1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	Evaluating the transcriptional fidelity of cancer models
8	Evaluating the transcriptional nacity of balloof models
9	
10	Da Peng ^{1*} , Rachel Gleyzer ^{2*} , Wen-Hsin Tai ² , Pavithra Kumar ² , Qin Bian ² , Bradley Issacs ² ,
11	Edroaldo Lummertz da Rocha ³ , Stephanie Cai ¹ , Kathleen DiNapoli ^{4,5} , Franklin W Huang ⁶ ,
12	Patrick Cahan ^{1,2,7}
13	
14	¹ Department of Biomedical Engineering, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
15	Baltimore MD 21205 USA
16	
17	² Institute for Cell Engineering, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
18	Baltimore MD 21205 USA
19	
20	^a Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Parasitology,
21	Federal University of Santa Catarina, Florianopolis SC, Brazil
22	4 Demontree at a 6 Call Diele must lake a University Cake at a 6 Madiaina
23	Department of Cell Biology, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
24	Dailinore, MD 21205 USA
20	⁵ Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering Johns Henkins University
20	Baltimore MD 21218 LISA
28	
29	⁶ Division of Hematology/Oncology, Department of Medicine: Helen Diller Family Cancer Center:
30	Bakar Computational Health Sciences Institute: Institute for Human Genetics:
31	University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA
32	
33	⁷ Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
34	Baltimore MD 21205 USA
35	
36	
37	* These authors made equal contributions.
38	
39	
40	Correspondence to: patrick.cahan@jhmi.edu
41	
42	Article type: Research
43	Mahaita http://www.achaplah.arg/recourses/corses/CollNat.wah
44 45	website. <u>http://www.cananiab.org/resources/cancerCellNet_web</u>
40 46	Code: https://github.com/pcabap1/capcerCellNet
47	oodo. <u>mtps://github.com/podnarr/canceroenret</u>
48	
49	
50	

51 ABSTRACT

52

53 Background: Cancer researchers use cell lines, patient derived xenografts, engineered mice,

54 and tumoroids as models to investigate tumor biology and to identify therapies. The

55 generalizability and power of a model derives from the fidelity with which it represents the tumor

56 type under investigation, however, the extent to which this is true is often unclear. The

57 preponderance of models and the ability to readily generate new ones has created a demand

58 for tools that can measure the extent and ways in which cancer models resemble or diverge

59 from native tumors.

60

61 **Methods:** We developed a machine learning based computational tool, CancerCellNet, that

62 measures the similarity of cancer models to 22 naturally occurring tumor types and 36 subtypes,

63 in a platform and species agnostic manner. We applied this tool to 657 cancer cell lines, 415

64 patient derived xenografts, 26 distinct genetically engineered mouse models, and 131

tumoroids. We validated CancerCellNet by application to independent data, and we tested

- 66 several predictions with immunofluorescence.
- 67

68 **Results:** We have documented the cancer models with the greatest transcriptional fidelity to 69 natural tumors, we have identified cancers underserved by adequate models, and we have 70 found models with annotations that do not match their classification. By comparing models 71 across modalities, we report that, on average, genetically engineered mice and tumoroids have 72 higher transcriptional fidelity than patient derived xenografts and cell lines in four out of five 73 tumor types. However, several patient derived xenografts and tumoroids have classification 74 scores that are on par with native tumors, highlighting both their potential as faithful model 75 classes and their heterogeneity.

76

Conclusions: CancerCellNet enables the rapid assessment of transcriptional fidelity of tumor models. We have made CancerCellNet available as freely downloadable software and as a web application that can be applied to new cancer models that allows for direct comparison to the cancer models evaluated here.

- 81
- 82
- 83

84

86 INTRODUCTION

Models are widely used to investigate cancer biology and to identify potential therapeutics. 87 88 Popular modeling modalities are cancer cell lines (CCLs)¹, genetically engineered mouse models (GEMMs)², patient derived xenografts (PDXs)³, and tumoroids⁴. These classes of 89 90 models differ in the types of questions that they are designed to address. CCLs are often used to address cell intrinsic mechanistic questions⁵, GEMMs to chart progression of molecularly 91 defined-disease⁶, and PDXs to explore patient-specific response to therapy in a physiologically 92 93 relevant context⁷. More recently, tumoroids have emerged as relatively inexpensive, physiological, in vitro 3D models of tumor epithelium with applications ranging from measuring 94 drug responsiveness to exploring tumor dependence on cancer stem cells. Models also differ in 95 the extent to which the they represent specific aspects of a cancer type⁸. Even with this intra-96 and inter-class model variation, all models should represent the tumor type or subtype under 97 98 investigation, and not another type of tumor, and not a non-cancerous tissue. Therefore, cancer-99 models should be selected not only based on the specific biological question but also based on the similarity of the model to the cancer type under investigation 9,10 . 100

Various methods have been proposed to determine the similarity of cancer models to 101 their intended subjects. Domcke et al devised a 'suitability score' as a metric of the molecular 102 103 similarity of CCLs to high grade serous ovarian carcinoma based on a heuristic weighting of 104 copy number alterations, mutation status of several genes that distinguish ovarian cancer subtypes, and hypermutation status¹¹. Other studies have taken analogous approaches by 105 either focusing on transcriptomic or ensemble molecular profiles (e.g. transcriptomic and copy 106 number alterations) to quantify the similarity of cell lines to tumors^{12–14}. These studies were 107 108 tumor-type specific, focusing on CCLs that model, for example, hepatocellular carcinoma or breast cancer. Notably, Yu et al compared the transcriptomes of CCLs to The Cancer Genome 109 Atlas (TCGA) by correlation analysis, resulting in a panel of CCLs recommended as most 110 representative of 22 tumor types¹⁵. Most recently, Najgebauer et al¹⁶ and Salvadores et al¹⁷ 111

112 have developed methods to assess CCLs using molecular traits such as copy number alterations (CNA), somatic mutations, DNA methylation and transcriptomics. While all of these 113 studies have provided valuable information, they leave two major challenges unmet. The first 114 challenge is to determine the fidelity of GEMMs, PDXs, and tumoroids, and whether there are 115 116 stark differences between these classes of models and CCLs. The other major unmet challenge is to enable the rapid assessment of new, emerging cancer models. This challenge is especially 117 relevant now as technical barriers to generating models have been substantially lowered^{18,19}, 118 and because new models such as PDXs and tumoroids can be derived on patient-specific basis 119 therefore should be considered a distinct entity requiring individual validation^{4,20}. 120 121 To address these challenges, we developed CancerCellNet (CCN), a computational tool 122 that uses transcriptomic data to quantitatively assess the similarity between cancer models and 123 22 naturally occurring tumor types and 36 subtypes in a platform- and species-agnostic manner. 124 Here, we describe CCN's performance, and the results of applying it to assess 657 CCLs, 415 125 PDXs, 26 GEMMs, and 131 tumoroids. This has allowed us to identify the most faithful models currently available, to document cancers underserved by adequate models, and to find models 126 with inaccurate tumor type annotation. Moreover, because CCN is open-source and easy to 127 128 use, it can be readily applied to newly generated cancer models as a means to assess their fidelity. 129

130

131 **RESULTS**

132 CancerCellNet classifies samples accurately across species and technologies

Previously, we had developed a computational tool using the Random Forest classification method to measure the similarity of engineered cell populations to their *in vivo* counterparts based on transcriptional profiles^{21,22}. More recently, we elaborated on this approach to allow for classification of single cell RNA-seq data in a manner that allows for cross-platform and cross-species analysis²³. Here, we used an analogous approach to build a

138 platform that would allow us to quantitatively compare cancer models to naturally occurring 139 patient tumors (Fig 1A). In brief, we used TCGA RNA-seq expression data from 22 solid tumor types to train a top-pair multi-class Random forest classifier (Fig 1B). We combined training 140 141 data from Rectal Adenocarcinoma (READ) and Colon Adenocarcinoma (COAD) into one 142 COAD READ category because READ and COAD are considered to be virtually indistinguishable at a molecular level²⁴. We included an 'Unknown' category trained using 143 randomly shuffled gene-pair profiles generated from the training data of 22 tumor types to 144 identify guery samples that are not reflective of any of the training data. To estimate the 145 146 performance of CCN and how it is impacted by parameter variation, we performed a parameter sweep with a 5-fold 2/3 cross-validation strategy (i.e. 2/3 of the data sampled across each 147 cancer type was used to train, 1/3 was used to validate) (Fig 1C). The performance of CCN, as 148 149 measured by the mean area under the precision recall curve (AUPRC), did not fall below 0.945 150 and remained relatively stable across parameter sets (Supp Fig 1A). The optimal parameters resulted in 1,979 features. The mean AUPRCs exceeded 0.95 in most tumor types with this 151 optimal parameter set (Fig 1D, Supp Fig 1B). The AUPRCs of CCN applied to independent 152 153 data RNA-Seg data from 725 tumors across five tumor types from the International Cancer Genome Consortium (ICGC)²⁵ ranged from 0.93 to 0.99, supporting the notion that the platform 154 is able to accurately classify tumor samples from diverse sources (Fig 1E). 155

As one of the central aims of our study is to compare distinct cancer models, including GEMMs, our method needed to be able to classify samples from mouse and human samples equivalently. We used the Top-Pair transform²³ to achieve this and we tested the feasibility of this approach by assessing the performance of a normal (i.e. non-tumor) cell and tissue classifier trained on human data as applied to mouse samples. Consistent with prior applications²³, we found that the cross-species classifier performed well, achieving mean AUPRC of 0.97 when applied to mouse data (**Supp Fig 1C**).

163	To evaluate cancer models at a finer resolution, we also developed an approach to
164	perform tumor subtype classifications (Supp Fig 1D). We constructed 11 different cancer
165	subtype classifiers based on the availability of expression or histological subtype
166	information ^{24,26–36} . We also included non-cancerous, normal tissues as categories for several
167	subtype classifiers when sufficient data was available: breast invasive carcinoma (BRCA),
168	COAD_READ, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSC), kidney renal clear cell
169	carcinoma (KIRC) and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma (UCEC). The 11 subtype
170	classifiers all achieved high overall average AUPRs ranging from 0.80 to 0.99 (Supp Fig 1E)
474	

171

172 Fidelity of cancer cell lines

173 Having validated the performance of CCN, we then used it to determine the fidelity of 174 CCLs. We mined RNA-seq expression data of 657 different cell lines across 20 cancer types 175 from the Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE) and applied CCN to them, finding a wide classification range for cell lines of each tumor type (Fig 2A, Supp Tab 1). To verify the 176 177 classification results, we applied CCN to expression profiles from CCLE generated through 178 microarray expression profiling³⁷. To ensure that CCN would function on microarray data, we 179 first tested it by applying a CCN classifier created to test microarray data to 720 expression 180 profiles of 12 tumor types. The cross-platform CCN classifier performed well, based on the 181 comparison to study-provided annotation, achieving a mean AUPRC of 0.91 (Supp Fig 2A). 182 Next, we applied this cross-platform classifier to microarray expression profiles from CCLE 183 (Supp Fig 2B). From the classification results of 571 cell lines that have both RNA-seq and 184 microarray expression profiles, we found a strong overall positive association between the classification scores from RNA-seq and those from microarray (Supp Fig 2C). This comparison 185 186 supports the notion that the classification scores for each cell line are not artifacts of profiling 187 methodology. Moreover, this comparison shows that the scores are consistent between the 188 times that the cell lines were first assayed by microarray expression profiling in 2012 and by

189 RNA-Seg in 2019. We also observed high level of correlation between our analysis and the analysis done by Yu et al¹⁵(Supp Fig 2D), further validating the robustness of the CCN results. 190 Next, we assessed the extent to which CCN classifications agreed with their nominal 191 192 tumor type of origin, which entailed translating quantitative CCN scores to classification labels. 193 To achieve this, we selected a decision threshold that maximized the Macro F1 measure, 194 harmonic mean of precision and recall, across 50 cross validations. Then, we annotated cell lines based their CCN score profile as follows. Cell lines with CCN scores > threshold for the 195 196 tumor type of origin were annotated as 'correct'. Cell lines with CCN scores > threshold in the 197 tumor type of origin and at least one other tumor type were annotated as 'mixed'. Cell lines with 198 CCN scores > threshold for tumor types other than that of the cell line's origin were annotated 199 as 'other'. Cell lines that did not receive a CCN score > threshold for any tumor type were 200 annotated as 'none' (Fig 2B). We found that majority of cell lines originally annotated as Breast 201 invasive carcinoma (BRCA), Cervical squamous cell carcinoma and endocervical 202 adenocarcinoma (CESC), Skin Cutaneous Melanoma (SKCM), Colorectal Cancer (COAD READ) and Sarcoma (SARC) fell into the 'correct' category (Fig 2B). On the other 203 204 hand, no Esophageal carcinoma (ESCA), Pancreatic adenocarcinoma (PAAD) or Brain Lower 205 Grade Glioma (LGG) were classified as 'correct', demonstrating the need for more 206 transcriptionally faithful cell lines that model those general cancer types. 207 There are several possible explanations for cell lines not receiving a 'correct' 208 classification. One possibility is that the sample was incorrectly labeled in the study from which 209 we harvested the expression data. Consistent with this explanation, we found that colorectal cancer line NCI-H684^{38,39}, a cell line labelled as liver hepatocellular carcinoma (LIHC) by CCLE, 210 211 was classified strongly as COAD READ (Supp Tab 1). Another possibility to explain low CCN 212 score is that cell lines were derived from subtypes of tumors that are not well-represented in 213 TCGA. To explore this hypothesis, we first performed tumor subtype classification on CCLs from

11 tumor types for which we had trained subtype classifiers (**Supp Tab 2**). We reasoned that if

a cell was a good model for a rarer subtype, then it would receive a poor general classification
but a high classification for the subtype that it models well. Therefore, we counted the number of
lines that fit this pattern. We found that of the 188 lines with no general classification, 25 (13%)
were classified as a specific subtype, suggesting that derivation from rare subtypes is not the
major contributor to the poor overall fidelity of CCLs.

Another potential contributor to low scoring cell lines is intra-tumor stromal and immune cell impurity in the training data. If impurity were a confounder of CCN scoring, then we would expect a strong positive correlation between mean purity and mean CCN classification scores of CCLs per general tumor type. However, the Pearson correlation coefficient between the mean purity of general tumor type and mean CCN classification scores of CCLs in the corresponding general tumor type was low (0.14), suggesting that tumor purity is not a major contributor to the low CCN scores across CCLs (**Supp Fig 2E**).

227

228 Comparison of SKCM and GBM CCLs to scRNA-seq

To more directly assess the impact of intra-tumor heterogeneity in the training data on 229 evaluating cell lines, we constructed a classifier using cell types found in human melanoma and 230 glioblastoma scRNA-seq data^{40,41}. Previously, we have demonstrated the feasibility of using our 231 classification approach on scRNA-seg data²³. Our scRNA-seg classifier achieved a high 232 233 average AUPRC (0.95) when applied to held-out data and high mean AUPRC (0.99) when 234 applied to few purified bulk testing samples (Supp Fig 3A-B). Comparing the CCN score from 235 bulk RNA-seq general classifier and scRNA-seq classifier, we observed a high level of correlation (Pearson correlation of 0.89) between the SKCM CCN classification scores and 236 scRNA-seq SKCM malignant CCN classification scores for SKCM cell lines (Fig 2C, Supp Fig 237 238 **3C**). Of the 41 SKCM cell lines that were classified as SKCM by the bulk classifier, 37 were also 239 classified as SKCM malignant cells by the scRNA-seq classifier. Interestingly, we also observed 240 a high correlation between the SARC CCN classification score and scRNA-seq cancer

241 associated fibroblast (CAF) CCN classification scores (Pearson correlation of 0.92). Six of the 242 seven SKCM cell lines that had been classified as exclusively SARC by CCN were classified as CAF by the scRNA-seq classifier (Fig 2D, Supp Fig 3C), which suggests the possibility that 243 244 these cell lines were derived from CAF or other mesenchymal populations, or that they have 245 acquired a mesenchymal character through their derivation. The high level of agreement between scRNA-seg and bulk RNA-seg classification results shows that heterogeneity in the 246 training data of general CCN classifier has little impact in the classification of SKCM cell lines. 247 248 In contrast, we observed a weaker correlation between GBM CCN classification scores 249 and scRNA-seq GBM neoplastic CCN classification scores (Pearson correlation of 0.72) for 250 GBM cell lines (Fig 2E, Supp Fig 3D). Of the 31 GBM lines that were not classified as GBM 251 with CCN, 25 were classified as GBM neoplastic cells with the scRNA-seg classifier. Among the 252 22 GBM lines that were classified as SARC with CCN, 15 cell lines were classified as CAF (Fig 253 **2F**), 10 which were classified as both GBM neoplastic and CAF in the scRNA-seq classifier. Similar to the situation with SKCM lines that classify as CAF, this result is consistent with the 254 possibility that some GBM lines classified as SARC by CCN could be derived from 255 mesenchymal subtypes exhibiting both strong mesenchymal signatures and glioblastoma 256 257 signatures or that they have acquired a mesenchymal character through their derivation. The lower level of agreement between scRNA-seg and bulk RNA-seg classification results for GBM 258 models suggests that the heterogeneity of glioblastomas⁴² can impact the classification of GBM 259 260 cell lines, and that the use of scRNA-seq classifier can resolve this deficiency.

261

262 Immunofluorescence confirmation of CCN predictions

To experimentally explore some of our computational analyses, we performed immunofluorescence on three cell lines that were not classified as their labelled categories: the ovarian cancer line SK-OV-3 had a high UCEC CCN score (0.246), the ovarian cancer line A2780 had a high Testicular Germ Cell Tumors (TGCT) CCN score (0.327), and the prostate

267 cancer line PC-3 had a high bladder cancer (BLCA) score (0.307) (Supp Tab 1). We reasoned that if SK-OV-3, A2780 and PC-3 were classified most strongly as UCEC, TGCT and BLCA, 268 respectively, then they would express proteins that are indicative of these cancer types. 269 270 First, we measured the expression of the uterine-associated transcription factor HOXB6^{43,44}, and the UCEC serous ovarian tumor biomarker WT1⁴⁵ in SK-OV-3, in the OV cell 271 line Caov-4, and in the UCEC cell line HEC-59. We chose Caov-4 as our positive control for OV 272 biomarker expression because it was determined by our analysis and others^{11,15} to be a good 273 model of OV. Likewise, we chose HEC-59 to be a positive control for UCEC. We found that SK-274 275 OV-3 has a small percentage (5%) of cells that expressed the uterine marker HOXB6 and a large proportion (73%) of cells that expressed WT1 (Fig 3A). In contrast, no Caov-4 cells 276 expressed HOXB6, whereas 85% of cells expressed WT1. This suggests that SK-OV-3 exhibits 277 278 both biomarkers of ovarian tumor and uterine tissue. From our computational analysis and 279 experimental validation, SK-OV-3 is most likely an endometrioid subtype of ovarian cancer. This result is also consistent with prior classification of SK-OV-3⁴⁶, and the fact that SK-OV-3 lacks 280 p53 mutations, which is prevalent in high-grade serous ovarian cancer⁴⁷, and it harbors an 281 endometrioid-associated mutation in ARID1A^{11,46,48}. Next, we measured the expression of 282 markers of OV and germ cell cancers (LIN28A⁴⁹) in the OV-annotated cell line A2780, which 283 received a high TCGT CCN score. We found that 54% of A2780 cells expressed LIN28A 284 285 whereas it was not detected in Caov-4 (Fig 3B). The OV marker WT1 was also expressed in fewer A2780 cells as compared to Caov-4 (48% vs 85%), which suggests that A2780 could be a 286 287 germ cell derived ovarian tumor. Taken together, our results suggest that SK-OV-3 and A2780 could represent OV subtypes of that are not well represented in TCGA training data, which 288 resulted in a low OV score and higher CCN score in other categories. 289 290 Lastly, we examined PC-3, annotated as a PRAD cell line but classified to be most 291 similar to BLCA. We found that 30% of the PC-3 cells expressed PPARG, a contributor to

urothelial differentiation⁵⁰ that is not detected in the PRAD Vcap cell line but is highly expressed

in the BLCA RT4 cell line (Fig 3C). PC-3 cells also expressed the PRAD biomarker FOLH1⁵¹
suggesting that PC-3 has an PRAD origin and gained urothelial or luminal characteristics
through the derivation process. In short, our limited experimental data support the CCN
classification results.

297

298 Subtype classification of cancer cell lines

Next, we explored the subtype classification of CCLs from three general tumor types in 299 more depth. We focused our subtype visualization (Fig 4A-C) on CCL models with general CCN 300 301 score above 0.1 in their nominal cancer type as this allowed us to analyze those models that fell below the general threshold but were classified as a specific sub-type (Supp Tab 1-2). 302 Focusing first on UCEC, the histologically defined subtypes of UCEC, endometrioid and serous, 303 304 differ in prevalence, molecular properties, prognosis, and treatment. For instance, the endometrioid subtype, which accounts for approximately 80% of uterine cancers, retains 305 306 estrogen receptor and progesterone receptor status and is responsive towards progestin therapy^{52,53}. Serous, a more aggressive subtype, is characterized by the loss of estrogen and 307 308 progesterone receptor and is not responsive to progestin therapy^{52,53}. CCN classified the 309 majority of the UCEC cell lines as serous except for JHUEM-1 which is classified as mixed, with 310 similarities to both endometrioid and serous (Fig 4A). The preponderance CCLE lines of serous 311 versus endometroid character may be due to properties of serous cancer cells that promote their *in vitro* propagation, such as upregulation of cell adhesion transcriptional programs⁵⁴. 312 313 Some of our subtype classification results are consistent with prior observations. For example, HEC-1A, HEC-1B, and KLE were previously characterized as type II endometrial cancer, which 314 includes a serous histological subtype⁵⁵. On the other hand, our subtype classification results 315 316 contradict prior observations in at least one case. For instance, the Ishikawa cell line was derived from type I endometrial cancer (endometrioid histological subtype)^{55,56}, however CCN 317 classified a derivative of this line, Ishikawa 02 ER-, as serous. The high serous CCN score 318

319 could result from a shift in phenotype of the line concomitant with its loss of estrogen receptor (ER) as this is a distinguishing feature of type II endometrial cancer (serous histological 320 subtype)⁵². Taken together, these results indicate a need for more endometroid-like CCLs. 321 322 Next, we examined the subtype classification of Lung Squamous Cell Carcinoma 323 (LUSC) and Lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) cell lines (Fig 4B-C). All the LUSC lines with at least 324 one subtype classification had an underlying primitive subtype classification. This is consistent either with the ease of deriving lines from tumors with a primitive character, or with a process by 325 326 which cell line derivation promotes similarity to more primitive subtype, which is marked by increased cellular proliferation²⁸. Some of our results are consistent with prior reports that have 327 328 investigated the resemblance of some lines to LUSC subtypes. For example, HCC-95, previously been characterized as classical^{28,57}, had a maximum CCN score in the classical 329 330 subtype (0.429). Similarly, LUDLU-1 and EPLC-272H, previously reported as classical⁵⁷ and basal⁵⁷ respectively, had maximal tumor subtype CCN scores for these sub-types (0.323 and 331 0.256) (Fig 4B, Supp Tab 2) despite classified as Unknown. Lastly, the LUAD cell lines that 332 were classified as a subtype were either classified as proximal inflammation or proximal 333 proliferation (Fig 4C). RERF-LC-Ad1 had the highest general classification score and the 334 335 highest proximal inflammation subtype classification score. Taken together, these subtype classification results have revealed an absence of cell lines models for basal and secretory 336 337 LUSC, and for the Terminal respiratory unit (TRU) LUAD subtype.

338

339 Cancer cell lines' popularity and transcriptional fidelity

Finally, we sought to measure the extent to which cell line transcriptional fidelity related to model prevalence. We used the number of papers in which a model was mentioned, normalized by the number of years since the cell line was documented, as a rough approximation of model prevalence. To explore this relationship, we plotted the normalized citation count versus general classification score, labeling the highest cited and highest

345 classified cell lines from each general tumor type (Fig 4D). For most of the general tumor types, 346 the highest cited cell line is not the highest classified cell line except for Hep G2, AGS and ML-1, representing liver hepatocellular carcinoma (LIHC), stomach adenocarcinoma (STAD), and 347 348 thyroid carcinoma (THCA), respectively. On the other hand, the general scores of the highest 349 cited cell lines representing BLCA (T24), BRCA (MDA-MB-231), and PRAD (PC-3) fall below 350 the classification threshold of 0.25. Notably, each of these tumor types have other lines with scores exceeding 0.5, which should be considered as more faithful transcriptional models when 351 352 selecting lines for a study (Supp Tab 1 and

353 http://www.cahanlab.org/resources/cancerCellNet_results/).

354

355 Evaluation of patient derived xenografts

356 Next, we sought to evaluate a more recent class of cancer models: PDX. To do so, we 357 subjected the RNA-seq expression profiles of 415 PDX models from 13 different types of cancer types generated previously²⁰ to CCN. Similar to the results of CCLs, the PDXs exhibited a wide 358 range of classification scores (Fig 5A, Supp Tab 3). By categorizing the CCN scores of PDX 359 based on the proportion of samples associated with each tumor type that were correctly 360 361 classified, we found that SARC, SKCM, COAD READ and BRCA have higher proportion of correctly classified PDX than those of other cancer categories (Fig 5B). In contrast to CCLs, we 362 363 found a higher proportion of correctly classified PDX in STAD, PAAD and KIRC (Fig 5B). 364 However, similar to CCLs, no ESCA PDXs were classified as such. This held true when we 365 performed subtype classification on PDX samples: none of the PDX in ESCA were classified as any of the ESCA subtypes (Supp Tab 4). UCEC PDXs had both endometrioid subtypes, serous 366 subtypes, and mixed subtypes, which provided a broader representation than CCLs (Fig 5C). 367 368 Several LUSC PDXs that were classified as a subtype were also classified as Head and Neck 369 squamous cell carcinoma (HNSC) or mix HNSC and LUSC (Fig 5D). This could be due to the similarity in expression profiles of basal and classical subtypes of HNSC and LUSC^{28,58}, which is 370

371 consistent with the observation that these PDXs were also subtyped as classical. No LUSC
372 PDXs were classified as the secretory subtype. In contrast to LUAD CCLs, four of the five LUAD
373 PDXs with a discernible sub-type were classified as proximal inflammatory (**Fig 5E**). On the
374 other hand, similar to the CCLs, there were no TRU subtypes in the LUAD PDX cohort. In
375 summary, we found that while individual PDXs can reach extremely high transcriptional fidelity
376 to both general tumor types and subtypes, many PDXs were not classified as the general tumor
377 type from which they originated.

378

379 Evaluation of GEMMs

380 Next, we used CCN to evaluate GEMMs of six general tumor types from nine studies for which expression data was publicly available^{59–67}. As was true for CCLs and PDXs, GEMMs 381 382 also had a wide range of CCN scores (Fig 6A, Supp Tab 5). We next categorized the CCN 383 scores based on the proportion of samples associated with each tumor type that were correctly 384 classified (Fig 6B). In contrast to LGG CCLs, LGG GEMMs, generated by Nf1 mutations expressed in different neural progenitors in combination with Pten deletion⁶⁶, consistently were 385 classified as LGG (Fig 6A-B). The GEMM dataset included multiple replicates per model, which 386 387 allowed us to examine intra-GEMM variability. Both at the level of CCN score and at the level of categorization, GEMMs were invariant. For example, replicates of UCEC GEMMs driven by 388 Prg(cre/+)Pten(lox/lox) received almost identical general CCN scores (Fig 6C, Supp Tab 6). 389 390 GEMMs sharing genotypes across studies, such as LUAD GEMMs driven by Kras mutation and loss of p53^{59,65,67}, also received similar general and subtype classification scores (Fig 6A,B,E). 391 392 Next, we explored the extent to which genotype impacted subtype classification in 393 UCEC, LUSC, and LUAD. Prg(cre/+)Pten(lox/lox) GEMMs had a mixed subtype classification of 394 both serous and endometrioid, consistent with the fact that Pten loss occurs in both subtypes 395 (albeit more frequently in endometrioid). We also analyzed Prg(cre/+)Pten(lox/lox)Csf3r-/-396 GEMMs. Polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs), which play anti-tumor roles in endometrioid

397 cancer progression, are depleted in these animals. Interestingly, Prg(cre/+)Pten(lox/lox)Csf3r-/-398 GEMMs had a serous subtype classification, which could be explained by differences in PMN involvement in endometrioid versus serous uterine tumor development that are reflected in the 399 400 respective transcriptomes of the TCGA UCEC training data. We note that the tumor cells were 401 sorted prior to RNA-seq and thus the shift in subtype classification is not due to contamination of 402 GEMMs with non-tumor components. In short, this analysis supports the argument that tumorcell extrinsic factors, in this case a reduction in anti-tumor PMNs, can shift the transcriptome of 403 404 a GEMM so that it more closely resembles a serous rather than endometrioid subtype.

The LUSC GEMMs that we analyzed were Lkb1^{fl/fl} and they either overexpressed of 405 Sox2 (via two distinct mechanisms) or were also Pten^{fl/fl 65}. We note that the eight lenti-Sox2-406 Cre-infected;Lkb1^{fl/fl} and Rosa26LSL-Sox2-IRES-GFP;Lkb1^{fl/fl} samples that classified as 407 408 'Unknown' had LUSC CCN scores only modestly lower than the decision threshold (Fig 6D) 409 (mean CCN score = 0.217). Thirteen out of the 17 of the Sox2 GEMMs classified as the secretory subtype of LUSC. The consistency is not surprising given both models overexpress 410 Sox2 and lose Lkb1. On the other hand, the Lkb1^{fl/fl};Pten^{fl/fl} GEMMs had substantially lower 411 general LUSC CCN scores and our subtype classification indicated that this GEMM was mostly 412 413 classified as 'Unknown', in contrast to prior reports suggesting that it is most similar to a basal subtype⁶⁸. None of the three LUSC GEMMs have strong classical CCN scores. Most of the 414 415 LUAD GEMMs, which were generated using various combinations of activating Kras mutation, loss of Trp53, and loss of Smarca4L^{59,65,67}, were correctly classified (**Fig 6E**). Those that were 416 417 not classified have modestly lower CCN score than the decision threshold (mean CCN score = 418 0.214). There were no substantial differences in general or subtype classification across driver genotypes. Although the sub-type of all LUAD GEMMs was 'Unknown', the subtypes tended to 419 420 have a mixture of high CCN proximal proliferation, proximal inflammation and TRU scores. 421 Taken together, this analysis suggests that there is a degree of similarity, and perhaps plasticity 422 between the primitive and secretory (but not basal or classical) subtypes of LUSC. On the other

hand, while the LUAD GEMMs classify strongly as LUAD, they do not have strong particular
subtype classification -- a result that does not vary by genotype.

425

426 Evaluation of Tumoroids

Lastly, we used CCN to assess a relatively novel cancer model: tumoroids. We 427 downloaded and assessed 131 distinct tumoroid expression profiles spanning 13 cancer 428 categories from The NCI Patient-Derived Models Repository (PDMR)⁶⁹ and from three individual 429 studies^{70–72} (Fig 7A, Supp Tab 7). We note that several categories have three or fewer samples 430 431 (BRCA, CESC, KIRP, OV, LIHC, and BLCA from PDMR). Among the cancer categories represented by more than three samples, only LUSC and PAAD have fewer than 50% classified 432 as their annotated label (Fig 7B). In contrast to GBM CCLs, all three induced pluripotent stem 433 434 cell-derived GBM tumoroids⁷² were classified as GBM with high CCN scores (mean = 0.53). To 435 further characterize the tumoroids, we performed subtype classification on them (Supp Tab 8). UCEC tumoroids from PDMR contains a wide range of subtypes with two endometrioid, two 436 serous and one mixed type (Fig 7C). On the other hand, LUSC tumoroids appear to be 437 predominantly of classical subtypes with one tumoroid classified as a mix between classical and 438 439 primitive (Fig 7D). Lastly, similar to the CCL and PDX counterparts, LUAD tumoroids are classified as proximal inflammatory and proximal proliferation with no tumoroids classified as 440 TRU subtype (Fig 7E). 441

442

443 Comparison of CCLs, PDXs, GEMMs and tumoroids

Finally, we sought to estimate the comparative transcriptional fidelity of the four cancer models modalities. We compared the general CCN scores of each model on a per tumor type basis (**Fig 8**). In the case of GEMMs, we used the mean classification score of all samples with shared genotypes. We also used mean classification of technical replicates found in LIHC tumoroids⁷⁰. We evaluated models based on both the maximum CCN score, as this represents

449 the potential for a model class, and the median CCN score, as this indicates the current overall transcriptional fidelity of a model class. PDXs achieved the highest CCN scores in three (UCEC, 450 451 PAAD, LUAD) out of the five cancer categories in which all four modalities were available (Fig 452 8), despite having low median CCN scores. Notably, PDXs have a median CCN score above 453 the 0.25 threshold in PAAD while none of the other three modalities have any samples above 454 the threshold. In LIHC, the highest CCN score for PDX (0.9) is only slightly lower than the highest CCN score for tumoroid (0.91). This suggest that certain individual PDXs most closely 455 456 mimic the transcriptional state of native patient tumors despite a portion of the PDXs having low 457 CCN scores. Similarly, while the majority of the CCLs have low CCN scores, several lines achieve high transcriptional fidelity in LUSC, LUAD and LIHC (Fig 8). Collectively, GEMMs and 458 tumoroids had the highest median CCN scores in four of the five model classes (LUSC and 459 460 LUAD for GEMMs and UCEC and LIHC for tumoroids). Notably, both of the LIHC tumoroids 461 achieved CCN scores on par with patient tumors (Fig 8). In brief, this analysis indicates that 462 PDXs and CCLs are heterogenous in terms of transcriptional fidelity, with a portion of the models highly mimicking native tumors and the majority of the models having low transcriptional 463 fidelity (with the exception of PAAD for PDXs). On the other hand, GEMMs and tumoroids 464 465 displayed a consistently high fidelity across different models.

Because the CCN score is based on a moderate number of gene features (i.e. 1,979 466 gene pairs consisting of 1,689 unique genes) relative to the total number of protein-coding 467 468 genes in the genome, it is possible that a cancer model with a high CCN score might not have a 469 high global similarity to a naturally occurring tumor. Therefore, we also calculated the GRN status, a metric of the extent to which tumor-type specific gene regulatory network is 470 established²¹, for all models (**Supp Fig 4**). We observed high level of correlation between the 471 472 two similarity metrics, which suggests that although CCN classifies on a selected set of genes, 473 its scores are highly correlated with global assessment of transcriptional similarity.

474 We also sought to compare model modalities in terms of the diversity of subtypes that they represent (Supp Fig 5). As a reference, we also included in this analysis the overall 475 subtype incidence, as approximated by incidence in TCGA. Replicates in GEMMs and 476 477 tumoroids were averaged into one classification profile. In models of UCEC, there is a notable 478 difference in endometroid incidence, and the proportion of models classified as endometroid, 479 with PDX and tumoroids having any representatives (Supp Fig 5). All of the CCL, GEMM, and tumoroid models of PAAD have an unknown subtype classification and no correct general 480 481 classification. However, the majority of PDXs are subtyped as either a mixture of basal and 482 classical, or classical alone. LUAD have proximal inflammation and proximal proliferation 483 subtypes modelled by CCLs and PDX (Supp Fig 5). Likewise, LUSC have basal, classical and 484 primitive subtypes modelled by CCLs and PDXs, and secretory subtype modelled by GEMMs exclusively (Supp Fig 5). Taken together, these results demonstrate the need to carefully select 485 486 different model systems to more suitably model certain cancer subtypes.

487

488 **DISCUSSION**

A major goal in the field of cancer biology is to develop models that mimic naturally occurring 489 490 tumors with enough fidelity to enable therapeutic discoveries. However, methods to measure the extent to which cancer models resemble or diverge from native tumors are lacking. This is 491 492 especially problematic now because there are many existing models from which to choose, and 493 it has become easier to generate new models. Here, we present CancerCellNet (CCN), a 494 computational tool that measures the similarity of cancer models to 22 naturally occurring tumor 495 types and 36 subtypes. While the similarity of CCLs to patient tumors has already been 496 explored in previous work, our tool introduces the capability to assess the transcriptional fidelity 497 of PDXs, GEMMs, and tumoroids. Because CCN is platform- and species-agnostic, it 498 represents a consistent platform to compare models across modalities including CCLs, PDXs, 499 GEMMs and tumoroids. Here, we applied CCN to 657 cancer cell lines, 415 patient derived

xenografts, 26 distinct genetically engineered mouse models and 131 tumoroids. Several
insights emerged from our computational analyses that have implications for the field of cancer
biology.

503 First, PDXs have the greatest potential to achieve transcriptional fidelity with three out of 504 five general tumor types for which data from all modalities was available, as indicated by the 505 high scores of individual PDXs. Notably PDXs are the only modality with samples classified as PAAD. At the same time, the median CCN scores of PDXs were lower than that of GEMMs and 506 507 tumoroids in the other four tumor types. It is unclear what causes such a wide range of CCN 508 scores within PDXs. We suspect that some PDXs might have undergone selective pressures in 509 the host that distort the progression of genomic alterations away from what is observed in natural tumor⁷³. Future work to understand this heterogeneity is important so as to yield 510 511 consistently high fidelity PDXs, and to identify intrinsic and host-specific factors that so 512 powerfully shape the PDX transcriptome.

513 Second, in general GEMMs and tumoroids have higher median CCN scores than those of PDXs and CCLs. This is also consistent with that fact that GEMMs are typically derived by 514 recapitulating well-defined driver mutations of natural tumors, and thus this observation 515 corroborates the importance of genetics in the etiology of cancer⁷⁴. Moreover, in contrast to 516 most PDXs, GEMMs are typically generated in immune replete hosts. Therefore, the higher 517 518 overall fidelity of GEMMs may also be a result of the influence of a native immune system on GEMM tumors⁷⁵. The high median CCN scores of tumoroids can be attributed to several factors 519 520 including the increased mechanical stimuli and cell-cell interactions that come from 3D selforganizing cultures^{76,77}. 521

522 Third, we have found that none of the samples that we evaluated here are 523 transcriptionally adequate models of ESCA. This may be due to an inherent lability of the ESCA 524 transcriptome that is often preceded by a metaplasia that has obscured determining its cell 525 type(s) of origin⁷⁸. Therefore, this tumor type requires further attention to derive new models.

526 Fourth, we found that in several tumor types, GEMMs tend to reflect mixtures of 527 subtypes rather than conforming strongly to single subtypes. The reasons for this are not clear 528 but it is possible that in the cases that we examined the histologically defined subtypes have a 529 degree of plasticity that is exacerbated in the murine host environment.

530 Lastly, we recognize that many CCLs are not classified as their annotated labels. While 531 we have suggested that the lack of immune component is not a major confounder, we suspect

that the CCLs could undergo genetic divergence due to high number of passages,

533 chemotherapy before biopsy, culture condition and genetic instability^{79–82}, which could all be

534 factors that drive CCLs away from their labelled tumors.

535 Currently, there are several limitations to our CCN tool, and caveats to our analyses 536 which indicate areas for future work and improvement. First, CCN is based on transcriptomic

537 data but other molecular readouts of tumor state, such as profiles of the proteome⁸³,

⁵³⁸ epigenome⁸⁴, non-coding RNA-ome⁸⁴, and genome⁷⁴ would be equally, if not more important, to

539 mimic in a model system. Therefore, it is possible that some models reflect tumor behavior well,

and because this behavior is not well predicted by transcriptome alone, these models have

541 lower CCN scores. To both measure the extent that such situations exist, and to correct for

them, we plan in the future to incorporate other omic data into CCN so as to make more

accurate and integrated model evaluation possible. As a first step in this direction, we plan to

544 incorporate DNA methylation and genomic sequencing data as additional features for our

545 Random forest classifier as this data is becoming more readily available for both training and 546 cancer models. We expect that this will allow us to both refine our tumor subtype categories and 547 it will enable more accurate predictions of how models respond to perturbations such as drug 548 treatment.

549 A second limitation is that in the cross-species analysis, CCN implicitly assumes that 550 homologs are functionally equivalent. The extent to which they are not functionally equivalent 551 determines how confounded the CCN results will be. This possibility seems to be of limited

552 consequence based on the high performance of the normal tissue cross-species classifier and based on the fact that GEMMs have the highest median CCN scores (in addition to tumoroids). 553 A third caveat to our analysis is that there were many fewer distinct GEMMs and 554 tumoroids than CCLs and PDXs. As more transcriptional profiles for GEMMs and tumoroids 555 556 emerge, this comparative analysis should be revisited to assess the generality of our results. Finally, the TCGA training data is made up of RNA-Seq from bulk tumor samples, which 557 necessarily includes non-tumor cells, whereas the CCLs are by definition cell lines of tumor 558 559 origin. Therefore, CCLs theoretically could have artificially low CCN scores due to the presence 560 of non-tumor cells in the training data. This problem appears to be limited as we found no 561 correlation between tumor purity and CCN score in the CCLE samples. However, this problem is related to the guestion of intra-tumor heterogeneity. We demonstrated the feasibility of using 562 CCN and single cell RNA-seg data to refine the evaluation of cancer cell lines contingent upon 563 564 availability of scRNA-seg training data. As more training single cell RNA-seg data accrues, CCN 565 would be able to not only evaluate models on a per cell type basis, but also based on cellular composition. 566

We have made the results of our analyses available online so that researchers can 567 568 easily explore the performance of selected models or identify the best models for any of the 22 general tumor types and the 36 subtypes presented here. To ensure that CCN is widely 569 570 available we have developed a free web application, which performs CCN analysis on user-571 uploaded data and allows for direct comparison of their data to the cancer models evaluated 572 here. We have also made the CCN code freely available under an Open Source license and as 573 an easily installed R package, and we are actively supporting its further development. Included 574 in the web application are instructions for training CCN and reproducing our analysis. The documentation describes how to analyze models and compare the results to the panel of 575 576 models that we evaluated here, thereby allowing researchers to immediately compare their models to the broader field in a comprehensive and standard fashion. 577

578

579 Online Methods

580 Training General CancerCellNet Classifier

581 To generate training data sets, we downloaded 8,991 patient tumor RNA-seg expression 582 count matrix and their corresponding sample table across 22 different tumor types from TCGA using TCGAWorkflowData, TCGAbiolinks⁸⁵ and SummarizedExperiment⁸⁶ packages. We used 583 all the patient tumor samples for training the general CCN classifier. We limited training and 584 585 analysis of RNA-seg data to the 13,142 genes in common between the TCGA dataset and all 586 the guery samples (CCLs, PDXs, GEMMs, and tumoroids). To train the top pair Random forest classifier, we used a method similar to our previous method²³. CCN first normalized the training 587 588 counts matrix by down-sampling the counts to 500,000 counts per sample. To significantly 589 reduce the execution time and memory of generating gene pairs for all possible genes, CCN 590 then selected n up-regulated genes, n down-regulated genes and n least differentially expressed genes (CCN training parameter nTopGenes = n) for each of the 22 cancer 591 categories using template matching⁸⁷ as the genes to generate top scoring gene pairs. In short, 592 for each tumor type, CCN defined a template vector that labelled the training tumor samples in 593 594 cancer type of interest as 1 and all other tumor samples as 0 CCN then calculated the Pearson 595 correlation coefficient between template vector and gene expressions for all genes. The genes 596 with strong match to template as either upregulated or downregulated had large absolute 597 Pearson correlation coefficient. CCN chose the upregulated, downregulated and least 598 differentially expressed genes based on the magnitude of Pearson correlation coefficient. After CCN selected the genes for each cancer type, CCN generated gene pairs among 599

those genes. Gene pair transformation was a method inspired by the top-scoring pair classifier⁸⁸
to allow compatibility of classifier with query expression profiles that were collected through
different platforms (e.g. microarray query data applied to RNA-seq training data). In brief, the
gene pair transformation compares 2 genes within an expression sample and encodes the

"gene1_gene2" gene-pair as 1 if the first gene has higher expression than the second gene. Otherwise, gene pair transformation would encode the gene-pair as 0. Using all the gene pair combinations generated through the gene sets per cancer type, CCN then selected top mdiscriminative gene pairs (CCN training parameter nTopGenePairs = m) for each category using template matching (with large absolute Pearson correlation coefficient) described above. To prevent any single gene from dominating the gene pair list, we allowed each gene to appear at maximum of three times among the gene pairs selected as features per cancer type.

611 After the top discriminative gene pairs were selected for each cancer category, CCN 612 grouped all the gene pairs together and gene pair transformed the training samples into a binary 613 matrix with all the discriminative gene pairs as row names and all the training samples as 614 column names. Using the binary gene pair matrix, CCN randomly shuffled the binary values 615 across rows then across columns to generate random profiles that should not resemble training 616 data from any of the cancer categories. CCN then sampled 70 random profiles, annotated them 617 as "Unknown" and used them as training data for the "Unknown" category. Using gene pair binary training matrix, CCN constructed a multi-class Random Forest classifier of 2000 trees 618 and used stratified sampling of 60 sample size to ensure balance of training data in constructing 619 620 the decision trees.

To identify the best set of genes and gene-pair parameters (n and m), we used a gridsearch cross-validation⁸⁹ strategy with 5 cross-validations at each parameter set. The specific parameters for the final CCN classifier using the function "broadClass_train" in the package cancerCellNet are in **Supp Tab 9**. The gene-pairs are in **Supp Tab 10**.

625

626 Validating General CancerCellNet Classifier

Two thirds of patient tumor data from each cancer type were randomly sampled as
training data to construct a CCN classifier. Based on the training data, CCN selected the
classification genes and gene-pairs and trained a classifier. After the classifier was built, 35

held-out samples from each cancer category were sampled and 40 "Unknown" profiles were
generated for validation. The process of randomly sampling training set from 2/3 of all patient
tumor data, selecting features based on the training set, training classifier and validating was
repeated 50 times to have a more comprehensive assessment of the classifier trained with the
optimal parameter set. To test the performance of final CCN on independent testing data, we
applied it to 725 profiles from ICGC spanning 6 projects that do not overlap with TCGA (BRCAKR, LIRI-JP, OV-AU, PACA-AU, PACA-CA, PRAD-FR).

637

638 Selecting Decision Thresholds

639 Our strategy for selecting a decision threshold was to find the value that maximizes the 640 average Macro F1 measure⁹⁰ for each of the 50 cross-validations that were performed with the 641 optimal parameter set, testing thresholds between 0 and 1 with a 0.01 increment. The F1 642 measure is defined as:

643
$$Macro F1 = \frac{2 \times precision \times recall}{precision + recall}$$

We selected the most commonly occurring threshold above 0.2 that maximized the average Macro F1 measure across the 50 cross-validations as the decision threshold for the final classifier (threshold = 0.25). The same approach was applied for the subtype classifiers. The thresholds and the corresponding average precision, recall and F1 measures are recorded in (**Supp Tab 11**).

649

650 Classifying Query Data into General Cancer Categories

651 We downloaded the RNA-seq cancer cell lines expression profiles and sample table 652 from (<u>https://portals.broadinstitute.org/ccle/data</u>), and microarray cancer cell lines expression 653 profiles and sample table from Barretina et al ³⁷. We extracted two WT control NCCIT RNA-seq 654 expression profiles from Grow et al⁹¹. We received PDX expression estimates and sample

annotations from the authors of Gao et al ²⁰. We gathered GEMM expression profiles from nine 655 different studies⁵⁹⁻⁶⁷. We downloaded tumoroid expression profiles from The NCI Patient-656 Derived Models Repository (PDMR)⁶⁹ and from three individual studies^{70–72}. To use CCN 657 658 classifier on GEMM data, the mouse genes from GEMM expression profiles were converted into 659 their human homologs. The query samples were classified using the final CCN classifier. Each guery classification profile was labelled as one of the four classification categories: "correct", 660 "mixed", "none" and "other" based on classification profiles. If a sample has a CCN score higher 661 662 than the decision threshold in the labelled cancer category, we assigned that as "correct". If a 663 sample has CCN score higher than the decision threshold in labelled cancer category and in 664 other cancer categories, we assigned that as "mixed". If a sample has no CCN score higher than the decision threshold in any cancer category or has the highest CCN score in 'Unknown' 665 666 category, then we assigned it as "none". If a sample has CCN score higher than the decision 667 threshold in a cancer category or categories not including the labelled cancer category, we assigned it as "other". We analyzed and visualized the results using R and R packages 668 pheatmap⁹² and ggplot2⁹³. 669

670

671 Cross-Species Assessment

To assess the performance of cross-species classification, we downloaded 1003 672 673 labelled human tissue/cell type and 1993 labelled mouse tissue/cell type RNA-seq expression profiles from Github (https://github.com/pcahan1/CellNet). We first converted the mouse genes 674 into human homologous genes. Then we found the intersecting genes between mouse 675 tissue/cell expression profiles and human tissue/cell expression profiles. Limiting the input of 676 human tissue RNA-seq profiles to the intersecting genes, we trained a CCN classifier with all 677 678 the human tissue/cell expression profiles. The parameters used for the function 679 "broadClass train" in the package cancerCellNet are in **Supp Tab 9.** We randomly sampled 75

samples from each tissue category in mouse tissue/cell data and applied the classifier on thosesamples to assess performance.

682

683 Cross-Technology Assessment

684 To assess the performance of CCN in applications to microarray data, we gathered 6,219 patient tumor microarray profiles across 12 different cancer types from more than 100 685 different projects (**Supp Tab 12**). We found the intersecting genes between the microarray 686 687 profiles and TCGA patient RNA-seq profiles. Limiting the input of RNA-seq profiles to the 688 intersecting genes, we created a CCN classifier with all the TCGA patient profiles using 689 parameters for the function "broadClass train" listed in **Supp Tab 9**. After the microarray 690 specific classifier was trained, we randomly sampled 60 microarray patient samples from each 691 cancer category and applied CCN classifier on them as assessment of the cross-technology 692 performance in Supp Fig 2A. The same CCN classifier was used to assess microarray CCL samples Supp Fig 2B. 693

694

695 Training and validating scRNA-seq Classifier

696 We extracted labelled human melanoma and glioblastoma scRNA-seq expression profiles^{40,41}, and compiled the two datasets excluding 3 cell types T.CD4, T.CD8 and Myeloid 697 698 due to low number of cells for training. 60 cells from each of the 11 cell types were sampled for 699 training a scRNA-seq classifier. The parameters for training a general scRNA-seq classifier using the function "broadClass train" are in Supp Tab 9. 25 cells from each of the 11 cell types 700 from the held-out data were selected to assess the single cell classifier. Using maximization of 701 average Macro F1 measure, we selected the decision threshold of 0.255. The gene-pairs that 702 703 were selected to construct the classifier are in **Supp Tab 10**. To assess the cross-technology 704 capability of applying scRNA-seq classifier to bulk RNA-seq, we downloaded 305 expression

profiles spanning 4 purified cell types (B cells, endothelial cells, monocyte/macrophage,

fibroblast) from https://github.com/pcahan1/CellNet.

707

708 Training Subtype CancerCellNet

709 We found 11 cancer types (BRCA, COAD, ESCA, HNSC, KIRC, LGG, PAAD, UCEC, 710 STAD, LUAD, LUSC) which have meaningful subtypes based on either histology or molecular profile and have sufficient samples to train a subtype classifier with high AUPR. We also 711 included normal tissues samples from BRCA, COAD, HNSC, KIRC, UCEC to create a normal 712 713 tissue category in the construction of their subtype classifiers. Training samples were either 714 labelled as a cancer subtype for the cancer of interest or as "Unknown" if they belong to other 715 cancer types. Similar to general classifier training, CCN performed gene pair transformation and 716 selected the most discriminate gene pairs for each cancer subtype. In addition to the gene pairs 717 selected to discriminate cancer subtypes. CCN also performed general classification of all 718 training data and appended the classification profiles of training data with gene pair binary matrix as additional features. The reason behind using general classification profile as additional 719 720 features is that many general cancer types may share similar subtypes, and general 721 classification profile could be important features to discriminate the general cancer type of 722 interest from other cancer types before performing finer subtype classification. The specific 723 parameters used to train individual subtype classifiers using "subClass train" function of 724 CancerCellNet package can be found in Supp Tab 9 and the gene pairs are in Supp Tab 10.

725

726 Validating Subtype CancerCellNet

Similar to validating general class classifier, we randomly sampled 2/3 of all samples in
each cancer subtype as training data and sampled an equal amount across subtypes in the 1/3
held-out data for assessing subtype classifiers. We repeated the process 20 times for more
comprehensive assessment of subtype classifiers.

731 Classifying Query Data into Subtypes

We assigned subtype to query sample if the query sample has CCN score higher than the decision threshold. The table of decision threshold for subtype classifiers are in **Supp Tab 11**. If no CCN scores exceed the decision threshold in any subtype or if the highest CCN score is in 'Unknown' category, then we assigned that sample as 'Unknown'. Analysis was performed in R and visualizations were generated with the ComplexHeatmap package⁹⁴.

737

755

738 Cells culture, Immunohistochemistry and histomorphometry

Caov-4 (ATCC® HTB-76[™]), SK-OV-3(ATCC® HTB-77[™]), RT4 (ATCC® HTB-2[™]), and 739 740 NCCIT(ATCC® CRL-2073™) cell lines were purchased from ATCC. HEC-59 (C0026001) and 741 A2780 (93112519-1VL) were obtained from Addexbio Technologies and Sigma-Aldrich. Vcap and PC-3. SK-OV-3, Vcap, and RT4 were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium 742 743 (DMEM, high glucose, 11960069, Gibco) with 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin-Glutamine (744 10378016, Life Technologies); Caov-4, PC-3, NCCIT, and A2780 were cultured using RPMI-745 1640 medium (11875093, Gibco) while HEC-59 was in Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium 746 (IMDM, 12440053, Gibco). Both media were supplemented with 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin 747 (15140122, Gibco). All medium included 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS). 748 Cells cultured in 48-well plate were washed twice with PBS and fixed in 10% buffered formalin for 24 hrs at 4 °C. Immunostaining was performed using a standard protocol. Cells 749 750 were incubated with primary antibodies to goat HOXB6 (10 µg/mL, PA5-37867, Invitrogen), 751 mouse WT1(10 µg/mL, MA1-46028, Invitrogen), rabbit PPARG (1:50, ABN1445, Millipore), 752 mouse FOLH1(10 µg/mL, UM570025, Origene), and rabbit LIN28A (1:50, #3978, Cell Signaling) 753 in Antibody Diluent (S080981-2, DAKO), at 4 °C overnight followed with three 5 min washes in TBST. The slides were then incubated with secondary antibodies conjugated with fluorescence 754

at room temperature for 1 h while avoiding light followed with three 5 min washes in TBST and

756	nuclear stained with mounting medium containing DAPI. Images were captured by Nikon
757	EcLipse Ti-S, DS-U3 and DS-Qi2.
758	Histomorphometry was performed using ImageJ (Version 2.0.0-rc-69/1.52i). %
759	N.positive cells was calculated by the percentage of the number of positive stained cells divided
760	by the number of DAPI-positive nucleus within three of randomly chosen areas. The data were
761	expressed as means ± SD.
762	
763	Tumor Purity Analysis
764	We used the R package ESTIMATE ⁹⁵ to calculate the ESTIMATE scores from TCGA
765	tumor expression profiles that we used as training data for CCN classifier. To calculate tumor
766	purity we used the equation described in YoshiHara et al., 2013 ⁹⁵ :
767	Tumour purity = $\cos (0.6049872018 + 0.0001467884 \times \text{ESTIMATE score})$
768	
769	Extracting Citation Counts
770	We used the R package RISmed ⁹⁶ to extract the number of citations for each cell line
771	through query search of "cell line name[Text Word] AND cancer[Text Word]" on PubMed. The
772	citation counts were normalized by dividing the citation counts with the number of years since
773	first documented.
774	Normalized citation counts = $\frac{citation \ counts}{\# \ years \ since \ first \ documented}$
775	
776	GRN construction and GRN Status
777	GRN construction was extended from our previous method ²¹ . 80 samples per cancer
778	type were randomly sampled and normalized through down sampling as training data for the
779	CLR GRN construction algorithm. Cancer type specific GRNs were identified by determining the

differentially expressed genes per each cancer type and extracting the subnetwork using thosegenes.

To extend the original GRN status algorithm²¹ across different platforms and species, we 782 783 devised a rank-based GRN status algorithm. Like the original GRN status, rank based GRN 784 status is a metric of assessing the similarity of cancer type specific GRN between training data 785 in the cancer type of interest and guery samples. Hence, high GRN status represents high level of establishment or similarity of the cancer specific GRN in the query sample compared to those 786 787 of the training data. The expression profiles of training data and guery data were transformed 788 into rank expression profiles by replacing the expression values with the rank of the expression 789 values within a sample (highest expressed gene would have the highest rank and lowest 790 expressed genes would have a rank of 1). Cancer type specific mean and standard deviation of 791 every gene's rank expression were learned from training data. The modified Z-score values for 792 genes within cancer type specific GRN were calculated for guery sample's rank expression profiles to quantify how dissimilar the expression values of genes in query sample's cancer type 793 specific GRN compared to those of the reference training data: 794

795 $Zscore(gene i)_{mod} = \begin{cases} 0, if Zscore is positive and the gene is found to be upregulated \\ 0, if Zscore is negative and the gene is found to be downregulated$ $abs(Zscore), otherwise \end{cases}$

If a gene in the cancer type specific GRN is found to be upregulated in the specific cancer type relative to other cancer types, then we would consider query sample's gene to be similar if the ranking of the query sample's gene is equal to or greater than the mean ranking of the gene in training sample. As a result of similarity, we assign that gene of a Z-score of 0. The same principle applies to cases where the gene is downregulated in cancer specific subnetwork. GRN status for query sample is calculated as the weighted mean of the $(1000 - Zscore(gene i)_{mod})$ across genes in cancer type specific GRN. 1000 is an arbitrary

803 large number, and larger dissimilarity between query's cancer type specific GRN indicate high

804 Z-scores for the GRN genes and low GRN status.

805
$$RGS = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1000 - Zscore(gene \ i)_{mod}) weight_{gene \ i}$$

806
$$GRN \ Status = \frac{RGS}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} weight_{gene \ i}}$$

The weight of individual genes in the cancer specific network is determined by the importance of the gene in the Random Forest classifier. Finally, the GRN status gets normalized with respect to the GRN status of the cancer type of interest and the cancer type with the lowest mean GRN status.

811 Normalized GRN status =
$$\frac{GRN \ status \ _{query} - avg(GRN \ status \ _{min \ cancer})}{avg(GRN \ status \ _{cancer \ type \ interest)}}$$

812 Where "min cancer" represents the cancer type where its training data have the lowest

813 mean GRN status in the cancer type of interest, and $avg(GRN \ status_{min \ cancer})$ represents the

814 lowest average GRN status in the cancer type of interest. $avg(GRN \ status_{cancer \ type \ interest})$

represents average GRN status of the cancer type of interest in the training data.

816

817 Code availability

818 CancerCellNet code and documentation is available at GitHub:

819 https://github.com/pcahan1/cancerCellNet

820

821 Acknowledgements

822 This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health NCI Ovarian Cancer SPORE

- 823 P50CA228991 via a Development Research Program award to PC. FWH was supported by a
- 824 Prostate Cancer Foundation Young Investigator Award, Department of Defense W81XWH-17-
- 825 PCRP-HD (F.W.H.), the National Institutes of Health/National Cancer Institute P20 CA233255-

01 (F.W.H.) U19 CA214253 (F.W.H.). We would like to thank John Powers, Hao Zhu, Tian-Li
Wang, Charles Eberhart, and Kaloyan Tsanov for comments on the manuscript and helpful
discussions. Some figures were created in part with Biorender.com.

829

830 FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1 CancerCellNet (CCN) workflow, training, and performance. (A) Schematic of CCN 831 usage. CCN was designed to assess and compare the expression profiles of cancer models 832 833 such as CCLs, PDXs, GEMMs, and tumoroids with native patient tumors. To use trained 834 classifier, CCN inputs the query samples (e.g. expression profiles from CCLs, PDXs, GEMMs, tumoroids) and generates a classification profile for the guery samples. The column names of 835 836 the classification heatmap represent sample annotation and the row names of the classification 837 heatmap represent different cancer types. Each grid is colored from black to yellow representing 838 the lowest classification score (e.g. 0) to highest classification score (e.g. 1). (B) Schematic of CCN training process. CCN uses patient tumor expression profiles of 22 different cancer types 839 from TCGA as training data. First, CCN identifies n genes that are upregulated, n that are 840 downregulated, and *n* that are relatively invariant in each tumor type versus all of the others. 841 842 Then, CCN performs a pair transform on these genes and subsequently selects the most discriminative set of m gene pairs for each cancer type as features (or predictors) for the 843 844 Random forest classifier. Lastly, CCN trains a multi-class Random Forest classifier using gene-845 pair transformed training data. (C) Parameter optimization strategy. 5 cross-validations of each 846 parameter set in which 2/3 of TCGA data was used to train and 1/3 to validate was used search for the values of n and m that maximized performance of the classifier as measured by area 847 under the precision recall curve (AUPRC). (D) Mean and standard deviation of classifiers based 848 849 on 50 cross-validations with the optimal parameter set. (E) AUPRC of the final CCN classifier when applied to independent patient tumor data from ICGC. 850

851

852 Fig. 2 Evaluation of cancer cell lines. (A) General classification heatmap of CCLs extracted from CCLE. Column annotations of the heatmap represent the labelled cancer category of the 853 CCLs given by CCLE and the row names of the heatmap represent different cancer categories. 854 855 CCLs' general classification profiles are categorized into 4 categories: correct (red), correct 856 mixed (pink), no classification (light green) and other classification (dark green) based on the 857 decision threshold of 0.25. (B) Bar plot represents the proportion of each classification category in CCLs across cancer types ordered from the cancer types with the highest proportion of 858 859 correct and correct mixed CCLs to lowest proportion. (C) Comparison between SKCM general 860 CCN scores from bulk RNA-seq classifier and SKCM malignant CCN scores from scRNA-seq 861 classifier for SKCM CCLs. (D) Comparison between SARC general CCN scores from bulk RNA-862 seg classifier and CAF CCN scores from scRNA-seg classifier for SKCM CCLs. (E) Comparison 863 between GBM general CCN scores from bulk RNA-seq classifier and GBM neoplastic CCN 864 scores from scRNA-seq classifier for GBM CCLs. (F) Comparison between SARC general CCN scores and CAF CCN scores from scRNA-seq classifier for GBM CCLs. The green lines 865 indicate the decision threshold for scRNA-seq classifier and general classifier. 866

867

868 Fig. 3 Immunofluorescence of selected cell lines. (A) Classification profiles (left) and IF expression (middle) of Caov-4 (OV positive control), HEC-59 (UCEC positive control) and SK-869 870 OV-3 for WT1 (OV biomarker) and HOXB6 (uterine biomarker). The bar plots quantify the 871 average percentage of positive cells for WT1 (top-right) and HOXB6 (bottom-right). (B) 872 Classification profiles (left) and IF expression (middle) of Caov-4, NCCIT (germ cell tumor positive control) and A2780 for WT1 and LIN28A (germ cell tumor biomarker). Classification of 873 NCCIT were performed using RNA-seq profiles of WT control NCCIT duplicate from Grow et 874 875 al⁹¹. The bar plots quantify the average percentage of positive cells for WT1 (top-right) and 876 LIN28A (bottom-right). (C) Classification profiles (left) and IF expression (middle) of Vcap 877 (PRAD positive control), RT4 (BLCA positive control) and PC-3 for FOLH1 (prostate biomarker)

and PPARG (urothelial biomarker). The bar plots quantify the average percentage of positive
cells for FOLH1 (top-right) and PPARG (bottom-right).

880

Fig. 4 Subtype classification of CCLs and CCL prevalence. The heatmap visualizations represent subtype classification of (A) UCEC CCLs, (B) LUSC CCLs and (C) LUAD CCLs. Only samples with CCN scores > 0.1 in their nominal tumor type are displayed. (D) Comparison of normalized citation counts and general CCN classification scores of CCLs. Labelled cell lines either have the highest CCN classification score in their labelled cancer category or highest normalized citation count. Each citation count was normalized by number of years since first documented on PubMed.

888

Fig. 5 Evaluation of patient derived xenografts. (A) General classification heatmap of PDXs.
Column annotations represent annotated cancer type of the PDXs, and row names represent
cancer categories. (B) Proportion of classification categories in PDXs across cancer types is
visualized in the bar plot and ordered from the cancer type with highest proportion of correct and
mixed correct classified PDXs to the lowest. Subtype classification heatmaps of (C) UCEC
PDXs, (D) LUSC PDXs and (E) LUAD PDXs. Only samples with CCN scores > 0.1 in their
nominal tumor type are displayed.

896

Fig. 6 Evaluation of genetically engineered mouse models. (A) General classification heatmap of GEMMs. Column annotations represent annotated cancer type of the GEMMs, and row names represent cancer categories. (B) Proportion of classification categories in GEMMs across cancer types is visualized in the bar plot and ordered from the cancer type with highest proportion of correct and mixed correct classified GEMMs to the lowest. Subtype classification heatmap of (C) UCEC GEMMs, (D) LUSC GEMMs and (E) LUAD GEMMs. Only samples with CCN scores > 0.1 in their nominal tumor type are displayed.

904

905	Fig. 7 Evaluation of tumoroid models. (A) General classification heatmap of tumoroids.
906	Column annotations represent annotated cancer type of the tumoroids, and row names
907	represent cancer categories. (B) Proportion of classification categories in tumoroids across
908	cancer types is visualized in the bar plot and ordered from the cancer type with highest
909	proportion of correct and mixed correct classified tumoroids to the lowest. Subtype classification
910	heatmap of (C) UCEC tumoroids, (D) LUSC tumoroids and (E) LUAD tumoroids. Only samples
911	with CCN scores > 0.1 in their nominal tumor type are displayed.
912	
913	Fig. 8 Comparison of CCLs, PDXs, and GEMMs. Box-and-whiskers plot comparing general
914	CCN scores across CCLs, GEMMs, PDXs of five general tumor types (UCEC, PAAD, LUSC,
915	LUAD, LIHC).
916	
917	Supplementary Information
918	Supplementary Figure 1 Assessment of CCN general classifier and subtype classifier. (A)
919	Mean AUPRC of repeated grid-search cross-validation for each parameter grid. (B) Mean and
920	range of CCN classifier's PR curves from 50 cross validations based on the optimal feature
921	selection parameters <i>n</i> and <i>m</i> . (C) AUPRC of CCN human tissue classifier when applied to
922	mouse tissue data. (D) The schematic of training a subtype classifier in CCN. CCN uses patient
923	tumor expression profiles from cancer of interest as training data. CCN performs gene-pair
924	transformation and selects the most discriminative gene pairs among the cancer subtypes from
925	training data as features. CCN then applies the general classification on training data and uses
926	the general classification profile as features in addition to gene pairs for training a Random
927	Forest classifier. The weight of the general classification profiles as features can be tuned to
000	improve ALIPPC (E) The mean and standard deviation of ALIPPC for 11 subtype classifiers

929 based on 20 iterations of random sampling of training and held-out data, training subtype

930 classifier using training data, classification of held-out data, and calculation of recall and931 precision.

932

933 Supplementary Figure 2 Further validation of CCN and classification results. To validate the 934 cross-platform classification performance of CCN, a new classifier specifically trained to classify 935 microarray data was trained using RNA-seg data from TCGA as training data and intersecting genes between RNA-seq data and microarray data. (A) AUPRC of CCN classifier when applied 936 937 to tumor profiles assayed on microarrays. (B) Classification heatmap of CCLs using microarray 938 expression data. (C) Pearson correlation between CCN scores of CCLE lines generated from 939 RNA-seg data and microarray data. (D) Comparison between CCLs' CCN scores and the similarity metric from Yu et al¹⁵, median correlations of transcriptional profiles between CCLs 940 941 and TCGA tumors from CCLs' labelled cancer category. (E) Comparison of mean tumor purity 942 of training data and mean CCN scores of CCLs for each cancer category. 943 Supplementary Figure 3 Single-cell classification of SKCM and GBM cell lines. (A) AUPRC of 944 the single-cell classifier when applied to scRNA-seg held-out data. (B) AUPRC of the scRNA-945 946 seq classifier when applied to purified bulk RNA samples. (C) Single-cell classification of SKCM CCLs. Red bar-plot (top) represents general CCN scores in SARC and blue bar-plot (bottom) 947 948 represents general CCN scores in SKCM. (D) Single-cell classification of GBM CCLs. Red bar-949 plot (top) represents general CCN scores in SARC and yellow bar-plot (bottom) represents 950 general CCN scores in GBM. 951 Supplementary Figure 4 Correlation between cancer type specific network GRN status and 952 953 general CCN scores. 954 955 Supplementary Figure 5 Proportion of cancer subtypes in different cancer models and TCGA 956 957 tumor data across 11 general cancer types. 958

959	Complementary Table 4 Compared alongification profiles of COL a
960 961	Supplementary Table 1 General classification profiles of CCLs.
962	Supplementary Table 2 Subtype classification profiles of CCLs.
963 964	Supplementary Table 3 General classification profiles of PDXs.
965 066	Supplementant Table 4 Subture classification profiles of PDVs
966 967	Supplementary Table 4 Subtype classification profiles of PDAs.
968 969	Supplementary Table 5 General classification profiles of GEMMs
970 971	Supplementary Table 6 Subtype classification profiles of GEMMs.
971 972	Supplementary Table 7 General classification profiles of tumoroids.
973 974	Supplementary Table 8 Subtype classification profiles of tumoroids.
975	
976 977	Supplementary Table 9 Specific parameters used for training of all classifiers.
978 979	Supplementary Table 10 Gene-pairs selected for final training of CCN general, subtype classifiers and single-cell classifier.
980	
981 982	Supplementary Table 11 Decision thresholds and the corresponding precision and recall for the general classifier and subtype classifier.
983 984	Supplementary Table 12 Accessions of tumor microarray data used in validation
985	
986	
097	REEPENCES

987 **REFERENCES**

- Sharma, S. V., Haber, D. A. & Settleman, J. Cell line-based platforms to evaluate
 the therapeutic efficacy of candidate anticancer agents. *Nat. Rev. Cancer* 10, 241–
 253 (2010).
- Kersten, K., de Visser, K. E., van Miltenburg, M. H. & Jonkers, J. Genetically
 engineered mouse models in oncology research and cancer medicine. *EMBO Mol. Med.* 9, 137–153 (2017).
- 3. Hidalgo, M. *et al.* Patient-derived xenograft models: an emerging platform for translational cancer research. *Cancer Discov.* **4**, 998–1013 (2014).
- 996 4. Drost, J. & Clevers, H. Organoids in cancer research. *Nat. Rev. Cancer* 18, 407–
 997 418 (2018).
- 5. Klijn, C. *et al.* A comprehensive transcriptional portrait of human cancer cell lines. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 33, 306–312 (2015).
- Koren, S. *et al.* PIK3CA(H1047R) induces multipotency and multi-lineage mammary
 tumours. *Nature* 525, 114–118 (2015).
- DeRose, Y. S. *et al.* Tumor grafts derived from women with breast cancer
 authentically reflect tumor pathology, growth, metastasis and disease outcomes.
 Nat. Med. 17, 1514–1520 (2011).

- Sharpless, N. E. & Depinho, R. A. The mighty mouse: genetically engineered mouse models in cancer drug development. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.* 5, 741–754 (2006).
- 1008 9. Mouradov, D. *et al.* Colorectal cancer cell lines are representative models of the 1009 main molecular subtypes of primary cancer. *Cancer Res.* **74**, 3238–3247 (2014).
- 1010 10. Stuckelberger, S. & Drapkin, R. Precious GEMMs: emergence of faithful models for 1011 ovarian cancer research. *J. Pathol.* **245**, 129–131 (2018).
- 1012 11. Domcke, S., Sinha, R., Levine, D. A., Sander, C. & Schultz, N. Evaluating cell lines
 1013 as tumour models by comparison of genomic profiles. *Nat. Commun.* 4, 2126
 1014 (2013).
- 1015 12. Jiang, G. *et al.* Comprehensive comparison of molecular portraits between cell lines 1016 and tumors in breast cancer. *BMC Genomics* **17 Suppl 7**, 525 (2016).
- 1017 13. Chen, B., Sirota, M., Fan-Minogue, H., Hadley, D. & Butte, A. J. Relating
 1018 hepatocellular carcinoma tumor samples and cell lines using gene expression data
 1019 in translational research. *BMC Med. Genomics* 8 Suppl 2, S5 (2015).
- 14. Vincent, K. M., Findlay, S. D. & Postovit, L. M. Assessing breast cancer cell lines as tumour models by comparison of mRNA expression profiles. *Breast Cancer Res.* 1022 17, 114 (2015).
- 1023 15. Yu, K. *et al.* Comprehensive transcriptomic analysis of cell lines as models of 1024 primary tumors across 22 tumor types. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 3574 (2019).
- 1025 16. Najgebauer, H. *et al.* CELLector: Genomics-Guided Selection of Cancer In Vitro
 1026 Models. *Cell Syst.* 10, 424–432.e6 (2020).
- 1027 17. Salvadores, M., Fuster-Tormo, F. & Supek, F. Matching cell lines with cancer type
 and subtype of origin via mutational, epigenomic, and transcriptomic patterns. *Sci.* 1029 *Adv.* 6, (2020).
- 1030 18. Guernet, A. & Grumolato, L. CRISPR/Cas9 editing of the genome for cancer 1031 modeling. *Methods* **121-122**, 130–137 (2017).
- 1032 19. Gargiulo, G. Next-Generation in vivo Modeling of Human Cancers. *Front. Oncol.* **8**, 429 (2018).
- 1034 20. Gao, H. *et al.* High-throughput screening using patient-derived tumor xenografts to 1035 predict clinical trial drug response. *Nat. Med.* **21**, 1318–1325 (2015).
- 1036 21. Cahan, P. *et al.* CellNet: network biology applied to stem cell engineering. *Cell* 158, 903–915 (2014).
- 1038 22. Radley, A. H. *et al.* Assessment of engineered cells using CellNet and RNA-seq.
 1039 *Nat. Protoc.* **12**, 1089–1102 (2017).
- 1040 23. Tan, Y. & Cahan, P. SingleCellNet: A Computational Tool to Classify Single Cell
 1041 RNA-Seq Data Across Platforms and Across Species. *Cell Syst.* 9, 207–213.e2
 1042 (2019).
- 1043 24. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive molecular characterization of 1044 human colon and rectal cancer. *Nature* **487**, 330–337 (2012).
- 1045 25. Zhang, J. *et al.* International Cancer Genome Consortium Data Portal--a one-stop 1046 shop for cancer genomics data. *Database (Oxford)* **2011**, bar026 (2011).
- 26. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive molecular portraits of human
 breast tumours. *Nature* **490**, 61–70 (2012).
- Parker, J. S. *et al.* Supervised risk predictor of breast cancer based on intrinsic subtypes. *J. Clin. Oncol.* 27, 1160–1167 (2009).

 1051 28. Wilkerson, M. D. *et al.* Lung squamous cell carcinoma mRNA expression subtypes are reproducible, clinically important, and correspond to normal cell types. *Clin.* 1053 *Cancer Res.* 16, 4864–4875 (2010).

- 1054 29. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Electronic address:
- andrew_aguirre@dfci.harvard.edu & Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network.
 Integrated genomic characterization of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma. *Cancer Cell* 32, 185–203.e13 (2017).
- 1058 30. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network *et al.* Integrated genomic characterization 1059 of endometrial carcinoma. *Nature* **497**, 67–73 (2013).
- 1060 31. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network *et al.* Integrated genomic characterization 1061 of oesophageal carcinoma. *Nature* **541**, 169–175 (2017).
- 32. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head
 and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Nature* 517, 576–582 (2015).
- 1064 33. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular
 1065 characterization of clear cell renal cell carcinoma. *Nature* 499, 43–49 (2013).
- 34. Verhaak, R. G. W. *et al.* Integrated genomic analysis identifies clinically relevant
 subtypes of glioblastoma characterized by abnormalities in PDGFRA, IDH1, EGFR,
 and NF1. *Cancer Cell* **17**, 98–110 (2010).
- 35. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular profiling of
 lung adenocarcinoma. *Nature* 511, 543–550 (2014).
- 1071 36. Hu, B. *et al.* Gastric cancer: Classification, histology and application of molecular 1072 pathology. *J. Gastrointest. Oncol.* **3**, 251–261 (2012).
- 1073 37. Barretina, J. *et al.* The Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia enables predictive modelling 1074 of anticancer drug sensitivity. *Nature* **483**, 603–607 (2012).
- 1075 38. Medico, E. *et al.* The molecular landscape of colorectal cancer cell lines unveils
 1076 clinically actionable kinase targets. *Nat. Commun.* 6, 7002 (2015).
- 1077 39. Park, J.-G. *et al.* Characteristics of Cell Lines Established from Human Colorectal
 1078 Carcinoma. *Cancer Res.* (1987).
- 40. Jerby-Arnon, L. *et al.* A cancer cell program promotes T cell exclusion and resistance to checkpoint blockade. *Cell* **175**, 984–997.e24 (2018).
- 1081 41. Darmanis, S. *et al.* Single-Cell RNA-Seq Analysis of Infiltrating Neoplastic Cells at 1082 the Migrating Front of Human Glioblastoma. *Cell Rep.* 21, 1399–1410 (2017).
- 42. Patel, A. P. *et al.* Single-cell RNA-seq highlights intratumoral heterogeneity in
 primary glioblastoma. *Science* 344, 1396–1401 (2014).
- 43. Xu, B. *et al.* Regulation of endometrial receptivity by the highly expressed HOXA9,
 HOXA11 and HOXD10 HOX-class homeobox genes. *Hum. Reprod.* 29, 781–790
 (2014).
- 1088 44. Raines, A. M. *et al.* Recombineering-based dissection of flanking and paralogous
 1089 Hox gene functions in mouse reproductive tracts. *Development* 140, 2942–2952
 1090 (2013).
- 1091 45. Netinatsunthorn, W., Hanprasertpong, J., Dechsukhum, C., Leetanaporn, R. &
 1092 Geater, A. WT1 gene expression as a prognostic marker in advanced serous
 1093 epithelial ovarian carcinoma: an immunohistochemical study. *BMC Cancer* 6, 90
 1094 (2006).
- 46. Kelly, Z. *et al.* The prognostic significance of specific HOX gene expression patterns
 in ovarian cancer. *Int. J. Cancer* **139**, 1608–1617 (2016).

- 47. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Integrated genomic analyses of ovarian
 carcinoma. *Nature* 474, 609–615 (2011).
- 48. Wiegand, K. C. *et al.* ARID1A mutations in endometriosis-associated ovarian carcinomas. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 363, 1532–1543 (2010).
- 49. Murray, M. J. *et al.* LIN28 Expression in malignant germ cell tumors downregulates
 let-7 and increases oncogene levels. *Cancer Res.* **73**, 4872–4884 (2013).
- 50. Biton, A. *et al.* Independent component analysis uncovers the landscape of the
 bladder tumor transcriptome and reveals insights into luminal and basal subtypes. *Cell Rep.* 9, 1235–1245 (2014).
- 51. Fair, W. R., Israeli, R. S. & Heston, W. D. Prostate-specific membrane antigen.
 Prostate 32, 140–148 (1997).
- 52. Black, J. D., English, D. P., Roque, D. M. & Santin, A. D. Targeted therapy in
 uterine serous carcinoma: an aggressive variant of endometrial cancer. *Womens Health (Lond. Engl.)* **10**, 45–57 (2014).
- 1111 53. Yang, S., Thiel, K. W. & Leslie, K. K. Progesterone: the ultimate endometrial tumor 1112 suppressor. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.* **22**, 145–152 (2011).
- 54. Huszar, M. *et al.* Up-regulation of L1CAM is linked to loss of hormone receptors and
 E-cadherin in aggressive subtypes of endometrial carcinomas. *J. Pathol.* 220, 551–
 561 (2010).
- 1116 55. Kozak, J., Wdowiak, P., Maciejewski, R. & Torres, A. A guide for endometrial
 1117 cancer cell lines functional assays using the measurements of electronic
 1118 impedance. *Cytotechnology* **70**, 339–350 (2018).
- 56. Korch, C. *et al.* DNA profiling analysis of endometrial and ovarian cell lines reveals
 misidentification, redundancy and contamination. *Gynecol.* Oncol. **127**, 241–248
 (2012).
- 1122 57. Wu, D. *et al.* Gene-expression data integration to squamous cell lung cancer 1123 subtypes reveals drug sensitivity. *Br. J. Cancer* **109**, 1599–1608 (2013).
- 58. Walter, V. *et al.* Molecular subtypes in head and neck cancer exhibit distinct
 patterns of chromosomal gain and loss of canonical cancer genes. *PLoS One* 8, e56823 (2013).
- 59. Adeegbe, D. O. *et al.* BET Bromodomain Inhibition Cooperates with PD-1 Blockade
 to Facilitate Antitumor Response in Kras-Mutant Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer. *Cancer Immunol Res* 6, 1234–1245 (2018).
- 1130 60. Blaisdell, A. *et al.* Neutrophils oppose uterine epithelial carcinogenesis via 1131 debridement of hypoxic tumor cells. *Cancer Cell* **28**, 785–799 (2015).
- 1132 61. Fitamant, J. *et al.* YAP inhibition restores hepatocyte differentiation in advanced 1133 HCC, leading to tumor regression. *Cell Rep.* **10**, 1692–1707 (2015).
- 1134 62. Jia, D. *et al.* Crebbp loss drives small cell lung cancer and increases sensitivity to 1135 HDAC inhibition. *Cancer Discov.* **8**, 1422–1437 (2018).
- Kress, T. R. *et al.* Identification of MYC-Dependent Transcriptional Programs in
 Oncogene-Addicted Liver Tumors. *Cancer Res.* **76**, 3463–3472 (2016).
- 1138 64. Li, L. *et al.* GKAP acts as a genetic modulator of NMDAR signaling to govern 1139 invasive tumor growth. *Cancer Cell* **33**, 736–751.e5 (2018).
- 1140 65. Mollaoglu, G. et al. The Lineage-Defining Transcription Factors SOX2 and NKX2-1
- 1141 Determine Lung Cancer Cell Fate and Shape the Tumor Immune
- 1142 Microenvironment. *Immunity* **49**, 764–779.e9 (2018).

66. Pan, Y. *et al.* Whole tumor RNA-sequencing and deconvolution reveal a clinicallyprognostic PTEN/PI3K-regulated glioma transcriptional signature. *Oncotarget* 8,
52474–52487 (2017).

- 1146 67. Lissanu Deribe, Y. *et al.* Mutations in the SWI/SNF complex induce a targetable
 1147 dependence on oxidative phosphorylation in lung cancer. *Nat. Med.* 24, 1047–1057
 1148 (2018).
- 1149 68. Xu, C. *et al.* Loss of Lkb1 and Pten leads to lung squamous cell carcinoma with 1150 elevated PD-L1 expression. *Cancer Cell* **25**, 590–604 (2014).
- 1151 69. NCI-Frederick, Frederick, MD. National Laboratory for Cancer Research. The NCI
 1152 Patient-Derived Models Repository (PDMR). (2019). at https://pdmr.cancer.gov/
- To. Broutier, L. *et al.* Human primary liver cancer-derived organoid cultures for disease
 modeling and drug screening. *Nat. Med.* 23, 1424–1435 (2017).
- 1155 71. Lee, S. H. *et al.* Tumor Evolution and Drug Response in Patient-Derived Organoid
 1156 Models of Bladder Cancer. *Cell* **173**, 515–528.e17 (2018).
- 1157 72. Ogawa, J., Pao, G. M., Shokhirev, M. N. & Verma, I. M. Glioblastoma model using 1158 human cerebral organoids. *Cell Rep.* **23**, 1220–1229 (2018).
- 73. Ben-David, U. *et al.* Patient-derived xenografts undergo mouse-specific tumor
 evolution. *Nat. Genet.* 49, 1567–1575 (2017).
- 74. Stratton, M. R., Campbell, P. J. & Futreal, P. A. The cancer genome. *Nature* 458, 719–724 (2009).
- 1163 75. Balkwill, F. R., Capasso, M. & Hagemann, T. The tumor microenvironment at a 1164 glance. *J. Cell Sci.* **125**, 5591–5596 (2012).
- 1165 76. Lancaster, M. A. & Knoblich, J. A. Organogenesis in a dish: modeling development 1166 and disease using organoid technologies. *Science* **345**, 1247125 (2014).
- 1167 77. Bregenzer, M. E. *et al.* Integrated cancer tissue engineering models for precision
 1168 medicine. *PLoS One* **14**, e0216564 (2019).
- T8. Wang, D. H. & Souza, R. F. Biology of Barrett's esophagus and esophageal adenocarcinoma. *Gastrointest Endosc Clin N Am* 21, 25–38 (2011).
- 1171 79. Lee, J. *et al.* Tumor stem cells derived from glioblastomas cultured in bFGF and
 1172 EGF more closely mirror the phenotype and genotype of primary tumors than do
 1173 serum-cultured cell lines. *Cancer Cell* 9, 391–403 (2006).
- 1174 80. Wenger, S. L. *et al.* Comparison of established cell lines at different passages by 1175 karyotype and comparative genomic hybridization. *Biosci. Rep.* **24,** 631–639 (2004).
- 1176 81. Ben-David, U. *et al.* Genetic and transcriptional evolution alters cancer cell line drug 1177 response. *Nature* **560**, 325–330 (2018).
- 1178 82. Cooke, S. L. *et al.* Genomic analysis of genetic heterogeneity and evolution in high-1179 grade serous ovarian carcinoma. *Oncogene* **29**, 4905–4913 (2010).
- 1180 83. Hristova, V. A. & Chan, D. W. Cancer biomarker discovery and translation:
 1181 proteomics and beyond. *Expert Rev Proteomics* 16, 93–103 (2019).
- 1182 84. Dawson, M. A. & Kouzarides, T. Cancer epigenetics: from mechanism to therapy.
 1183 *Cell* **150**, 12–27 (2012).
- 1184 85. Silva, T. C. *et al.* TCGA Workflow: Analyze cancer genomics and epigenomics data
 1185 using Bioconductor packages. [version 2; peer review: 1 approved, 2 approved with
 1186 reservations]. *F1000Res.* 5, 1542 (2016).
- 1187 86. Morgan, M., Obenchain, V., Hester, J. & Pag`es, H. SummarizedExperiment:
 1188 SummarizedExperiment container. (2018).

- 1189 87. Pavlidis, P. & Noble, W. S. Analysis of strain and regional variation in gene 1190 expression in mouse brain. *Genome Biol.* **2**, RESEARCH0042 (2001).
- 88. Geman, D., d Avignon, C., Naiman, D. Q. & Winslow, R. L. Classifying gene
 expression profiles from pairwise mRNA comparisons. *Stat Appl Genet Mol Biol* 3,
 Article19 (2004).
- 1194 89. Krstajic, D., Buturovic, L. J., Leahy, D. E. & Thomas, S. Cross-validation pitfalls
 1195 when selecting and assessing regression and classification models. *J. Cheminform.*1196 6, 10 (2014).
- 1197 90. Lipton, Z. C., Elkan, C. & Naryanaswamy, B. Optimal Thresholding of Classifiers to
 1198 Maximize F1 Measure. *Mach. Learn. Knowl. Discov. Databases* 8725, 225–239
 1199 (2014).
- 1200 91. Grow, E. J. *et al.* Intrinsic retroviral reactivation in human preimplantation embryos 1201 and pluripotent cells. *Nature* **522**, 221–225 (2015).
- 1202 92. Kolde, R. pheatmap: Pretty Heatmaps. (CRAN, 2019).
- 1203 93. Wickham, H. ggplot2 Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis . (Springer-Verlag New York, 2016). doi:10.1007/978-0-387-98141-3
- 1205 94. Gu, Z., Eils, R. & Schlesner, M. Complex heatmaps reveal patterns and correlations 1206 in multidimensional genomic data. *Bioinformatics* **32**, 2847–2849 (2016).
- 1207 95. Yoshihara, K. *et al.* Inferring tumour purity and stromal and immune cell admixture
 1208 from expression data. *Nat. Commun.* 4, 2612 (2013).
- 96. Kovalchik, S. *RISmed: Download Content from NCBI Databases*. (CRAN.R-project, 2017).







D

С

- (1) Set parameters *n, m*
- (2) Randomly select 2/3 TCGA data; run training process
- (3) Assess performance on 1/3 held out data
- (4) Repeat steps (2-3) 5 times
- (5) Repeat steps (1-4) for each parameter set

Select parameter set with maximum mean AUPRC. Train on all TCGA data

CancerCellNet



Ε

AUPRC on ICGC









Classification Score













В









BRCA-Basal BRCA-LumA BRCA-LumA BRCA-LumB BRCA-LumB BRCA-Normal BRCA-Normal BRCA-Normal BRCA-Normal BRCA-Mormal COAD READ-MSI/CIMP COAD READ-MSI/CIMP COAD READ-MSI/CIMP COAD READ-MORAL COAD READ-MINICA COAD READ-MINICA COAD READ-MINICA BRCA-UNKNOWN BRCA-UNKNOWN HNSC-Basal HNSC-Mesenchymal HNSC-Normal Tissue HNSC-Mesenchymal HNSC-Normal Tissue HNSC-Normal Tissue KIRC-4 KIRC-Normal Tissue GG-ME LGG-NE LGG-NE LGG-NE LGG-NE LGG-NE LGG-NE LUAD-prox-inflam LUAD-prox-inflam LUAD-prox-inflam LUSC-classical CCC-MONNTI STAD-UNKNOWN CCC-COMMINICAL UCCC-Serous UCCC-UNKNOWN

Ε

asal	-			н
ler2	4			
mA				
шĄ				
ImB				
mal				
sue	-			H
own	-			H
CINI	_			
sive				
IMP				
sue	-			
own	-			-
AC	4			
inc inc				
own				
olcal				
asal				H-I
sical	+			EH I
mal	-			E-1
in al				· · · ·
sue				
own	1			
C-1	1			
C-2	+			
C-3	-			E-1
C A	_			
0-4				
sue				H
own	-			
-CL	+			
-MF	-		· · · ·	H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-H-
-NF	4			H
own				
lam				H-1
olif.	-			н
RU				н
- VO	-			
asd				
sical	1			
itive	1			
torv	-			H-4
own	-			н
acal	4			
asal				
sical	1			
urity	1			
owń	+			
fuse				H-1
tinal	4			
own				
loid	1			
sue	-			н
ous	-			H-4
own				н
		1	-	
	0.00	0.25	0.50	0.75 1.00

0.25 0.50 0.75 Mean AUPRC







Α

С

1.00



















1.000.00 0.25 0.50 0.75 0.25 0.50 0.75 0.50 0.50 0.75 1.00 0.00 1.000.00 0.25 0.75 1.000.00 0.25 CCN_Scores

