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36 Abstract

37 Cancer evolution determines molecular and morphological intra-tumor heterogeneity and 38 challenges the design of effective treatments. In lung adenocarcinoma, disease progression and 39 prognosis are associated with the appearance of morphologically diverse tumor regions, termed histologic patterns. However, the link between molecular and histological features remains elusive. 40 41 Here, we generated multi-omics and spatially resolved molecular profiles of histologic patterns 42 from primary lung adenocarcinoma, which we integrated with molecular data from >2,000 patients. 43 The transition from indolent to aggressive patterns was not driven by genetic alterations but by epigenetic and transcriptional reprogramming reshaping cancer cell identity. A signature 44 45 quantifying this transition was an independent predictor of patient prognosis in multiple human cohorts. Within individual tumors, highly multiplexed protein spatial profiling revealed co-existence 46 of immune desert, inflamed, and excluded regions, which matched histologic pattern composition. 47 48 Our results provide a detailed molecular map of lung adenocarcinoma intra-tumor spatial 49 heterogeneity, tracing non-genetic routes of cancer evolution.

50

51 Statement of significance

52 Lung adenocarcinomas are classified based on histologic pattern prevalence. However, individual 53 tumors exhibit multiple patterns with unknown molecular features. We characterized non-genetic 54 mechanisms underlying intra-tumor patterns and molecular markers predicting patient prognosis. 55 Intra-tumor patterns determined diverse immune microenvironments warranting their study in the 56 context of current immunotherapies.

58 Introduction

59 Cancer cells evolve by acquiring novel alterations and adapting to changing conditions. Genetic, 60 epigenetic, and transcriptional changes determine extensive heterogeneity among patients and 61 within individual tumors, influencing disease prognosis and therapeutic options. Lung 62 adenocarcinoma (LUAD) is the most common subtype of lung cancer and it encompasses molecularly and phenotypically diverse diseases (1,2), either associated or unrelated to tobacco 63 exposure (3,4). LUAD genetic diversity has been documented both across patients (1,5), where it 64 65 can determine treatment choices (6–10), and within individual tumors (11,12), where it sustains disease evolution and treatment resistance (13,14). LUAD inter- and intra-patient molecular 66 67 diversity is however not exclusively genetic. Transcriptional and epigenetic heterogeneity has been reported both among and within patients (15–19). Moreover, molecular diversity can translate in 68 diverse tumor microenvironments, for example in association with variable tumor mutational 69 70 burden (20–23) or presence of specific oncogenic alterations (24).

71 In the clinic, histopathological analyses have revealed heterogeneous tumor tissue morphologies 72 referred to as histologic patterns. The most frequent patterns are classified as lepidic, papillary, 73 acinar, and solid (Fig. 1a) and 80% of LUAD tumors concurrently exhibit at least 2 of these patterns. 74 According to the latest WHO Classification (2), histopathological LUAD classification is based on 75 pattern prevalence, which is a major prognostic indicator (25,26). Indeed, tumors with a prevalent 76 lepidic pattern are typically considered less aggressive and associated with the early phases of the 77 disease, whereas solid-prevalent tumors are indicative of poor prognosis. These prognostic associations define a potential progression of patterns from lepidic to papillary, acinar, and at last 78 79 solid (Fig. 1a). Whether this progression can also be observed at the molecular level is however unknown. Indeed, reconciling molecular and histological heterogeneity is hampered by the 80

81 difficulty of assaying these features in the same tumor material. Recent digital pathology and 82 spatial genomics technologies coupled with advanced computational approaches provided new 83 strategies to address this challenge. For example, the combination of multi-region molecular 84 profiles and histological data was recently used to draw a link between LUAD mutational 85 heterogeneity and microenvironment composition, with relevant implications for the adoption of 86 current immunotherapies in this disease (21,22). However, in spite of their prognostic relevance, comprehensive molecular profiles of morphologically diverse regions in the same patient are 87 88 missing. Indeed, the molecular features of LUAD histologic patterns and the molding of their tumor 89 microenvironment are largely unknown.

90 Here, we performed histopathology-guided multi-region sampling from primary human LUAD to 91 dissect tumor regions corresponding to unique histologic patterns. Multi-omics and spatially 92 resolved molecular profiles of these regions allowed us to define tumor intrinsic and extrinsic 93 processes that determined LUAD pattern progression. We validated and evaluated the prognostic 94 significance of our results in more than 2,000 LUAD samples from independent patient cohorts. Importantly, none of these processes could be traced back to specific genetic variants, but rather to 95 96 epigenetic and transcriptional reprogramming. Overall, we identified oncogenic processes and 97 spatial features that support non-genetic evolution as a driver of LUAD heterogeneity and 98 progression.

- 99
- 100 Results

101 Molecular inter-patient heterogeneity of histologic patterns

102 We first examined molecular features of 206 LUAD samples from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) 103 cohort (5), which had been annotated based on their most prevalent pattern: lepidic (n=8), 104 papillary (n=47), acinar (n=86), and solid (n=65) (Supplementary Table 1). Samples with the same 105 most prevalent pattern had a similar representation of tumor stages (Supplementary Fig. S1a) but solid-prevalent tumors exhibited significantly higher tumor mutation burden (TMB - Fig. 1b), 106 107 consistent with recent observations in an independent cohort (27), and number of copy number 108 alterations at coding genes (Supplementary Fig. S1b). A notable exception to this trend was a 109 lepidic-annotated tumor sample (TCGA-44-7670). However, after reviewing the virtual slides 110 provided for this dataset, we found highly different histologic pattern in the tumor region submitted for molecular profiling (01A-TS1) and the one submitted for pathology review (01Z-DX), 111 112 suggesting that intra-tumor heterogeneity could explain this inconsistency (Fig. 1c). Predicted neo-113 antigens increased proportionally with the TMB (Supplementary Fig. S1c), potentially predicting 114 diverse immunogenicity among the histologic patterns. No recurrent genetic lesion (mutation, copy 115 number alteration, or gene fusion) was found enriched in a specific pattern, except for a few 116 PIK3CA mutations mostly occurring in lepidic samples (3 out 8 patients, adj. p-value = 0.0004) and a 117 trend for a higher fraction of TP53 mutations in solid samples (adj. p-value = 0.096) (Supplementary 118 Fig. S1d and Supplementary Table 2). The association between solid-prevalent tumors and high 119 TMB and TP53 mutations was confirmed in an independent dataset of LUAD patients of East Asian 120 ancestry (28) (EAS - Supplementary Fig. S1e,f) and in a recently analyzed clinical cohort (27). 121 Conversely, no association was found in these cohorts for PIK3CA mutations. Additional analyses to 122 test candidate weak drivers (29) or alterations converging on the same pathway (30) did not return 123 significant hits that could be confirmed across datasets (Supplementary Table 3). Overall, our results suggest limited associations between histologic patterns and LUAD genetic features. 124

125 In contrast, TCGA samples with different prevalent patterns exhibited highly diverse transcriptional 126 and epigenetic profiles (Supplementary Table 3), with at least two-fold more differentially 127 expressed genes or methylated probes than expected by chance (Fig. 1d,e). Interestingly, the most 128 differentially expressed genes (n = 1,337, adj. p-value < 0.001) and methylated DNA loci (n = 1,753, 129 adj. p-value < 0.001) among the 4 histologic subtypes did not highlight features unique of each 130 group but rather progressive changes from lepidic- to solid-prevalent samples. To quantify this 131 trend, we computed gene expression and DNA methylation fold-changes between each pair of 132 histologic subtypes, always comparing a more aggressive to a less aggressive subtype 133 (Supplementary Fig. S1g). In this way, progressive changes from lepidic to papillary, acinar and 134 solid cases would result in all fold-changes having the same sign: all positive for increasing 135 expression/methylation or all negative for decreasing expression/methylation with pattern 136 progression (e.g., see the top differentially expressed genes RAP1GAP and ANLN, Fig 1f). Indeed, 137 concordant positive or negative gene expression (Fig 1g - top) or DNA methylation (Fig. 1g -138 bottom) fold-changes were observed in the majority of the cases, suggesting that histologic 139 patterns do not represent four independent molecular phenotypes, but rather a transition from 140 lepidic to solid, driven by epigenetic and transcriptional reprogramming.

141 Differentially expressed genes and methylated gene promoters were enriched for similar functional 142 categories (Supplementary Table 4). Indeed, genes over-expressed in lepidic compared to solid 143 samples were enriched for cell differentiation, development, and morphogenesis terms, whereas 144 genes over-expressed in solid compared to lepidic cases were highly enriched for cell proliferation 145 and markers of immune infiltration (Fig. 1h). Transcriptional differences were confirmed in the EAS 146 dataset (Supplementary Fig. S1h) and in an additional LUAD cohort (31) (Supplementary Fig. S1i). 147 Similarly, promoter probes that increased DNA methylation with pattern progression were enriched 148 for genes involved in cell differentiation and morphogenesis, whereas probes that lost methylation 149 with pattern progression were enriched for immune cell markers (Fig. 1i), further suggesting that 150 aggressive patterns are associated with changes in the tumor microenvironment. To corroborate 151 this finding, we estimated the presence of distinct non-tumor cell populations from transcriptional 152 data (32). Lepidic samples were enriched for lung alveolar and epithelial markers, supporting a 153 similar cell identity between lepidic cancer cells and normal lung tissue, whereas both lymphoid 154 and myeloid immune cell types were invariably enriched in acinar- and solid-prevalent samples, in 155 both the TCGA (Fig. 1j) and EAS (Supplementary Fig. S1j) cohorts. Overall, these results indicated 156 that LUAD pattern progression is associated with a progressive reprogramming of both tumor cells 157 and their microenvironment. However, molecular profiles analyzed so far were generated from single tumor samples annotated by predominant pattern; hence, it remained unclear whether 158 159 similar features and plasticity could be observed within individual tumors.

160

161 Molecular intra-tumor heterogeneity of histologic patterns

162 To determine the molecular features of histologic pattern progression within individual tumors, we 163 selected a cohort of 10 early stage LUAD primary patient samples that exhibited each at least two 164 distinct patterns (CHUV cohort, Supplementary Table 5) and performed histopathology-guided 165 multi-region sampling. For each patient, we reviewed and dissected tumor regions from formalin-166 fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue slides such that each region was composed by a unique 167 pattern (Fig. 2a). In total, we collected 29 tumor regions and 10 normal tissue samples. These 168 samples were processed by whole-exome sequencing, RNA-sequencing, and DNA methylation EPIC 169 array (see **Methods**). LUAD driver mutations were predominantly clonal, i.e. observed in all regions, 170 and not associated with a specific pattern (Fig. 2b). In most cases, we confirmed a trend for higher 171 TMB in more advanced patterns (Supplementary Fig. S2a). After accounting for patient-specific 172 features, differentially expressed genes and methylated probes clustered together samples 173 annotated for the same pattern (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Fig. S2b, Supplementary Table 6). 174 Transcriptional differences among patterns in our cohort were consistent with those observed in 175 the TCGA and EAS cohorts (Supplementary Fig. S2c,d and Supplementary Table 7). Indeed, genes over-expressed in lepidic samples were enriched for tissue development and morphogenesis (Fig 2c 176 177 - blue cluster), while solid but especially acinar samples exhibited over-expression of immune 178 infiltration markers, in particular of B-cells (Fig 2c - orange cluster). Genes over-expressed in solid 179 samples were more specifically enriched for markers of cell proliferation and over-expression of 180 matrix metallopeptidase (MMP) genes (Fig 2c - red cluster). Both lepidic- and solid-associated genes were enriched for extra-cellular matrix (ECM) components and regulators (Fig. 2c), albeit 181 182 exerting opposite functions (33). Indeed, ECM genes up-regulated in solid samples were mostly 183 enriched for ECM degradation (e.g. MMP genes) and collagen proteins (e.g. COL1A1 and COL1A2), 184 whose activation is known to alter cell adhesion and promote invasion (34). Vice versa, ECM genes 185 over-expressed in lepidic samples included several proteins mediating cell adhesion (35), (e.g. 186 TNXB, FBLN5, and MFAP4), and putative tumor suppressors (e.g. DLC1 (36) and FOXF1 (37)). 187 Importantly, expression of these genes was associated with pattern progression within individual 188 tumors (Fig. 2d). Similarly, immune infiltration predicted from gene expression (32) increased from 189 lepidic to solid pattern (Fig. 2e) within 8 out of 10 patients, and intra-tumor patterns showed a 190 different enrichment for markers of normal lung tissue (enriched in lepidic) and immune cell 191 markers (enriched in acinar and solid) (Supplementary Fig. S2e). Altogether, transcriptional and 192 epigenetic differences observed among patients classified by predominant pattern paralleled expression and methylation changes observed within individual tumors. Importantly, these 193 differences pointed at both tumor intrinsic (differentiation, migration, proliferation) and extrinsic 194 195 (immune infiltration) processes as key determinants of LUAD histologic patterns.

196

197 Cancer cell plasticity underlies pattern progression

198 To explore tumor intrinsic features of pattern progression, independent of the extent of immune infiltration, we analyzed single cell RNA-seq data for three LUAD samples (38). Differential 199 200 expression analysis between tumor and non-tumor cells allowed us to extract 2,410 genes that 201 were highly expressed only in tumor cells (cancer-specific genes, Fig. 3a, see Methods). First, we 202 selected cancer-specific genes that were significantly differentially expressed between lepidic and 203 solid tumor regions in our cohort (adj p-value < 0.1 and absolute fold-change > 2) to determine 204 lepidic (n = 36) and solid (n = 21) cancer cell markers (Fig. 3b). These genes confirmed the 205 enrichment for cell proliferation (solid) and differentiation (lepidic) terms (Fig. 3c and 206 Supplementary Table 8). Next, using these genes as cancer cell markers of lepidic and solid 207 patterns, we derived a transcriptional score for each single cancer cell to quantify their lepidic-like 208 or solid-like transcriptional state (see Methods). Single cell transcriptional scores from these 209 patient samples showed a transition of states consistent with plastic reprogramming (Fig. 3d): cells 210 from sample S1 exhibited predominantly lepidic features, sample S2 instead harbored tumor cells that lost lepidic markers and exhibited variable expression of solid markers, lastly sample S3 211 212 comprised cells spanning the whole transition from lepidic to solid (Fig. 3d). To explore the origin of 213 these transcriptional changes, we algorithmically predicted which master transcriptional regulators 214 (TRs) were most likely to modulate differentially expressed genes between lepidic and solid 215 samples (39). Results in the TCGA and our cohorts were extremely concordant (Fig. 3e) and identified, among solid master TRs, cell cycle regulators such as E2F transcription factors, 216 217 minichromosome maintenance (MCM) complex components, which regulate DNA replication and 218 elongation, and the Forkhead Box M1 (FOXM1) transcription factor, which is a key regulator of cell

219 proliferation and over-expressed in several cancer types (40). Among lepidic master TRs, we found 220 genes associated with tumor suppressive functions, such as the circadian repressor CRY2, which 221 degrades the MYC oncogene (41), and the zinc-finger transcription factor ZBTB4 (42), as well as 222 transcription factors involved in cell differentiation and development, such as CASZ1 (43,44), and 223 the YAP repressor WWC1 (45,46). In both the TCGA and our cohorts, lepidic master TRs and lepidic 224 cancer cell markers exhibited on average higher promoter DNA methylation in solid samples 225 (Supplementary Fig. 3a), suggesting that downregulation of lepidic TRs and markers is at least in 226 part driven by epigenetic silencing. Interestingly, data from a high-throughput CRISPR knock-out 227 screening (47) revealed that, in lung adenocarcinoma cell lines, loss of TRs enriched in the solid pattern was largely deleterious and many, though not all, were classified as essential genes, due to 228 their role on cell proliferation (Fig. 3f). Conversely, in the same cells, knock-out of TRs enriched in 229 230 the lepidic pattern led to moderate effects on cell viability and sometimes even improved cell 231 fitness (Fig. 3f), consistent with a putative tumor suppressive function.

232 Next, we combined cancer-specific lepidic and solid markers to generate a unique mRNA signature and quantify lepidic-to-solid transition (L2S signature). L2S signature scores in TCGA and CHUV 233 234 samples were consistent with patient and intra-tumor classifications and pattern progression 235 (Supplementary Fig. 3b,c) and, indeed, normal lung tissues had the lowest scores, followed by 236 lepidic, papillary, acinar, and finally solid samples, which on average had the highest scores. 237 Interestingly, L2S scores correctly predicted the pattern of the misannotated TCGA sample (TCGA-238 44-7670 – Fig 1c) and, unlike the classification based on predominant pattern, it stratified TCGA samples in classes with significantly different prognosis (Fig. 3g and Supplementary Fig. S3d). This 239 240 signature gave us the possibility of estimating pattern progression and assess its prognostic value in 241 a much larger ensemble of LUAD tumors, where transcriptional profiles were available, but 242 histopathology annotations were not. In total, we analyzed and scored >2,000 LUAD human

243 samples, from 10 patient cohorts (5,23,28,31,48-51). Multi-variate Cox regression confirmed that 244 tumor stage and L2S scores were orthogonal and independent prognostic factors in all except one 245 of the tested cohorts (i.e. cohorts comprising more than 100 patients) (Fig. 3h, Supplementary Fig. S3e, and Supplementary Table 1). Furthermore, across all cohorts, L2S scores were strongly 246 247 associated with the predicted activity of lepidic and solid TRs (Supplementary Fig. S3f) and 248 microenvironment composition (Fig. 3i). Intriguingly, the highest correlation between L2S scores 249 and immune cell markers was with markers of T-cell exhaustion, suggesting that mechanisms of 250 immune evasion occur in tumor samples with solid pattern features.

251

252 The tumor microenvironment of LUAD histologic patterns

253 The reproducible association between our L2S signature and immune infiltration across 254 independent LUAD patient cohorts (Fig. 3i) prompted us to investigate the spatial composition of 255 the tumor immune microenvironment in correspondence of different patterns. First, we analyzed 256 FFPE tumor tissue slides from our patient cohort and from 3 additional patients with solid patterns 257 by multi-color immunofluorescence to detect proliferating cells (Ki-67+), B-cells (CD20+), CD4+ and 258 CD8+ T-cells, and macrophages (CD68+). We distinguished LUAD patterns and tumor cells by 259 Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining (Fig. 4a) and TTF1 staining (Fig. 4b), respectively, and quantified fluorescent signal intensities (Fig. 4c) by designing a spatial grid quantification approach 260 261 (GridQuant) that averaged fluorescence signals within pixels of variable size (Fig. 4d, see Methods). 262 These analyses revealed striking differences in the extent and geographical organization of immune 263 cell infiltration across LUAD patterns. Solid regions exhibited significantly stronger Ki-67 intensity 264 than the other patterns, whereas immune cell markers increased intensity with pattern progression 265 but were highest in acinar regions (Fig. 4e). Interestingly, in several tumors we observed the

266 formation of tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS) (Fig. 4f), sometimes characterized by a Ki-67 267 positive core of proliferating B-cells (Fig. 4f - right) resembling germinal centers. TLS formation has 268 been associated with improved prognosis and response to immunotherapies (52,53), hence we 269 assessed their distribution across patterns in our samples. We automatically identified all TLS in our slides and found that these were absent in normal lung tissue and lepidic cancer regions but 270 271 prevalently observed within acinar regions and, less frequently, in papillary and solid regions (Fig. 272 4g). Altogether, these results suggested that immune infiltration increased with pattern 273 progression but was maximal in acinar and not in solid patterns.

274 Next, we investigated the spatial organization of the tumor microenvironment in different patterns, 275 by assessing co-localization of tumor and non-tumor cells. TTF1+ and TTF1- signals were positively 276 correlated in normal lung and lepidic regions, likely due to the presence of cell-depleted lung 277 alveolar structures, lacked correlation in papillary and acinar, but were highly anti-correlated in 278 solid regions (Fig. 4h), consistent with low intermixing of cancer and non-cancer cells. Similarly, co-279 localization of immune cell markers and Ki-67, which here could be used to mark tumor cells (Supplementary Fig. S4a), was lowest at solid regions independently of the pixel size 280 281 (Supplementary Fig. S4b). Consistent with these trends, we noticed that lymphoid cells and 282 macrophages localize at the boundary of solid regions within individual tumor slides (Fig. 4i). To 283 quantify these observations, we used GridQuant to extract average signal intensities at different 284 distances from the periphery of each solid tumor region towards its core (Fig. 4j). In all cases, the 285 density of immune cells was higher at the periphery than at the core of the tumor region (Fig. 4k,I) 286 indicating that the spatial distribution of immune cells in solid patterns was consistent with an 287 immune excluded phenotype.

288 To corroborate this evidence and explore in more detail the molecular profiles and immune 289 microenvironment of the core and periphery of lung adenocarcinoma, we performed digital spatial 290 profiling (DSP - Nanostring GeoMX) in 5 tissue slides from 5 patients. Briefly, in each slide, we 291 selected and analyzed with a panel of 58 antibodies 12 regions of interest (n = 60 ROIs in total), 292 located either at the core or periphery of different histologic patterns (Supplementary Table 9 and 293 Supplementary Fig. S5a). ROI localization was not associated with immune infiltration, measured 294 by either ratio of CD45 positive cells or protein expression, except for solid ROIs (Fig. 5a). Indeed, 295 out of six solid ROIs from Patient 8 (Fig. 5b), two were localized at the core of the tumor (R9 and R8) and had lowest levels of immune infiltration, and four where selected at the tumor periphery 296 297 (R6, R7, R10, R12) and all exhibited high immune infiltration (Fig. 5a). Solid core ROIs expressed 298 high levels of cancer cell specific markers (PanCK and EpCAM), Ki-67, and the interleukin 7 receptor 299 (IL7R or CD127) (Fig. 5c). Although IL7R can be expressed by both tumor and immune cells, the low 300 content of immune cells in these ROIs suggested that IL7R was here expressed by cancer cells. 301 Importantly, cancer cell expression of IL7R has been associated with poor prognosis in non-small 302 cell lung cancer (54). Conversely, periphery ROIs exhibited high expression of immune cell markers, 303 including the immunosuppressive regulatory T-cell (T-regs) marker Tim3 and the immune checkpoint VISTA (Fig. 5c). The highly different extent of immune infiltration at the core and 304 305 periphery of the solid tumor region challenged the possibility of comparing features specific of 306 either cancer cells or immune cells. To overcome this challenge, we profiled 36 additional ROIs 307 from 3 solid tumor regions, and, in each ROI, we separately analyzed immune cells (CD45+) and 308 cancer cells (PanCK+) (Fig 5d, Supplementary Fig. S5b). By selectively retaining the signal coming 309 from either one or the other cell population (see an example of the masking strategy on **Fig 5d**), we 310 first compared cancer cells at the core and periphery of solid tumor regions. Here, we found that 311 cancer cells at the periphery actually exhibited significantly higher levels of the proliferation marker 312 Ki-67 than cancer cells at the core of the tumor, consistent with an invasive margin, as well as Pan-313 AKT and p53 (Fig 5e and Supplementary Table 9). Next, although immune infiltration was low at 314 the core of solid ROIs, specific comparison of CD45+ cells at the core and periphery showed that 315 immune cells infiltrated at the core of solid regions were significantly enriched for markers of 316 immunosuppressive effector T-regs, such as FOXP3, CD25 and Tim3, and immune checkpoints, such 317 as CTLA4, VISTA, and ICOS (Fig 5f, Supplementary Fig. S5c). Overall, whereas all solid tumors 318 exhibited features of immune exclusion, the residual immune infiltration was consistent with an 319 immunosuppressive microenvironment associated in particular with the presence of effector T-320 regs.

321

322 Discussion

323 Cancer heterogeneity across and within patients is apparent at both the molecular and histological 324 levels. However, how and whether genomic features determine cell morphology and spatial 325 organization is largely unexplored. Here, we reconciled molecular and histological heterogeneity in 326 lung adenocarcinoma by introducing an approach based on histopathology-guided multi-region 327 sampling. Our results showed evidence of non-genetic mechanisms of tumor evolution as 328 determinants of histological heterogeneity and disease progression. Indeed, progression from 329 lepidic to solid histology was associated with plastic reprogramming of differentiation cell markers, 330 increased cell proliferation, and a transition from an immune *desert* (lepidic), to an *inflamed* 331 (papillary and especially acinar) and eventually excluded and suppressive (solid) microenvironment 332 (Fig. 6). Importantly, the transition of both cancer cell intrinsic features and microenvironment 333 composition was evident within individual tumors and matched intra-tumor pattern heterogeneity.

334 The concomitant evidence of plastic reprogramming of cancer cells and changing 335 microenvironment prompts questions on the origin of such changes. Does tumor cell de-336 differentiation activate specific immune shaping and responses? Or, are dynamic changes of the 337 tumor immune microenvironment triggering cancer cell plasticity? To address these questions, 338 models of lung adenocarcinoma that mimic transcriptional, epigenetic, and morphological features 339 of the human disease are required. Mouse models of non-small cell lung cancer recapitulate some 340 of the histologic patterns observed in the human disease (55,56), but the molecular features of 341 these patterns remain to be investigated. Interestingly, recent evidence has shown that LUAD 342 progression in a genetically engineered mouse model (GEMM) is accompanied by plastic reprogramming driving cell dedifferentiation (57,58). A detailed comparison of the cell state 343 transitions that we observed in our human cohort with those in the LUAD GEMM will be important 344 345 to investigate the possibility of genetically and therapeutically manipulate specific transcriptional 346 regulator driving LUAD progression. Moreover, cross talks between the tumor microenvironment 347 and changes in cancer cell epigenetic features have been observed in the context of neoantigen 348 presentation, cytokine production, and epigenetic regulation of PD-L1 expression (59,60). However, it is challenging to establish the relative timing and causative interactions between cancer cell 349 350 reprogramming and immune surveillance. Towards this goal, detailed single-cell spatial 351 characterization of tumor molecular profiles from primary patient samples or longitudinal analysis 352 of tumor spatial features could inform and complement functional assays in experimental models.

Intriguingly, even by selecting intra-tumor regions characterized by a unique pattern, we did not find evidence of markers discriminating the four patterns into separate and independent classes. Instead, our results suggested a transition between two extreme states, lepidic and solid, with papillary and acinar as possible intermediate states. To quantify this transition, we proposed a transcriptional signature (called L2S signature) derived from the comparison of pure lepidic and 358 pure solid tumor regions. Importantly, L2S scores were independent predictors of patient's overall 359 survival and immune infiltration in multiple independent LUAD cohorts and highlighted sample 360 misannotations due to intra-tumor heterogeneity. With the expanding use of molecular profiling 361 technologies for diagnostic purposes, signatures like the one we identified could provide a 362 complement to histopathology. In particular, intra-tumor pattern heterogeneity is prevalent in 363 early stage LUAD. With the recent success and possible increased adoption of screenings to detect 364 the disease (61,62), cases diagnosed at an early stage are expected to augment. It will be critical to 365 discriminate those more likely to progress or relapse after treatment, surgery and/or radiotherapy, 366 and better select those needing adjuvant treatment and type of therapy.

367 In advanced/metastatic stage adenocarcinoma, immunotherapy as a single agent or in combination 368 with other drugs is now the treatment of choice in an important portion of cases (63). Furthermore, 369 immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICI) in the neo-adjuvant setting are currently of great interest in 370 non-small cell lung cancer, as shown by recent results with the PD-1 inhibitor nivolumab, which led 371 to major pathological response in 45% of the patient (64). Additional clinical trials on early-stage tumors are ongoing and results are expected in 2021 (65,66). As new data will become available, it 372 will be interesting to test the association between lung adenocarcinoma histologic pattern 373 374 composition or signature and response to ICI in both adjuvant and neo-adjuvant setting.

375

The emergence of histological heterogeneity with disease progression is not a feature exclusively observed in lung adenocarcinoma. Evidence of morphological changes have been reported in several tumor types such as breast cancer (67) and hepatocellular carcinoma (68). In these tumor types, integrating histopathology-guided multi-region sampling with molecular profiling could prove to be an effective strategy to study the evolution of the disease. In particular, recently

developed spatial genomics technologies need to be coupled with computational approaches able
to exploit spatial information to provide novel insight on interactions between tumor and nontumor cells and on how such interactions shape cancer cell identity. Overall, reconciling molecular
and phenotypic heterogeneity is a critical first step to understand and integrate genetic and nongenetic mechanisms of cancer evolution.

390 Statistical analyses

Details of all statistical analyses and tests performed and referred to in the main text and methods sections are outlined in Supplementary Table 2. Standard statistical tests (Chi-Square, Fisher, Kruskal-Wallis, t, Wilcoxon Rank-Sum, correlation coefficients) were performed using the appropriate functions from R 'stats' package. Dunn and Tukey post-hoc tests were performed with R packages 'FSA' (v 0.8.22) (https://github.com/droglenc/FSA) and 'multcomp' (v1.4-13) (69) respectively. Multiple hypotheses corrections were made using Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. All analyses were performed implementing custom scripts in bash and R (v3.4 and 3.5) languages.

398 TCGA dataset

Molecular and clinical data for The Cancer Genome Atlas lung adenocarcinoma cohort (TCGA-LUAD) were downloaded from the Genomic Data Commons (GDC) (70) and GDAC FireHose (<u>https://gdac.broadinstitute.org/</u>) repositories. The dataset included somatic point mutations (whole exome sequencing, MAF file version: mc3 v0.2.8 (71)), copy number changes (Illumina SNP6 403 array, segmentation files and gene-level copy number generated with GISTIC (72)), gene expression 404 profiled by RNA sequencing (Illumina HiSeq, HTSeq raw counts and FPKM-normalized values), DNA 405 methylation data (Illumina Infinium HM450k array, beta values), H&E stained images and clinical 406 https://gdc.cancer.gov/aboutdata. Neoantigen counts were retrieved from data/publications/panimmune (73) (metric: 'numberOfBindingExpressedPMHC'). Only primary and 407 408 normal samples were considered; in case multiple samples for the same patient were available, the 409 sample with the latest plate number was retained as recommended by the GDAC guidelines. All 410 data was generated and processed by The Cancer Genome Atlas research network (74). Consistent 411 predominant histologic pattern annotation for a subset of tumors (N=206) was obtained by merging clinical tables from GDC, GDAC and Supplementary Table 1 from TCGA-LUAD 2014 manuscript (74). 412 Patients ambiguously annotated to different patterns in different clinical tables were excluded from 413 414 this pattern-annotated subset.

415 CHUV dataset

416 We retrieved from the database of the Pathology Institute of the Lausanne University Hospital 417 resected stage I and II lung adenocarcinoma. 13 adenocarcinomas were selected (Supplementary 418 Table 5) fulfilling following criteria: (1) presence of at least 2 of the main histological patterns of 419 lung adenocarcinoma (lepidic, acinar, papillary and solid); (2) sufficient material available with 420 appropriate surface and delineation of each pattern allowing microscopic dissection and material 421 harvesting for molecular and imaging analyses. For every patient, a FFPE block of normal lung tissue 422 distant from the tumor was selected. 2 to 5 tumor regions/FFPE blocks were also selected for every 423 patient each with a specific dissectible pattern. For 3 patients (1, 3 and 8) 2 non-adjacent regions of 424 the same pattern were also selected for intra-tumor comparisons. 5 to 20 micrometer thick unstained slides were obtained from every selected block. Slides were dried and deparaffinized 425

426 using Xylol and Ethanol (100% and 70%) and stained with Toluidine Blue 0.024% isopropanol 30%.
427 Macroscopic and microscopic dissection were performed and unwanted tissue (non-pattern specific
428 and non-tumor tissue) was removed from the slides. 4 micrometer thick slides were also taken
429 before, after as well as in between the dissected slides and stained with Hematoxylin Eosin to
430 improve morphological control. Slides taken at the same time were subsequently used for
431 molecular and imaging analyses. Local Ethical Committee approval was obtained to perform all
432 mentioned analyses, under authorization N. 2017-00334.

433

434

435 <u>Other datasets</u>

436 All additional datasets were generated and processed as described in the corresponding 437 publications and are summarized in Supplementary Table 1. Chen/EAS (28) dataset including somatic point mutations, copy number changes, gene expression profiled by RNA sequencing. H&E 438 439 stained images and clinical data was downloaded from OncoSG (75,76). Ding (31) gene expression 440 dataset was downloaded from the UCSC Xena browser (77). TRACERx (12) raw RNA sequencing 441 data for each tumor region was downloaded from the European Genome-Phenome Archive (ID: EGAS00001003458) and processed as described in the paragraph 'RNA sequencing and data 442 443 processing'; lymph node metastases were excluded; access was provided by the authors upon 444 request. Micke (48), Yokota (49), Beg (50), Shedden (51) and Pintilie (78) gene expression datasets 445 were downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus (accession numbers, respectively: GSE37745, 446 GSE31210, GSE72094, GSE68465, GSE50081).

447 <u>Whole exome sequencing and data processing</u>

Whole exome sequencing was performed on 27 tumor regions and 9 adjacent normal lung 448 449 specimens by Genewiz with a protocol optimized for FFPE samples. Briefly, genomic DNA samples 450 were fragmented into 200-500 base pairs fragments; libraries were prepared using the Agilent 451 SureSelect Exome library preparation kit and sequenced on Illumina HiSeq in High Output mode 452 with a 2x150 bases paired end sequencing configuration. On average, total number of reads per 453 sample was around 98 million, with a mean guality score of 38.42 and 92% of bases with guality 454 >=30. Sequencing reads were checked for quality using FastQC v0.11.7, trimmed with TrimGalore 455 v0.4.5 to remove Illumina universal adapter contamination (parameters: -g 15 –phred33 --illumina -456 -length 20 --paired --retain unpaired -r1 24 -r2 24) and aligned to human genome (hg38 build, downloaded from GATK (79) resource bundle) using bwa-mem (80) v0.7.17. Duplicates were 457 458 removed with Picard tool MarkDuplicates (v2.18.4). Reads were processed with GATK v4.0.3.0 Best 459 Practices workflow (81) using the tools AddOrReplaceReadGroups, BaseRecalibrator, ApplyBQSR 460 and AnalyzeCovariates (see https://gatk.broadinstitute.org/hc/en-us/articles/360035535912 for 461 details) and tagging known variant sites with the VCF files dbsnp 146.hg38.vcf, 462 Mills and 1000G gold standard.indels.hg38.vcf, af-only-gnomad.hg38.vcf, Homo_sapiens_assembly38.known_indels.vcf (downloaded from GATK resource bundle). The BAM 463 464 files thus processed were indexed with samtools v1.6 and used for somatic variant calling.

465 Variant calling and filtering

Somatic point mutations and short insertions-deletions for each tumor region were called with GATK v4.0.3.0 tool Mutect2 using the matched normal lung sample from the same patient (the only exceptions were tumor regions of patient 8, for which variants were called in tumor-only mode) and a panel of normal samples. Additional parameters used were '--af-of-alleles-not-in-resource "0.0000025"' and '--disable-read-filter MateOnSameContigOrNoMappedMateReadFilter'. Variants 471 were filtered using FilterMutectCalls, CollectSequencingArtifactMetrics and FilterByOrientationBias 472 (--artifact-modes "G/T" and "C/T"); the latter was designed specifically to filter out transitions likely 473 resulting from FFPE-related deamination of cytosines. Resulting VCF files were converted into MAF 474 files using vcf2maf (https://github.com/mskcc/vcf2maf) v1.6.16 with default parameters. Variants were then tagged with OncoKB (82) for oncogenicity and retained only if they satisfied all of the 475 476 following conditions: (1) GnomAD population frequency < 0.01, (2) not being tagged by Mutect2 filters panel of normals, artifact in normal, germline risk, str contraction, multiallelic and 477 478 clustered events, (3) variant allele frequency in the tumor sample is at least twice greater than the 479 one in the normal sample, (4) tumor depth is greater than 6 and Mutect2 filter value is 'PASS' or, 480 alternatively, the same variant is shared by more than one tumor region of the same patient. The 481 rationale behind these choices consists in not filtering out variants whose evidence is supported by 482 independent regions (point 4), provided that they are not germline (points 2 and 3). Known 483 oncogenic variants were manually verified and recovered using IGV genome browser (83) and inspecting aligned RNA reads. 484

485 RNA sequencing and data processing

486 RNA sequencing was performed on 29 tumor regions by Genewiz with a protocol optimized for 487 FFPE samples, which involved ribosomal RNA depletion and 2x150 bases paired end sequencing 488 with Illumina HiSeq. On average, total number of reads per sample was around 65 million, with a 489 mean guality score of 38 and 91% of bases with guality >=30. Sequencing reads were checked for 490 quality using FastQC v0.11.7, trimmed with TrimGalore v0.4.5 to remove Illumina universal adapter 491 contamination (parameters: -q 15 –phred33 --illumina --length 20 --paired --retain unpaired -r1 24 492 -r2 24) and processed with RSEM (84) v1.3.0, performing the following steps: (1) alignment with 493 STAR (85) v2.5.4b human genome (hg38) GTF annotation file to using

494 'gencode.v27.primary_assembly.annotation.gtf' (downloaded from GATK resource bundle) and 495 default RSEM parameters; (2) removal of reads mapping to tRNA and rRNA regions (retrieved using 496 UCSC table browser); (3) estimation of isoform-level and gene-level expression as Transcripts Per 497 Million (TPM) and RSEM expected counts using rsem-calculate-expression. A batch effect detected 498 with Principal Component Analysis was corrected in the TPM expression matrix using the ComBat 499 function implemented in the R package sva (86) v3.30.1. Conversions between Ensembl IDs and 500 gene symbols were performed using BioMart (87).

501 DNA methylation array and data processing

502 Pattern-specific tumor samples were extracted as described in the section 'CHUV dataset' and 503 collected in deparafinization solution from the GeneRead[™] DNA FFPE kit (cat# 180134, Quiagen); 504 DNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA concentration was assessed 505 using the Qubit High Sensitivity Assay, and DNA quality was monitored using the Infinium HD FFPE 506 QC Assay (cat# WG-321-1001, Illumina), according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples for 507 which at least 1 µg was available and with good overall guality (Delta Cg from the Infinium HD FFPE 508 QC Assay lower than 5) were selected for bisulfite conversion. Bisulfite conversion was performed 509 on 1 µg of DNA using the EZ DNA Methylation[™] Kit (cat# D5001, Zymo Research), using the 510 alternative protocol for CT conversion (optimized for the Illumina Infinium Methylation Assay). FFPE 511 restoration was then performed using Infinium HD FFPE DNA restore kit (cat# WG-321-1002, 512 Illumina) and samples were processed using the Infinium MethylationEPIC 850k Kit (iGE3, University 513 of Geneva). Raw signal intensities were processed, guantile-normalized and converted into beta 514 values using the R package minfi (88) v1.28.4. Probes were annotated using the hg38 EPIC manifest 515 file generated by (89) (version of September 2018) and filtered according to the corresponding 516 masking column. Probes mapping to sex chromosomes and having a detection p-value above 0.01

517	were also removed, thus obtaining a final set of 730257 probes. A batch effect detected with
518	Principal Component Analysis was corrected using the ComBat function implemented in the R
519	package sva (86) v3.30.1. Probes were annotated to FANTOM5 (90) gene promoters, and promoter
520	methylation for each gene was computed as the average beta value of all probes mapping to the
521	gene main promoter (p1 or p).
522	Copy number alterations and fusions calling
523	Gene-level copy number alterations were called from DNA methylation data using the R package
524	conumee v1.16.0 and GISTIC (72) v83 with default parameters. Gene fusions were called from
525	adapter-trimmed RNA-seq FASTQ files using STAR-Fusion (91) v2.6.1d with default parameters.
526	
527	
528	Genetic alteration differences among patterns
529	Fraction of genome altered for each sample was computed as the fraction of genes having a gene-
530	level GISTIC value equal to 2 or -2. Differences among patterns in terms of tumor mutational
531	burden and fraction of genome altered were tested with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by post-hoc
532	Dunn test. The potential confounding role of purity in the association between mutational burden
533	and patterns was assessed by performing a main-effects ANCOVA with log-scaled number of
534	mutations as dependent variable, purity (CPE values from (92)) as continuous covariate and
535	histologic pattern as categorical independent variable. In TCGA pattern-annotated dataset, two lists
536	of driver genetic alterations were inspected for differences among patterns: 1) a published binary
537	genomic alteration matrix (93) which included point mutations, copy number changes and gene
500	fusions (results shown in figures), 2) a list of drivers, which included (week drivers' (as described in

539 (29)) obtained by running FunSeq2 (94) algorithm as web service and retaining coding and non-540 coding variants with score >= 1.5. Driver alterations occurring in at least 3 samples were then 541 tested for differences among the 4 patterns with a Chi-Square test. Residuals were inspected in 542 order to determine which pattern was enriched for a given genetic event. P-values were adjusted for multiple hypotheses with Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. FunSeq2 was applied also to EAS 543 544 dataset and the same downstream analysis was performed. For pathway-level analysis, driver 545 alterations called by FunSeq2 were used and the following steps were performed: 1) relevant 546 pathways in cancer and their gene components annotated as 'oncogenes', 'tumor suppressor 547 genes' or 'unknown' were retrieved from (30); 2) a pathway was called 'altered' in TCGA pattern-548 annotated dataset if at least one gene was altered in FunSeq2 calls or the gene harbored GISTIC-549 based deep deletion (in case of 'tumor suppressor genes' or 'unknown') or amplification (in case of 550 'oncogenes' or 'unknown'); 3) Pathway alterations were then tested for differences among the 4 551 patterns with a Chi-Square test, residuals were inspected in order to determine which pattern was 552 enriched for a given altered pathway and p-values were adjusted for multiple hypotheses with 553 Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

554 Differential expression analyses

555 Differential expression analyses among patterns were performed on RNA-seq read counts (HTSeq 556 counts for TCGA and RSEM expected counts for Chen and CHUV datasets) using R packages limma 557 v3.38.3 (95) and edgeR (96) v3.24.3 with a standard published pipeline (97). Only genes expressed 558 (counts per million > 1) in at least 3 (CHUV) or 50% (TCGA and Chen) of samples of any pattern were 559 tested. P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg FDR-controlling procedure. Pairwise 560 pattern comparisons were performed with limma function decideTests. In the CHUV dataset, the 561 patient corresponding to each tumor region was inserted as covariate in the limma model. For 562 purely graphical purposes, in the heatmaps the patient-specific batch effect was removed with 563 limma function 'removeBatchEffect'. For TCGA, a null model was constructed by randomly 564 permuting the assignment of patterns to samples and re-performing differential expression analysis 565 on 100 random permutations. Differential expression analysis on Ding dataset was performed on 566 microarray gene expression profiles between samples with >= 50% (solid-like) and <50% (lepidic-567 like) of solid pattern prevalence.

568 Differential methylation analyses

569 Differential methylation analyses were performed on M-values, which were derived from beta 570 values, on all probes and with the same pipeline as for expression data. Pairwise pattern 571 comparisons were performed with limma function decideTests. In the CHUV dataset the patient 572 corresponding to each tumor region was inserted as covariate in the limma model. For purely 573 graphical purposes, in the heatmaps the patient-specific batch effect was removed with limma function 'removeBatchEffect'. For TCGA, a null model was constructed by randomly permuting the 574 575 assignment of patterns to samples and re-performing differential methylation analysis on 100 576 random permutations.

577 <u>Gene ontology analyses</u>

578 Gene ontology analyses were performed on differentially expressed genes and genes targeted by 579 differentially methylated promoters using MSigDB (98) and Gene Ontology gene sets (99) 580 (Biological Process and Molecular Function categories), using an FDR cutoff of 0.01 and retrieving a 581 maximum of 100 categories.

582 <u>Extraction of lung adenocarcinoma tumor and non-tumor markers</u>

583 Genes expressed preferentially in lung adenocarcinoma tumor cells were extracted from a 584 previously published lung cancer single cell RNA-seq dataset (38), which included 3 lung 585 adenocarcinoma patients (2 from the 'discovery cohort' and 1 from the 'validation cohort'), in the following way: (1) For the two 'discovery cohort' patients, genes x cells expression matrix and cell 586 IDs for each cell type including cancer cells were downloaded from ArrayExpress (ID: E-MTAB-6149) 587 588 and SCope repositories, and the expression matrix was filtered such that only single cells coming 589 from tumor regions belonging to the two lung adenocarcinoma patients were retained; (2) For the 590 tumor regions of the lung adenocarcinoma patient in the 'validation cohort' only raw FASTQ files 591 were available (ArrayExpress ID: E-MTAB-6653), and thus they were aligned filtered and processed 592 as described in the Lambrecht et al. study (38) using CellRanger v3.0.2 and Seurat v3.0.0; clusters 593 were detected with Seurat function 'FindClusters' (resolution = 0.5) and 12 out of 16 of them could 594 be assigned to the main immune/stromal cell types using the expression of the markers reported in 595 Figure S1 of (38); of the remaining 4 clusters, 2 showed increased expression of several keratin 596 genes and they were thus assigned to cancer cells (3) for each of the three patients separately, 597 markers for cells classified as 'cancer' were extracted using the function 'FindMarkers' (with 598 min.pct = 0) of Seurat (100); (4) markers were further filtered to have adjusted p-value < 0.05 and 599 average $log_2(fold-change) > 0.25$; (5) in order to better accommodate for inter-patient 600 heterogeneity in tumor cell expression, the union of the three lists of patient-specific cancer 601 markers was extracted as final list. This procedure yielded a list of 2410 cancer-specific genes. Markers of lung alveolar and epithelial cells were extracted with FindMarkers applied to the lung 602 603 adenocarcinoma samples of the 'discovery cohort' dataset using more stringent thresholds 604 (adjusted p-value < 0.0001 and average $\log_2(\text{fold-change}) > 10$) in order to increase specificity.

605 Quantification of immune cell infiltration

606 Methylation-based immune cell infiltration fractions for TCGA LUAD samples were downloaded 607 from a previous study (92). Bulk RNA-seq deconvolution was performed with consensusTME (32) 608 implemented in the corresponding R package (v 0.0.1.9000, parameters: cancer = 'LUAD', 609 statMethod = 'ssgsea'). Three cell types were added to the available ones (T cells exhausted, lung 610 epithelial cells and lung alveolar cells) and their score in each sample was quantified in the same 611 way as done by consensusTME, namely by computing single sample gene set enrichment analysis 612 (ssgsea, implemented in GSVA (101) R package v1.30.0 with ssgsea.norm = T) using markers of each 613 of these cell types. Markers for T cells exhaustion used were PD-1, PD-L1, LAG3, TIGIT, PD-L2, B7-H3 614 (CD276), HAVCR2 (TIM-3), CD244, CTLA4, CD160 (102) and (https://www.rndsystems.com/producthighlights/adoptive-cell-transfer-monitor-t-cell-exhaustion); markers of lung epithelial and alveolar 615 616 cells were extracted as described in the paragraph 'Extraction of lung adenocarcinoma tumor and 617 non-tumor markers'.

618 <u>Construction and scoring of Lepidic-to-Solid signature</u>

619 A differential expression analysis restricted to the 2410 LUAD cancer-specific genes was performed 620 between lepidic and solid samples of the CHUV dataset. Differentially expressed genes were 621 extracted by filtering for adjusted p-value < 0.1 and absolute $\log_2(fold-change) > 1$, thus obtaining 622 36 cancer-specific lepidic markers and 21 cancer-specific solid markers. For bulk RNA-seq datasets, 623 sample-wise enrichment scores for these markers were computed using the singscore (103) R 624 package (v1.0.0). Singscore outputs a unified score for the complete signature ('TotalScore') as well 625 as scores for the upregulated (lepidic) and downregulated (solid) genes separately. The sign of 626 scores relative to the lepidic markers set were changed for graphical reasons (such that lepidic-like 627 samples would harbor higher lepidic markers signature scores). For the single cell RNA-seq dataset, 628 a different strategy was adopted in order to account for the high dropout rate of single cell profiles:

629 1) cancer cells from the 3 lung adenocarcinoma patients extracted as reported in paragraph 630 'Extraction of lung adenocarcinoma tumor and non-tumor markers' were further filtered to retain 631 only cells with more than 2000 genes expressed; 2) a differential expression analysis was 632 performed between the 10 most lepidic-like TCGA patients (i.e. harboring the lowest 'TotalScore' 633 computed as described above) and the 10 most solid-like TCGA patients (with highest 'TotalScore'), 634 restricting the set of genes tested to the list of 2410 cancer-related genes; 3) Differentially 635 expressed genes were again extracted by filtering for adjusted p-value < 0.1 and absolute $\log_2(fold-$ 636 change) > 1, in this case obtaining 279 cancer-specific lepidic markers and 215 cancer-specific solid 637 markers, due to the higher statistical power achieved with increased sample size (most of the lepidic and solid markers obtained from the CHUV dataset as reported above were among these 638 639 augmented lepidic and solid marker lists, and none was found in the wrong list); 4) this augmented 640 signature was used to score single cells obtained at point (1) for lepidic-like or solid-like features 641 using AUCell (104) (with default parameters), a tool specifically designed for scRNA-seq datasets.

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644 Purity correction of DNA methylation profiles

Tumor purity was estimated from DNA methylation profiles in the CHUV dataset using the Lump algorithm (92). Briefly, we retrieved DNA methylation of purified leukocytes profiled with Illumina 850k EPIC array (105) and probes with a beta value below 0.1 in all leukocyte samples were intersected with probes having a beta value above 0.85 in the top 7 TCGA purest samples as estimated by Lump, which yielded a set of 24 probes methylated in tumor cells and unmethylated in immune cells. Finally, purity in heterogeneous samples was computed as mean beta value of these 24 probes. Purity estimates were very correlated with ConsensusTME's immune scores 652 (Spearman's r = 0.87) and different thresholds yielded consistent results. Next, in order to estimate 653 tumor cells specific methylation, beta values observed for a mixture of tumor and immune cells 654 were modeled as a linear combination of tumor and immune cells beta values, i.e. for probe i: 655 $\beta_{observed}[i] = p\beta_{tumor}[i] + (1-p)\beta_{immune}[i]$, where p is the purity computed as described. β_{tumor} was 656 estimated in the following way: 1) Variance of beta values across all leukocyte samples was 657 computed for each probe, and probes showing a variance greater than 0.01 were discarded; 2) 658 β_{immune} for the remaining probes was computed as the mean beta value in leukocyte samples; 3) β_{tumor} was thus computed with the equation above and probes whose purity-corrected values were 659 660 not within [0,1] were discarded. The rationale behind step 1 was to select probes for which a 661 reliable estimate of leukocyte methylation could be obtained. The conservative choices at steps 1 662 and 3 resulted in a decrease of the number of probes for which tumor cells-specific methylation 663 could be computed (571349 for the CHUV and 91228 for the TCGA datasets), with the advantage, however, of a higher reliability for the purity correction. Differential methylation analyses (as 664 described before) were performed on purity-corrected methylation profiles to assess methylation 665 666 differences shown in Fig. S3a.

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668 Master transcriptional regulator activity analysis

669 Virtual Inference of Protein-activity by Enriched Regulon analysis (39) (implemented in the 'viper' R 670 package, v1.16.0) was used to estimate transcriptional regulator (TR) activity, following guidelines contained in the user manual. Briefly, 'msviper' function takes as input (1) a co-expression 671 672 regulatory network estimated with ARACNe methodology (106), for which a lung adenocarcinoma-673 specific regulatory downloaded Bioconductor network was as а package (DOI: 674 10.18129/B9.bioc.aracne.networks), (2) a gene expression signature generated with viper function

675 'rowTtest' between two biological conditions and (3) a null model obtained with viper function 676 'ttestNull' and 1000 random permutations. The output is a list of TRs driving the biological 677 conditions of interest and their corresponding enrichment p-value, FDR, and normalized 678 enrichment score. VIPER analyses were thus performed on lepidic and solid samples of CHUV and 679 TCGA datasets separately, restricting the gene expression matrix in input to contain only cancer-680 specific genes (see 'Extraction of lung adenocarcinoma tumor and non-tumor markers' section). 681 Lastly, TR activity was estimated in each single sample of all datasets using the 'viper' function 682 again restricted to cancer-specific genes.

683 <u>Survival analyses</u>

Survival analyses were performed using the R package survival v 2.44-1.1. Cox regression models included sex, age and stage (numeric) as covariates. Signature scores were recalibrated such that hazard ratios represented the effect of a 10% increase of the signature value from its theoretical minimum (-1) to its theoretical maximum (+1).

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690 Analyses of genetic dependency screenings

691 CRISPR-based gene dependency scores and gene expression of cell lines were downloaded from the 692 DepMap portal (https://depmap.org/portal/download/, CRISPR/Avana: 'Achilles gene effect.csv', 693 expression: 'CCLE expression.csv') along with cell line annotations. Only cell lines with 694 lineage sub subtype = NSCLC adenocarcinoma were investigated. Essential genes were also 695 retrieved from the DepMap portal (union 'common essentials.csv' and of

- 696 'Achilles_common_essentials.csv'). Transcriptional regulators (TRs) that were differentially active in
 697 lepidic vs solid in CHUV and TCGA cohorts were tested for dependency.
- 698 <u>H&E, TTF1 and multicolor immunofluorescence staining</u>

Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining was performed with standard protocol to retrieve the 699 700 histologic patterns on all samples that were used for molecular or imaging assays. TTF1 staining was 701 performed using mouse anti-TTF1 antibody, clone 8G7G3/1 (Invitrogen 18-0221) on Roche-Ventana 702 Benchmark Ultra using the following protocol: (1) retrieval in Ventana Cell Conditioning 1 solution 703 at 95°C for 64 min; (2) incubation for 32 min at 37°C, with the 8G7G3/1 being diluted 1/15; (3) 704 application of Ventana ultraView Universal DAB Detection Kit followed by Ventana Hematoxylin as 705 a nuclear counterstain. The multicolor immunofluorescence assay was performed using the 706 Ventana Discovery ULTRA automate (Roche Diagnostics, Rotkreuz, Switzerland). All steps were 707 performed automatically with Ventana solutions except if mentioned. Dewaxed and rehydrated 708 paraffin sections were pretreated with heat using the CC1 solution for 40 minutes at 95°C. Primary 709 antibodies were applied and revealed sequentially either with a rabbit Immpress HRP (Ready to 710 use, Vector laboratories Laboratories) or a mouse Immpress HRP (Ready to use, Vector laboratories 711 Laboratories) followed by incubation with a fluorescent tyramide. A heat denaturation step was 712 performed after every revelation. The primary antibodies sequence was: rabbit anti CD8 (clone: 713 Sp57, fluorophore: R6G), rabbit anti CD4 (clone: Sp35, fluorophore: DCC), mouse anti CD68 (clone: 714 KP-1, fluorophore: R610), rabbit anti Ki67 (clone: 30-9, fluorophore: Cy5) and mouse anti CD20 715 (clone: L26, fluorophore: FAM). All sections (H&E, TTF1 and multicolor immunofluorescence) were mounted with FluoromountG (Bioconcept) and scanned at 20x magnification using an Olympus 716 717 VS120 whole slide scanner equipped with specific filters.

718 Spatially resolved cell quantification framework (GridQuant)

719 H&E, TTF1 and multicolor immunofluorescence stained images were visualized using QuPath (107) 720 v0.2.0 software. Histologic patterns were assessed and drawn with QuPath on H&E images and 721 annotations were then transferred with minor adjustments to the nearby adjacent TTF1-stained 722 and immunofluorescence-stained images. Regions that were too small were discarded. Next, quantifications and downstream statistical analyses were performed by developing a gridding 723 724 framework named GridQuant, which involved the following steps for each image: (1) automated 725 cell detections on QuPath with available algorithms; (2) acquisition of the coordinates of histologic 726 pattern boundaries drawn on the image; (3) setup of a pixel grid spanning the entire image, with 727 tunable grid spacing (pixel size); (4) for each cell type, summarization of cell detections at the pixel 728 level as counts of the number of cells whose centroid fell within each pixel of the grid, thus 729 obtaining one matrix for each cell type and for each pixel size considered; (5) various downstream 730 spatially-resolved statistical analyses across cell types and histologic patterns (described in the 731 following paragraphs). For TTF1-stained images, cell detection algorithm used on QuPath was 'positive cell detection' and cell types investigated were TTF1-positive and TTF1-negative. For 732 733 multicolor immunofluorescence-stained images, 'Watershed cell detection' algorithm was used to 734 detect macrophages (CD63-positive cells), CD4 T cells (CD4-positive cells), CD8 T cells (CD8-positive cells), B cells (CD20-positive cells) and proliferating cells (Ki67-positive cells). In order to 735 736 accommodate for potential variability in signal intensities among cell types and slides, the 737 parameters of these cell detection algorithms were tuned with visual inspection in each slide and 738 for each cell type. Steps 1 and 2 of GridQuant were implemented in Groovy programming language, 739 steps 3, 4 and 5 were implemented in R v3.5.

740 <u>GridQuant - cell density across patterns</u>

741 Cell densities for each pixel were computed as the pixel counts divided by the pixel area. 742 Distributions of densities across patterns were derived aggregating all pixels annotated to each 743 pattern across all slides.

744 GridQuant - cell types colocalizations across patterns

For each pattern-annotated region, the colocalization between cell types X and Y was computed as the Spearman's correlation coefficient between X and Y densities across all pixels falling within the region boundary. Pixels having total cell densities (summing densities of all available cell types) below the 5th percentile or below 200 N/mm² were discarded as likely representing empty regions corresponding to alveoli.

750 GridQuant - solid pattern boundary analysis

751 Regions annotated to the solid pattern were partitioned into three internal sub-regions according 752 to their distance from the boundary delimitating the solid-annotated region and other patterns, including the normal lung (boundaries between the solid-annotated region and uncertain 753 754 transitioning patterns or the external cut delimiting the end of the slide were removed). The first 755 sub-region was constituted by the pixels displaced at a distance between 0 and 0.5 mm, the second 756 at a distance between 0.5 and 1 mm and the third was composed of all the remaining internal pixels (core). Moreover, an external region with pixels at a distance between 0 and 0.5 mm outside 757 758 the boundary was also considered (Fig. 4j). The mean and distribution of densities of each cell type 759 was then computed across all pixels falling within each of these 4 regions.

760 In-situ detection and quantification of Tertiary Lymphoid Structures (TLS-finder)

761 Tertiary Lymphoid Structures (TLSs) were modeled as clusters of B cells detected with 762 immunofluorescence staining. An automatic detection pipeline (named TLS-finder) was developed

763 to quantify their presence across histologic patterns. TLS-finder involved the following steps: (1) 764 GridQuant framework was used to generate high resolution (pixel size = $20 \ \mu m$) matrices of B cell 765 counts; (2) each matrix was imported in Fiji (108) image analysis software as text image; (3) B cell 766 count matrices were binarized using Fiji 'Convert to mask' function; (4) TLSs were modeled as 767 connected components of the binarized B cell matrices, which were detected and labelled using Fiji 768 plugin 'Find connected regions', with a minimum number of pixels to call a connected component set to 25 (corresponding to a minimum TLS size of $10000 \ \mu m^2$); (5) Labelled TLSs were then 769 770 processed with R scripts for downstream statistical analyses. The density of TLSs across patterns 771 was computed as the number of distinct TLSs divided by the area of each pattern-annotated region 772 (Fig. 4g).

773 Digital Spatial Profiling

774 Two runs of highly-multiplexed and spatially-resolved proteomic profiling of tumor and immune 775 cells were performed with the GeoMx Digital Spatial Profiler (NanoString) as previously described 776 (52) on 5 (batch1) and 3 (batch2) FFPE tissue sections. In batch1, immunofluorescence assays were 777 performed using antibodies against CD3, CD20, CD45 and DAPI, and the multicolor images were 778 used to guide the selection of 12 regions of interest (ROIs) for each slide; for each ROI, digital 779 counts from barcodes corresponding to protein probes (52 immune and tumor-related proteins, 780 Supplementary Table 9) were obtained using nCounter (NanoString). In each ROI, automated cell 781 detection was performed on the immunofluorescence images to count nucleated cells (DAPI-782 positive) and, among them, CD45-positive cells; Immune ratio was computed as the ratio between 783 the number of CD45-positive cells and DAPI-positive cells. In batch2, Pan-cytokeratin (PanCK), CD45, CD3 and DAPI antibodies were used; from each ROI, two areas of interest (AOIs) were 784 785 extracted with image segmentation, one containing pixels positive for PanCK (tumor compartment)

786 and one for CD45 (immune compartment); digital counts were then obtained for each AOI 787 separately (73 immune and tumor-related proteins, Supplementary Table 9); in PanCK-positive and 788 CD45-positive AOIs only tumor-related and immune-related proteins, respectively, were tested in 789 downstream analyses. Levels of 3 housekeeping proteins (GAPDH, histone H3, S6) and 3 negative 790 controls (Ms IgG1, Ms IgG2a, Rb IgG) were also measured. Digital counts for each protein were 791 normalized with internal spike-in controls (ERCC) and signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), i.e. the ratio 792 between the ERCC-normalized counts of the protein and the geometric mean of the negative 793 controls assayed in the ROI/AOI considered. In all downstream analyses, only proteins having 794 SNR>2 in at least 3 ROIs/AOIs were tested. ROIs/AOIs were annotated according to their histologic 795 pattern and location with respect to the pattern boundary (center/core or periphery) using 796 adjacent H&E-stained tissue sections. Some ROIs were taken also from Tertiary Lymphoid 797 Structures (TLS) but were not used for the analyses presented in this study. Differences between 798 locations in solid pattern regions were tested with T-test (batch1, one solid pattern region and 6 799 ROIs) and with two-way ANOVA controlling for sample and testing separately AOIs from immune 800 and tumor compartments (batch2, three samples with one solid pattern region in each of them, 26 801 total AOIs for each tissue compartment).

802 Data and code availability

803 All datasets analyzed and the corresponding accession numbers are reported in Supplementary 804 Table 1. Data generated in this study has been deposited in two Zenodo repositories, one 805 containing raw images for H&E, TTF1 and immunofluorescence staining and Digital Spatial Profiling data (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.3941450) and one containing processed molecular data (somatic 806 807 mutations, gene expression tables and DNA methylation beta values, DOI: 808 10.5281/zenodo.4443496). Source code for GridQuant and TLS-finder pipelines is available in two

809	public	GitHub	repositories	(https://github.com/CSOgroup/GridQuant	and
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810 <u>https://github.com/CSOgroup/TLS-finder)</u>.

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- 818

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1106 Figure Legends

1107 Figure 1: Inter-patient heterogeneity among LUAD histologic patterns

- a) H&E staining of lung adenocarcinoma histologic patterns (from left to right): lepidic, papillary,
- acinar, and solid.

1110 b) Total number of somatic coding mutations (Y-axis) in TCGA samples (colored points) stratified by

1111 histologic pattern classification (X-axis). The outlier lepidic-annotated TCGA sample is highlighted by

1112 its patient ID. P-values are computed by Wilcoxon two-tailed test.

c) Representative H&E images of two tumor tissue slides for the TCGA-44-7670 sample: an image taken from slide corresponding to the tumor sample used for histopathology review (left) and an image corresponding to the tumor sample used for molecular analyses (right). Complete images can be accessed at: https://cancer.digitalslidearchive.org/.

d-e) Number of (d) significantly differentially expressed genes and (e) significantly differentially
methylated probes identified based on different FDR thresholds (X-axis) by comparing patients
grouped by the real prevalent histologic pattern (black) or after randomizing the histologic pattern
labels (gray). Error bars correspond to one standard deviation upon 100 label permutations.

f) mRNA expression of two top differentially expressed genes (Y-axis) in TCGA samples stratified by prevalent pattern (X-axis). Colored dots on the right indicate the median expression value of each group and arrows represent the direction of the fold-change (FC): upward (downward) arrows indicate that the more aggressive pattern have lower (higher) median expression than the less aggressive pattern. Pairwise FCs always compare the more aggressive to the less aggressive pattern, hence upward arrows correspond to negative FCs and downward arrows to positive FCs.

- **g)** Pie chart distributions of the sign of pairwise FCs computed for all differentially expressed genes
- 1128 (top) and differentially methylated probes (bottom).
- 1129 h) Significantly enriched gene sets among genes over-expressed in lepidic-prevalent samples (blue
- 1130 bars) and in solid-prevalent samples (red and yellow bars).
- i) Significantly enriched gene sets among promoter probes with lower DNA methylation in lepidic-
- 1132 prevalent samples than solid-prevalent samples (blue bars) or with lower DNA methylation in solid-
- 1133 prevalent samples than in lepidic-prevalent samples (yellow bars).
- 1134 j) Mean mRNA expression scores for multiple cell types (rows) within each pattern subtype
- 1135 (columns). Values are normalized by rows (Z-scores) to show relative differences among patterns.

1136

1138 Figure 2: Intra-tumor heterogeneity among LUAD histologic patterns

a) Schematic representation of histopathology-guided multi-region sampling: FFPE slides were
 reviewed for pattern identification, tumor regions corresponding to a unique pattern were
 dissected and molecularly profiled (left). We have collected 29 tumor regions (+10 adjacent normal
 tissue) from 10 primary lung adenocarcinoma samples (right).

b) Occurrence of recurrent LUAD genetic mutations in molecularly profiled regions. Regions from
the same patient are grouped together; patients are numbered (top) and histologic patterns are
color coded (annotation bar).

1146 c) Heatmap representation of differentially expressed genes among LUAD histologic patterns (rows,

adjusted p-value < 0.001). Samples (columns) are identified by patient number followed by a letter
 corresponding to individual tumor regions. Histologic patterns are color coded. Cellular processes
 associated to significantly enriched gene sets are annotated on the right.

d) mRNA expression differences among histologic patterns for a selected panel of extra-cellular matrix components and/or regulators (over-expressed in solid regions at the top, over-expressed in lepidic regions at the bottom). Expression values within each patient were normalized to the mean of the corresponding lepidic regions. Samples corresponding to same patient are connected by a dashed line and color coded based on concordance between intra-tumor differences and pattern progression.

1156 e) Immune score predicted within each tumor region for each patient.

1158 Figure 3: Tumor intrinsic features of LUAD histologic patterns

- a) Schematic representation of single cell RNA-seq analysis of 3 tumor samples from 3 patients. For
 each sample, differential expression analysis between tumor (red) and non-tumor (gray) cells led to
 identify 2,410 genes preferentially expressed in cancer cells.
- 1162 **b)** Volcano plot showing mRNA expression fold-changes of cancer-specific genes between lepidic
- 1163 and solid tumor regions (log2 Y-axis) and corresponding p-values (-log10 X-axis). Significant
- 1164 genes are color coded (red: over-expressed in solid regions; blue: over-expressed in lepidic regions)
- 1165 c) Significantly enriched gene sets among genes over-expressed in lepidic regions (blue bars) and in
- 1166 solid regions (red bars).
- **d)** Scatterplot of single tumor cells from 3 patients scored by lepidic-like single cell signature (Y-axis)
- and solid-like single cell signature (X-axis). Single cells are color coded by combined signature scores
- 1169 (main scatterplot) and separately shown for each patient sample (top right insets).
- 1170 e) Transcriptional regulator (TR) activity scores obtained with the VIPER algorithm upon comparing
- 1171 lepidic and solid annotated regions in the CHUV (X-axis) and TCGA (Y-axis) cohorts. Significant TRs
- 1172 are color coded (red: solid associated, blue: lepidic associated) and the top scoring are labeled.
- f) Gene dependency scores obtained from the AVANA CRISPR screening dataset. Negative (positive)
 values indicate fitness decrease (increase) upon gene knock-out. Values for lepidic (blue) and solid
 (red) transcriptional regulators (TR) are the mean obtained upon gene KO in lung adenocarcinoma
 cell lines.
- g) Overall survival difference (Kaplan-Meier curve) between TCGA samples within the top (red) and
 bottom (blue) quartiles of L2S scores. P-value was computed by log-rank test.

- 1179 h) Hazard ratios associated with increasing values of the L2S signature score (10% increase) in 7
- 1180 independent LUAD datasets comprising >100 patients each (# column). P-values were computed by
- 1181 multi-variate Cox regression. The size of the dots is proportional to the number of sample. 95%
- 1182 confidence intervals are reported as horizontal lines.
- i) Correlation values between gene-set mRNA expression scores for multiple cell types and L2S
- 1184 scores in 10 independent datasets.
- 1185

1187 Figure 4: Spatial immune profiles of LUAD histologic patterns

- a-b) H&E (a) and TTF1 (b) staining of LUAD tissue sample (Patient 1). Lepidic (blue) and acinar
 (orange) patterns are contoured.
- **c)** Multi-color immunofluorescence staining for a LUAD tissue sample (Patient 1). Images show separately fluorescence staining for Ki-67 (top left), CD8 (top right), CD20 (bottom left), and CD4
- 1192 (bottom right).
- d) Schematic representation of GridQuant: each image is binned into a grid with bins/pixels of
- variable sizes. In this study we tested pixel sizes varying from 10 to 500 mm (left). Fluorescence
- intensity is then averaged for each bin. An example for CD8 fluorescence is shown (right).
- **e)** Boxplot distribution of cell densities (number of cells per mm^2 , N/mm²) for cells that were positive for each of the tested antibodies (X-axis). For each antibody, cell density values are computed for each pixel and values obtained for pixel from regions with a different histologic pattern are compared. Pixel size = 200 μ m.
- 1200 **f)** Multicolor IF staining of tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS).
- g) Quantification of TLS density across different regions corresponding to a unique histologicpattern (colored points).
- 1203 h) Correlation between the number of TTF1+ and TTF1- cells within each pixel of a given region
- 1204 corresponding to a unique histologic pattern (colored points). Pixel size = 200 μ m.
- i) H&E (left) and multicolor IF (center) staining of LUAD tissue sample (Patient 8) and zoom-in of the
- 1206 IF staining of the solid pattern (right). Histologic patterns are contoured and color coded.

1207	j) Schematic representation of spatial quantification based on distance from the tumor boundary
1208	(red line). Contoured regions define discrete subsets of pixels within a certain interval of distances
1209	from the tumor boundary.
1210	k) Spatial quantification based on distance from the tumor boundary for the solid region of Patient
1211	8 (8B). Signal intensities were averaged among pixels within a certain interval of distances from the
1212	tumor boundary (gray line) and at the tumor core, defined as >1mm inside the boundary. Pixel size
1213	= 100 μm.
1214	I) Spatial quantification based on distance from the tumor boundary for all solid regions. Pixel size =
1215	100 μm.

- 1216
- 1217

1218 Figure 5: Digital spatial profiling (DSP) of LUAD histologic patterns

a) Immuno-score of all tumor regions of interest (ROIs) for 5 patients defined as fraction of CD45
positive cells by immunofluorescence analysis (top barplot, bars are color coded based on the
pattern of the corresponding region). ROIs are annotated by tumor core or periphery localization
(black and white circles, respectively) and by DSP protein expression of the top correlated protein
with CD45+ immuno-score (bottom heatmap). DSP values are normalized by signal-to-noise ratio
(SNR) and by z-score for each patient.

b) Top: H&E staining of LUAD tissue sample (Patient 8). Bottom: Schematic diagram of Patient 8
 normal tissue regions and tumor histologic patterns (color coded) and selected tumor regions of
 interest analyzed by DSP.

c) Differentially expressed proteins between ROIs at the core of the solid region (R8, R9) and at the
 periphery of the solid region (R6, R7, R10, R12). Values are normalized by SNR and by z-score for
 each patient.

d) Schematic representation of DSP analysis with ROI masks: ROIs at the core or periphery of the
tumor (left) were first analyzed by IF for PanCK (green), CD3 (light blue), DNA (dark blue), and CD45
(red); next, CD45 and PanCK fluorescence was used to build two masks (white: selected, black:
unselected) to selectively analyze either PanCK+ cells or CD45+ cells.

e-f) Differentially expressed proteins between core (black circles) and periphery (white circle) ROIs
 exclusively comprising (e) PanCK+ cells or (f) CD45+ cells from solid tumor region of 3 patients
 (patient of origin is annotated on the left). Values are normalized by SNR and by z-score for each
 patient.

- 1241 Schematic representation of cancer cell (top) and microenvironment (bottom) evolution in the
- 1242 progression from lepidic to papillary, acinar, and at last solid patterns.















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