral Density in Postmenopausal Women with	708
Breast Cancer. The New England journal of medicine 1992, 326, 852–6,	709
doi:10.1056/NEJM199203263261302.	710
44. Feng, W.; Madajka, M.; Kerr, B.A.; Mahabeleshwar, G.H.; Whiteheart, S.W.; Byzova, T. v. A	711
Novel Role for Platelet Secretion in Angiogenesis: Mediating Bone Marrow-Derived Cell Mobilization	712
and Homing. Blood 2011, 117, 3893–902, doi:10.1182/blood-2010-08-304808.	713
45. Kerr, B.A.; Harris, K.S.; Shi, L.; Willey, J.S.; Soto-Pantoja, D.R.; Byzova, T. v. Platelet TSP-1	714
Controls Prostate Cancer-Induced Osteoclast Differentiation and Bone Marrow-Derived Cell	715
Mobilization through TGFβ-1. American journal of clinical and experimental urology 2021, 9, 18–31,	716
doi:10.1101/2020.02.11.943860.	717
46. Kerr, B.A.; McCabe, N.P.; Feng, W.; Byzova, T. v Platelets Govern Pre-Metastatic Tumor	718
Communication to Bone. Oncogene 2013, 32, 4319–4324, doi:10.1038/onc.2012.447.	719
47. Baklaushev, V.P.; Kilpeläinen, A.; Petkov, S.; Abakumov, M.A.; Grinenko, N.F.; Yusubalieva,	720
G.M.; Latanova, A.A.; Gubskiy, I.L.; Zabozlaev, F.G.; Starodubova, E.S.; et al. Luciferase Expression	721
Allows Bioluminescence Imaging but Imposes Limitations on the Orthotopic Mouse (4T1) Model of	722
Breast Cancer. Scientific Reports 2017, 7, 1–17, doi:10.1038/s41598-017-07851-z.	723
	724