SUMMARY

Brain metastasis is an ominous complication of cancer, yet most cancer cells that infiltrate the brain die of unknown causes. Here, we identify plasmin from the reactive brain stroma as a defense against metastatic invasion, and plasminogen activator (PA) inhibitory serpins in cancer cells as a shield against this defense. Plasmin suppresses brain metastasis in two ways: by converting membrane-bound astrocytic FasL into a paracrine death signal for cancer cells, and by inactivating the axon pathfinding molecule L1CAM, which metastatic cells express for spreading along brain capillaries and for metastatic outgrowth. Brain metastatic cells from lung cancer and breast cancer express high levels of anti-PA serpins, including neuroserpin and serpin B2, to prevent plasmin generation and its metastasis-suppressive effects. By protecting cancer cells from death signals and fostering vascular co-option, anti-PA serpins provide a unifying mechanism for the initiation of brain metastasis in lung and breast cancers.

INTRODUCTION

Metastasis is the main cause of death from cancer, but biologically, metastasis is a rather inefficient process. Most cancer cells that leave a solid tumor perish, and much of this attrition happens as circulating cancer cells infiltrate distant organs (Chambers et al., 2002). Although mechanisms for early steps of tumor cell dispersion and late stages of macrometastatic outgrowth are known (Valastyan and Weinberg, 2011; Vanharanta and Massagué, 2013), the factors that determine the survival and adaptation of disseminated cancer cells in vital organs remain obscure. Identifying these factors is particularly critical in the case of brain metastasis. Brain relapse is the most devastating complication of cancer, with acute neurologic distress and high mortality being typical traits (Gavrilovic and Posner, 2005). The incidence of brain metastasis is ten times higher than that of all primary brain tumors combined (Maher et al., 2009). Lung cancer and breast cancer are the top sources of brain metastasis, together accounting for nearly two-thirds of total cases. However, it is in the brain that infiltrating cancer cells face a particularly high rate of attrition, as shown in experimental models (Kienast et al., 2010). Brain metastasis tends to be a late complication of cancer in the clinic (Feld et al., 1984; Karrison et al., 1999) and is rare in mice with genetically engineered tumors that readily metastasize to other organs (Francia et al., 2011; Winslow et al., 2011).

The severe attrition of metastatic cells in the brain and the late occurrence of brain metastasis in the clinic argue that circulating cancer cells face major hurdles in colonizing this organ. Cancer cells require specialized mechanisms to traverse the blood-brain barrier (BBB), and molecular mediators of this process were recently identified (Bos et al., 2009; Li et al., 2013). However, most cancer cells that pass the BBB die (Heyn et al., 2006; Kienast et al., 2010). Interestingly, cancer cells that succeed in infiltrating the brain present the striking feature of adhering to the surface of capillaries and growing as a sheath around the vessels, whereas those that fail to co-opt the vasculature also fail to thrive (Carbonell et al., 2009; Kienast et al., 2010; Lorger and Felding-Habermann, 2010). What kills most cancer cells that pass through the BBB, and what enables the few survivors to co-opt the vasculature are questions of biologic and clinical interest.

Seeking to define common mechanisms for metastatic colonization of the brain, we focused on a small set of genes whose expression is associated with brain metastatic phenotypes in...
both lung and breast adenocarcinoma models. One of these genes, SERPINI1, encoding the plasminogen activator (PA) inhibitor neuroserpin (NS), is normally expressed mainly in the brain. Tissue PA (tPA) and urokinase PA (uPA) convert plasminogen into plasmin, an endopeptidase that mediates fibrinolysis in blood clot resolution and is also involved in the stromal response to brain injury (Benaroch, 2007; Sofroniew and Vinters, 2010). Reactive astrocytes are major sources of PAs in ischemia and neurodegenerative injury (Adhami et al., 2008; Ganesh and Chintala, 2011; Teesalu et al., 2001). To avert the deleterious action of plasmin, neurons express NS (Yepes et al., 2000). We found that by secreting PA inhibitory serpins, brain metastatic cells thwart the lethal action of plasmin from the reactive stroma. Moreover, suppression of Fas-mediated cancer cell killing and promotion of L1 cell adhesion molecule (L1CAM)-mediated vascular co-option lie downstream of anti-PA serpin action as critical requirements for the initiation of brain metastasis.

RESULTS

Association of PA-Inhibitory Serpins with the Brain Metastatic Phenotype

To identify shared mediators of brain metastasis, we compared the transcriptomic signatures of brain metastatic subpopulations (BrM) that were isolated from the lymph-node-derived human lung adenocarcinoma cell lines H2030 and PC9 (Nguyen et al., 2009) and the pleural-effusion-derived breast cancer cell lines MDA-MB-231 (MDA231 for short) and CN34 (Bos et al., 2009; Figure S1A). Seven genes were upregulated in brain metastatic cells compared with the source parental lines in at least three of the four models (Figure S1A available online). Among these genes, LEF1 was previously defined as a mediator of WNT signaling in brain metastasis (Nguyen et al., 2009). Of the remaining genes, only SERPINI1, encoding NS, was associated with brain relapse in human primary tumors (see below). This was intriguing because NS expression is normally restricted to neurons, where it protects against PA cytotoxicity (Yepes et al., 2000).

The 36 serpin family members in human collectively target 18 proteases (Irving et al., 2000). Four serpins (NS and serpins B2, E1, and E2) selectively inhibit PA (Law et al., 2006). The mRNA levels for three of the four were upregulated >3-fold in brain metastatic cells (Figure 1A). Only one other serpin, SERPIND1, was also upregulated (Figure 1A). Serpin D1 inhibits thrombin, which cooperates with plasminogen in cerebral injury (Fujimoto et al., 2008). Bone metastatic derivatives (MDA231-BoM) (Kang et al., 2003) and lung metastatic derivatives (MDA231-LM2) (Minn et al., 2005) were available for comparisons with MDA231-BrM2, and showed little or no upregulation of the serpins (Figure 1B).

Additionally, we established the cell line ErbB2-P from a mouse mammary tumor driven by a mutant ErbB2 transgene (Muller et al., 1988) and then isolated a brain metastatic derivative (ErbB2-BrM2) by selection of ErbB2-P in congenic mice. ErbB2-BrM2 cells showed a strong upregulation of serpins B2 and D1 compared with ErbB2-P (Figure 1A). We also screened four cell lines derived from lymph node metastases of genetically engineered KrasG12D; p53−/− mouse lung adenocarcinomas (Winslow et al., 2011). All four lines were highly metastatic to visceral organs but ranged widely in brain metastatic activity (Figures 1C and S1B), and brain metastasis was associated with high expression of serpins I1, B2, E2, and/or D1 (Figures 1C and 1D).

The upregulation of NS and serpin B2 in brain metastatic cells was confirmed at the protein level (Figures S1C and S1D). Moreover, conditioned media from brain metastatic cells inhibited the generation of plasmin activity from plasminogen (Figures 1E, 1F, and S1E). The only exception was PC9-BrM3, a cell line that is less aggressive in brain metastasis compared with H2030-BrM3 (Nguyen et al., 2009) and lacks upregulated anti-PA serpins (Figures 1A, S1C, and S1D).

NS and Serpin B2 in Human Brain Metastasis Tissues

Focusing on the two most frequently upregulated anti-PA serpins in these models, NS and serpin B2, we queried gene-expression data from 106 primary lung adenocarcinomas with relapse annotation (Nguyen et al., 2009). The expression level of SERPINI1 and SERPINB2 in the tumors was associated with brain relapse, both as individual genes (data not shown) and combined (p = 0.018, hazard ratio = 2.33 ± 0.3; Figure 1G). Expression of the two genes was not significantly associated with metastasis to bone or lungs (p = 0.89, hazard ratio = 0.91 ± 0.33; p = 0.36, hazard ratio = 0.76 ± 0.27; Figures S1F and S1G). SERPINI1 and SERPINB2 expression in breast tumors was not a predictor of brain metastasis (p = 0.21, hazard ratio = 0.96 ± 0.16; Figure S1H), though in most of these cases brain relapse was a late event that might have been seeded from metastases in other organs.

We performed an immunohistochemical analysis of NS and serpin B2 in human brain metastasis tissue using mouse brain lesions formed by serpin-expressing human cancer cells as a reference (Figure S1I). Among 33 metastases of non-small-cell lung carcinomas (NSCLCs), 45% scored positive for NS and 94% scored positive for serpin B2. Among 123 metastases from various subtypes of breast cancer, 77% scored positive for NS and 34% scored positive for serpin B2 (Figures 1H, 1J, S1I, and S1J). The immunoreactivity was distributed diffusely in the cytoplasm of carcinoma cells and only minimally in the scant extracellular stroma. Positivity for NS and serpin B2 in the inflammatory infiltrate was limited.

Plasmin Is Lethal to Cancer Cells that Invade the Brain Parenchyma

The MDA231-BrM2 and H2030-BrM3 models are metastatic to the brain from orthotopic tumors and the arterial circulation (Bos et al., 2009; Nguyen et al., 2009). We inoculated these cells into the arterial circulation of immunodeficient mice via the left cardiac ventricle and fixed the tissue to count cancer cells lodged in the brain capillary network at different time points (Figures 2A–2C and S2A). One day after inoculation, we observed isolated cancer cells trapped within brain capillaries (Figure 2B, and H2030-BrM3 data not shown). Cells passing through the BBB were observed between days 2 and 7 after inoculation (Figures 2B and S2B). All cells that remained within capillaries on day 7 stained positive for the apoptosis marker, cleaved caspase-3 (Figures S2C and S2D). No intravascular cells were observed thereafter. In parental MDA231, the number of extravasated cells
Figure 1. Association of PA-Inhibitory Serpins with the Brain Metastatic Phenotype

(A) Serpin mRNA levels in brain metastatic cell lines relative to the levels in counterparts not metastatic to brain. TN, triple negative; ER−, estrogen receptor negative; PR−, progesterone receptor negative.

(B) mRNA levels of the indicated serpins in the parental MDA231 cell line and derivatives with different metastatic tropisms. Error bars, 95% confidence interval.

(C) Representative ex vivo bioluminescence images of brains from syngeneic mice inoculated with Kras<sup>G12D</sup>;p53<sup>/−/−</sup> mouse lung cancer cell lines. The percentage of mice that developed brain metastasis and the mean BLI photon flux signal are indicated. n = 10.

(D) Heatmap of serpin mRNA expression in Kras<sup>G12D</sup>;p53<sup>/−/−</sup> derivatives.

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dropped sharply after day 5 and rarely recovered (Figure S2B). In line with previous reports (Kienast et al., 2010; Lorger and Felding-Habermann, 2010), >90% of cancer cells that entered the brain disappeared within days. In MDA231-BrM2, the number of extravasated cells increased until day 7 and then dropped sharply by day 10, but recovered by day 16. The survivors were bound to and stretched over the abluminal surface of brain capillaries (Figures 2A and 2B). Outgrowth occurred mainly on co-opted vessels (Figure 2C; summarized in Figure 2D).

In the brain, metastatic cells were in close proximity to astrocytes (Figures 2E, S2E, and S2F), microglia, and neurons (Figures S2G–S2J). Reactive astrocytes, identified by high glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) expression and a stellate morphology, were associated with cancer cells right after extravasation and thereafter (Figures 2E, S2E, and S2F). Reactive astrocytes are a major source of PA in brain injury (Adhami et al., 2008; Ganesh and Chintala, 2011). Indeed, mouse brain sections harboring metastatic cells showed tPA and uPA immunoreactivity associated with astrocytes (Figures 2F and 2G). Mouse astrocytes cultures were superior to microglia for converting plasminogen to plasmin (Figure S2K). Neurons produce plasminogen for neurite and synapse formation (Gutiérrez-Fernández et al., 2009). Plasminogen immunoreactivity was associated with NeuN+ neurons near metastatic cells in mouse brain (Figure 2H). Thus, the brain metastasis microenvironment contains the necessary components for plasmin production.

To determine whether plasmin is harmful to metastatic cells in the brain parenchyma, we used mouse brain slice cultures (Figure 2I). When placed on top of brain slices, H2030-BrM3 cells migrated into the tissue, targeted blood capillaries, and spread on the surface of the vessels (Figure 2J). H2030-BrM3 cells proliferated under these conditions (Figures 2K and 2L), whereas parental H2030 did not proliferate (Figures 2K and 2L) and underwent apoptosis (Figures 2M and 2N). Similar results were obtained with MDA231 cells (Figure S2N). In cocultures of cancer cells with astrocytes and microglia, plasminogen addition triggered apoptosis in parental H2030, but not in H2030-BrM3 (Figures S2L and S2M). The brain slices contained endogenous plasmin activity, and addition of a plasmin inhibitor, α2-antiplasmin (Bajou et al., 2008), inhibited this activity (Figures S2O and S2P) and increased the survival of parental H2030 cells in the slices (Figures 2K–2N). Of note, addition of plasmin to cancer cell monolayer cultures did not trigger apoptosis (Figure S2Q). These results suggested that plasmin acting through unknown substrates kills infiltrating cancer cells in the brain, whereas highly metastatic cells are shielded from this threat (Figure 2O).

NS Protects Metastatic Cells from Plasmin-Mediated Attrition

To investigate the role of NS in brain metastasis, we first used the H2030-BrM3 model, in which only this serpin is upregulated (refer to Figure 1A). Brain lesions formed by H2030-BrM3 cells showed strong NS immunoreactivity (Figure S3A). Two small hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) that decreased NS expression and secretion by >85% (Figures S3B and S3C) did not affect the growth of H2030-BrM3 cells in culture (Figure S3D) but inhibited the metastatic activity of these cells, as shown by bioluminescence imaging (BLI) of marker luciferase in vivo (Figures 3A–3D), BLI ex vivo (Figure 3E), and marker GFP expression in brain sections (Figure 3E). NS depletion in H2030-BrM3 decreased the number and size of brain lesions (Figures 3F and 3E), with a >90% overall reduction in brain tumor burden (Figure 3G). The few macroscopic lesions that developed were rich in NS (Figure S3F), suggesting escape from the knockdown.

NS knockdown did not inhibit the entry of H2030-BrM3 cells into the brain parenchyma (Figure S3G) or their ability to cross an endothelial/astrocyte BBB-like barrier in vitro, whereas the knockdown of ST6GalNac5, a mediator of BBB extravasation, did (Bos et al., 2009; Figures S3H and S3I). In brain slice assays, NS knockdown in H2030-BrM3 cells decreased the number of infiltrated cells (Figures 3H and 3I) and increased apoptosis (Figures 3H and 3J), whereas overexpression of NS in parental H2030 and MDA231 cells had the opposite effects (Figures 3K and 3L).

Brain Metastasis Mediated by the PA Inhibitory Function of NS

PC9-BrM3 can infiltrate the brain but are less aggressive than H2030-BrM3 in colonizing it (Nguyen et al., 2009) and show no upregulation of anti-PA serpins (refer to Figure 1A). PC9-BrM3 cells were stably transduced with vectors encoding the wild-type NS or a mutant (NSΔloop) that is devoid of PA inhibitory function (Takehara et al., 2009; Figures S3J–S3M). Wild-type NS significantly increased the brain metastatic activity of PC9-BrM3, whereas the mutant did not (Figures 3M and 3N). PC9-BrM3 cells are also metastatic to bone (Nguyen et al., 2009), and NS overexpression did not markedly affect this activity (Figures 3M and 3N). NSΔloop was also ineffective at protecting the parental H2030 and MDA231 cells from apoptosis in brain tissue (Figures 3K and 3L). These results suggest that NS mediates brain metastatic activity in cancer cells by inhibiting PA.

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Figure 2. Vascular Co-Option, Outgrowth, and Escape from Stromal Plasmin Action

(A) Metastatic cell interactions with brain capillaries. MDA231-BrM2 cells (green) remain bound to brain capillaries (red) after completing extravasation.

(B) Confocal analysis of the extravasation steps showing a GFP+ MDA231-BrM2 cell.

(C) Cluster of extravasated MDA231-BrM2 cells forming a sheath around a brain capillary. All extravasated cells initially grew in this manner. Blue, nuclear staining.

(D) Schema representing the initial steps and interactions during metastatic colonization of the brain.

(E) Exposure of metastatic H2030-BrM3 cells to GFAP+ reactive astrocytes (arrowheads) in the brain parenchyma at different time points after inoculation of cancer cells into the circulation. Day 3: red, collagen IV; white, GFAP; green, GFP+ cancer cells; blue, nuclear staining.

(F and G) tPA and uPA immunofluorescence staining (arrowheads) associated with GFAP+ astrocytes in a mouse brain harboring GFP+ H2030-BrM3 cells (green).

(H) Plasminogen immunofluorescence staining (white, arrowheads) is associated with NeuN+ neuron bodies (red) near a cluster of GFP+ metastatic cells (green) in a mouse brain. Blue, nuclei.

(I) Schema of brain slice organotypic cultures. Cancer cells placed on the surface of slices migrate into the tissue and seek microcapillaries.

(J) Representative image of a brain slice harboring infiltrated H2030-BrM3 cells that are still round (open arrowheads) or already spread over brain capillaries (closed arrowheads).

(K) Representative confocal images of brain slice tissue infiltrated with the indicated cancer cells. α2-antiplasmin was added to the indicated cultures. Note the lower density and disorganized aspect of parental cells compared with the stretched morphology of BrM3 cells or parental cells with α2-antiplasmin.

(L) Quantification of GFP+ cancer cells in the experiments of (K). The numbers of cells per field of view (FOV) are averages ± SEM, n = 6–10 brain slices, scoring at least two fields per slice, in at least two independent experiments.

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Role of Anti-PA Serpins in Brain Metastatic Breast Cancer Cells

Unlike the H2030-BrM3 cells, most other brain metastatic models and a large proportion of human brain metastatic tissues overexpressed not one but multiple anti-PA serpins (refer to Figures 1A and 1I). In MDA231-BrM2, a triple knockdown of the three upregulated serpins (B2, D1, and NS; Figures S4A–S4C) inhibited the brain metastatic activity of the cells more than did the knockdown of any individual serpin (Figures 4A, 4B, S4G, and S4H). The knockdown of serpin B2 (Figures S4D and S4E) partially inhibited the brain metastatic activity of MDA231-BrM2, and the lost activity could be rescued by enforced overexpression of NS (Figures 4A, 4B, and S4F). Clonal cell lines isolated from the MDA231-BrM2 population showed heterogeneity in the overexpression of anti-PA serpins. Compared with the parental MDA231 population, we observed upregulation of NS in nine out of ten clones, serpin B2 in five out of ten, and serpin D1 in eight out of ten (Figures 4C and S4I). As a trend, clones with high levels of the three serpins were more metastatic to brain than were clones with lower levels (Figures 4D and S4J). Clones with high levels of NS and serpin D1 lost brain metastatic activity when transduced with NS shRNA (Figure 4E). In the ErbB2-BrM2 model, the knockdown of its only upregulated anti-PA serpin, serpin B2 (refer to Figure 1A), strongly decreased the brain metastatic activity in immunocompetent mice (Figures 4F–4H). In sum, the evidence indicated that expression of one or more anti-PA serpins provides lung cancer and breast cancer cells with a critical advantage in the formation of brain metastases.

Metastatic Cells Face FasL in the Brain

We searched plasmin substrate databases (MEROPS and CutDB) for proteins whose cleavage might affect brain metastasis (Bajou et al., 2008; Chen and Strickland, 1997; Nayeem et al., 1999; Pang et al., 2004). We focused first on FasL, a pro-apoptotic cytokine. Fasl is a membrane-associated homorneric protein that binds to Fas, a receptor that activates proapoptotic caspases through the adaptor protein FADD (Ashkenazi and Dixit, 1998). Fasl is highly expressed in reactive astrocytes in ischemia, brain trauma, Alzheimer’s disease, encephalomyelitis, and multiple sclerosis (Choi and Benveniste, 2004). Astrocytes are the main source of Fasl against invading T cells in encephalomyelitis (Wang et al., 2013). Plasmin cleaves Fasl at Arg144, releasing sFasl as a diffusible cell death signal (Bajou et al., 2008; Fang et al., 2012). Therefore, we asked whether anti-PA serpin serpids shield cancer cells from the lethal action of plasmin-mobilized sFasl (Figure 5A).

Fasl immunoreactivity in brain sections harboring H2030-BrM3 lesions was concentrated on reactive astrocytes (Figures 5B and SS5A). Human and mouse astrocytes expressed Fasl in culture (Figures 5C and SS5B). Addition of plasminogen decreased the level of cell-bound FasL in these cultures and increased sFasl in the supernatants (Figures 5C, 5D, and SS5–SSE). Addition of anti-PA serpins or antiplasmin decreased the level of sFasl in mouse brain slices (Figure 5E). These results showed that the PA-plasmin system can mobilize stromal Fasl in response to metastatic invasion of the brain.

H2030, PC9, MDA231, and CN34 expressed Fas, as did their BrM derivatives (Figure SS5F). Addition of sFasl caused apoptosis in BrM cells in monolayer cultures (Figures SS5G–SS5I) and in brain tissue (Figures 5F–5H), even in the presence of α2-antiplasmin (Figure SS5J). Conversely, addition of anti-FasL blocking antibody protected parental H2030 cells against apoptosis in brain tissue (Figures 5G–5I). Thus, brain metastatic cells are susceptible to apoptosis if they are exposed to sFasl in the brain parenchyma, and this occurs downstream of plasmin.

NS Shields Brain Metastatic Cells from Fas-Mediated Killing

To determine whether Fas signaling caused the death of cancer cells that infiltrated the brain, we used a FADD-DD construct and acts as a dominant-negative inhibitor of Fas signaling (Chinnaiyan et al., 1996; Figure 5J). Transduction of FADD-DD in the H2030-BrM3 cell line (Figure 5K) prevented the activation of caspase 3 by sFasl (Figure 5L). The apoptosis that anti-PA serpin-depleted BrM cells suffer in brain tissue (refer to Figures 3H–3J and SS5L) could be prevented by adding anti-FasL blocking antibodies to the tissue cultures, as well as by enforcing the expression of FADD-DD in the cancer cells (Figures SS5M, SS5N, and SS5L). Moreover, FADD-DD partially rescued the metastatic activity of NS-depleted H2030-BrM3 (Figure 5O). Collectively, these results showed that anti-PA serpin activity shields metastatic cells from Fasl attack in the brain.

The Plasmin Target L1CAM Mediates Cancer Cell Adhesion

Although inhibition of Fas signaling with FADD-DD protected NS-depleted cancer cells from death in the brain, it did not fully restore their metastatic activity (Figure 5O). The NS-depleted, FADD-DD-expressing H2030-BrM3 cells formed smaller lesions that were less well organized (Figure S6A). Therefore, we postulated that anti-PA serpins promote brain metastasis by doing more than just preventing FasL action.

Several clues led us to consider L1CAM as a relevant mediator of metastasis in this context. L1CAM is mainly expressed in neural tissues and in tumors (Schäfer and Altevogt, 2010). It consists of six immunoglobulin-like (Ig) domains, five fibronectin-like (FN) domains, a transmembrane region, and...
Figure 3. NS Mediates Brain Metastasis

(A) Schema of the experimental design.

(B) Representative images of whole-body BLI and brain ex vivo BLI 5 weeks after inoculation of H2030-BrM3 cells transduced with control shRNA or NS shRNA (shNS).

(C) Kaplan-Meier plot of brain-metastasis-free survival in the experiment of (B). Control (n = 20) and two different shNS (shNS (1), n = 11; shNS (2), n = 13) were analyzed; p values were obtained with the log rank Mantel-Cox test.

(D) Quantification of ex vivo BLI in brains from (B).

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an intracellular domain (Figure 6A). The L1CAM Ig-like repeats mediate homo- and heterophilic interactions for axon guidance (Maness and Schachner, 2007). L1CAM binds to itself, to integrins (Felding-Habermann et al., 1997), and to other proteins (Castellani et al., 2002; Donier et al., 2012; Kulahin et al., 2009). L1CAM expression in tumors is implicated in invasion (Voura et al., 2001) and associated with poor prognosis (Doberstein et al., 2011; Schröder et al., 2009). Plasmin cleaves L1CAM at dibasic motifs (Lys860/Lys863), disrupting the capacity for cell adhesion (Nayeem et al., 1999; Silletti et al., 2000; Figure 6A).

Hence, we postulated that L1CAM mediates plasmin-sensitive vascular co-option by metastatic cells in the brain. L1CAM was expressed in the cancer cell lines regardless of their metastatic activity, tumor type, or species of origin (Figures S6B and S6C). H2030-BrM3 cells readily adhered to monolayers of human brain microvascular endothelial cells (HBMECs; Figures 6B and 6C) and to monolayers of their own (Figure 6D). RNAi-mediated knockdown of L1CAM (Figure S6B) inhibited these cell-cell binding activities (Figures 6C and 6D). Addition of plasmin to cancer cell monolayers caused a decrease in cell-associated L1CAM levels, as shown by flow cytometry (Figure 6E) and by the accumulation of a 150 kDa fragment in the media (Figure 6F; Mechtler et al., 2001). Moreover, plasmin-treated H2030-BrM3 cells lost cell adhesion capacity (Figures 6G and 6H).

(E) Representative images of coronal brain sections analyzed with immunofluorescence (IF) against GFP at 21 or 35 days after inoculation of H2030-BrM3 cells into mice. Lesion contours are marked.

(F) Quantification of brain lesions according to the size at the 21 day time point in (E). Control n = 5, shNS n = 6 brains; p value refers to size distribution. For the total number of lesions, p < 0.05.

(G) Quantification of brain tumor burden in the experiment of (E). Control n = 5, shNS n = 6.

(H) Representative images of control and NS-depleted H2030-BrM3 cells in brain slice assays. Insets show cleaved caspase-3 IF.

(i) and (j) Quantification of GFP+ cells (i) and cleaved caspase-3 (j) in the experiment of (H). Data are averages ± SEM; n = 6–10 slices, scoring at least two fields per slice, in at least two independent experiments.

(K and L) Quantification of cells that were positive for cleaved caspase-3, comparing parental and BrM cell lines, and the effect of overexpressing NS wild-type (NSWT) or a mutant form unable to target PA (NS3loop) in parental cell lines H2030 (K) and MDA231 (L). Data are averages ± SEM, quantified as (J).

(M) Representative ex vivo BLI images of brains and hindlimbs from mice 21 days after inoculation with PC9-BrM3. Cells were transduced with empty vector (n = 5), NSWT (n = 7), or NS3loop mutant (n = 8).

(N) Ratio of photon flux in brain versus bone in the experiment of (M). Ex vivo brain mean BLI values are also shown. All p values were calculated by Student’s t test, except in (C). Scale bars, 250 μm (E), 100 μm, and 5 μm (inset) (H). See also Figure S3.
Figure 5. NS Shields Cancer Cells from FasL Death Signals

(A) Schema of FasL, and its conversion by plasmin into sFasL, a diffusible trigger of apoptosis through Fas-FADD signaling. TMD, transmembrane domain; SA, trimeric self-assembly domain; THD, tumor necrosis factor-homology domain; red crosses, apoptotic cells; a, astrocyte; c, cancer cell.

(B) IF with antibodies against GFP (cancer cells), GFAP (reactive astrocytes), and FasL in a mouse brain harboring metastatic cells 21 days after arterial inoculation of H2030-BrM3.

(C) Images of astrocyte cultures incubated with exogenous plasminogen (1 μM) or no additions. Staining was performed with antibodies against the extracellular domain (ECD) or intracellular domain (ICD) of FasL.

(D) Western immunoblotting of supernatants from cultures shown in (C) using anti-FasL ECD antibodies.

(E) Mouse brain slices were incubated with α2-antiplasmin, NS, and serpin B2, or no additions. sFasL in tissue lysates was detected by western immunoblotting with anti-FasL ECD. Quantification of band density relative to tubulin (left to right) yielded sFasL:FasL ratios of 1, 0.51, and 0.28.

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L1CAM Mediates Vascular Co-Option and Metastatic Outgrowth

The molecular basis for vascular co-option in cancer remains unknown. To address this issue, we asked whether L1CAM participates in vascular co-option by metastatic cells in the brain. L1CAM depletion in H2030-BrM3 cells did not affect their ability to grow in culture (Figure S6D), infiltrate brain tissue, or seek capillaries (Figures 6I and S6E). Notably, L1CAM depletion significantly reduced the ability of H2030-BrM3 and MDA231-BrM2 cells to spread on the abluminal surface of the capillaries (Figures 6I, 6J, and S6G). This was accompanied with a marked decrease in the proliferation marker Ki67 in vessel-associated cancer cells (Figure 6K), without changes in apoptosis markers (Figure S6F).

PC9-BrM3 cells, which do not overexpress endogenous anti-PA serpins, had a limited ability to spread on brain capillaries (Figures 6L and 6M). Enforced expression of NS in these cells not only augmented their metastatic activity (see Figure 3N) but also increased their spreading on brain capillaries (Figures 6L and 6M) and their proliferation on the co-opted vessels (Figure 6N). L1CAM depletion in PC9-BrM3-NS cells (Figures S6H and S6I) abrogated these NS-dependent gains (Figures 6L–6N).

L1CAM Supports Metastasis Initiation Downstream of NS

L1CAM immunostaining was clearly detectable on carcinoma cells in a majority of the human NSCLC brain metastasis samples examined, and tended to be concentrated at cell interfaces (Figures S7A and S7B). L1CAM-positive cells were present in clusters. In the brain of inoculated mice, extravasated H2030-BrM3 cells were spread over the basal lamina of capillaries, without discernible contacts with the endothelial cells (Figure 7A). L1CAM immunostaining in micrometastases was concentrated at the interfaces of cancer cells with capillaries and adjacent cancer cells (Figure 7B). In recently extravasated H2030-BrM3 cells, L1CAM-depletion allowed cell contact with capillaries but prevented cell spreading over the capillaries (Figure 7C).

Twenty-one days later, L1CAM-depleted cells remained mostly as single cells or small clusters, whereas the wild-type cells readily expanded over the capillary network and formed large colonies (Figures 7D and 7E). L1CAM knocked down markedly decreased the overall brain metastatic activity of H2030-BrM3 and MDA231-BrM2 cells (Figures 7F–7H). Moreover, L1CAM depletion abrogated the gain in metastatic activity of PC9-BrM3 cells imparted by enforced NS overexpression (Figure 7I). These results argued that L1CAM expression in metastatic cells acts downstream of NS to mediate co-option of brain capillaries and metastatic outgrowth.

DISCUSSION

The growing incidence of brain metastasis warrants a better understanding of the molecular mechanisms that underlie this condition. Our findings illuminate two critical requisites for metastatic colonization of the brain, namely, the escape of infiltrating cancer cells from killing by reactive stromal signals, and the striking ability of the surviving cancer cells to co-opt brain capillaries for metastatic expansion. We show that a stromal PA-plasmin pathway and its inhibition by carcinoma serpins control both of these processes in brain metastasis from lung and breast cancers, suggesting a unified mechanism for metastatic colonization of the brain.

Anti-PA Serpins as Common Mediators of Brain Metastasis

Brain metastasis involves close and sustained interactions of cancer cells with brain capillaries and reactive astrocytes. Pervious work (Carbonell et al., 2009; Kienast et al., 2010; Lorger and Felding-Habermann, 2010) and our own studies show that circulating cancer cells interact with capillary walls not only during extravasation but also thereafter, by attaching to the abluminal surface and growing as a sheath along the co-opted vessels. Cancer cells that infiltrate the brain are immediately exposed to astrocytes that abound in the perivascular space and produce deleterious signals to repel invading cells. Cancer cells must be shielded from such signals in order to survive and to extract benefits from the stroma, including benefits from astrocytes (Lin et al., 2010; Seike et al., 2011). We show that the expression of anti-PA serpins in cancer cells provides such a shield. Serpin D1 and three out of four known anti-PA serpins are expressed in our six brain metastasis models. The most prominent of these serpins, NS and B2, are expressed in a majority of brain metastases from lung cancer and breast cancer patients. The PA-plasmin system is well characterized in connection with its role in blood clot resolution, but its role in cancer has remained paradoxical. Although

(F) GFP+ H2030-BrM3 cells (green) were allowed to infiltrate brain slices in media containing added sFasL or no additions and scored for cleaved caspase-3 (red, inset).

(G and H) Quantification of total GFP+ cells (G) and apoptotic GFP+ cells (H) in the experiments of (F) (orange bars) and (I) (green bars). Data are averages ± SEM, n = 6–10 slices, scoring at least two fields per slice, from at least two independent experiments.

(i) GFP+ H2030 cells (green) were allowed to infiltrate brain slices in media containing anti-FasL blocking antibody or no additions. Anti-FasL prevented endogenous signals from triggering caspase-3 activation (red, inset).

(J) Depiction of FADD-DD overexpression (yellow shape) to suppress proapoptotic Fas signaling in cancer cells.

(K) FADD expression in H2030-BrM3 transduced with a FADD-DD vector.

(L) Quantification of apoptotic cells following sFasL addition to H2030-BrM3 cells transduced with the indicated vectors.

(M and N) Quantification of total GFP+ cells (M) and apoptotic GFP+ cells (N) in brain slices harboring the indicated GFP+ H2030-BrM3 transfectants and/or additions. Data are averages ± SEM and quantitated as (G) and (H).

(O) Brain metastatic activity of H2030-BrM3 cells transduced with the indicated vectors and inoculated into the arterial circulation of mice. BLI photon flux was quantitated in cells transduced with control shRNA (n = 11), FADD-DD (n = 4), NS shRNA (n = 14), or NS shRNA and FADD-DD (n = 12).

All p values were determined by Student’s t test. Scale bars, 25 μm (B), 200 μm (C), 100 μm (F and I), and 5 μm (insets in F and I). See also Figure S8.
Figure 6. The Plasmin Target L1CAM Mediates Vascular Co-Option by Brain Metastatic Cells

(A) Schema of L1CAM as a mediator of homophilic and heterophilic (e.g., integrins) cell adhesive interactions, and its conversion by plasmin into an adhesion-defective fragment. Ig and fibronectin type III (FNIII) domain repeats, the ICD, and an integrin-binding RGD sequence are indicated.

(B) Suspensions of GFP+ H2030-BrM3 cells were placed on top of a monolayer of HBMECs.

(C and D) Analysis of H2030-BrM3 binding to HBMEC monolayers (C) or H2030-BrM3 monolayers (D), and the effect of L1CAM knockdown. Data are averages ± SEM, n = 5, scoring at least ten fields per coverslip.

(E) Flow cytometry of cell-surface L1CAM in the indicated brain cells expressing L1CAM shRNA or incubated with plasmin, compared with untreated controls.

(legend continued on next page)
plasmin can promote cancer cell proliferation and invasion by cleaving growth factor precursors and extracellular matrix proteins (McMahon and Kwaan, 2008), anti-PA serpin levels in tumors and blood are associated with poor outcome in many cancers (Berger, 2002; Foekens et al., 1995; Harbeck et al., 1999). Here we show that anti-PA serpins shield metastatic cells from PA-plasmin in the brain, providing a clear prometa-
static advantage.

**Averting Fas Killing and Protecting L1CAM Vascular Co-Option**

Although FasL plays important roles in immune homeostasis (Krammer, 2000) and is present in tumors (Baldini et al., 2009), its expression is particularly acute in reactive astrocytes (Beer et al., 2000). Astrocytes are the main source of FasL in response to infiltrating leukocytes, and of PA in response to brain injury. We show that metastasis-associated astrocytes express both PA and FasL. Plasmin releases membrane-bound FasL from astrocytes, and sFasL levels in brain tissue depend on plasmin.

Brain metastatic cells from lung or breast cancers suffer Fas-dependent death in the brain unless they are protected by anti-PA serpins. We conclude that Fas signaling mediates and anti-PA serpins prevent the attrition of infiltrating cancer cells in the brain.

We show that L1CAM mediates the spread of metastatic cells on the vasculature and additionally mediates interactions between cancer cells. When cancer cells are experimentally depleted of L1CAM, they fail to co-opt brain capillaries and metastatic outgrowth stalls. Cancer cell-derived anti-PA serpins prevent plasmin destruction of L1CAM, providing yet another benefit besides averting Fas-mediated cancer cell killing. L1CAM expression is normally restricted to neurons, where it mediates axonal guidance through highly plastic interactions of the growth cone with surrounding components (Wiencken-Barger et al., 2004). The dynamic nature of L1CAM adhesive interactions might be particularly advantageous to cancer cells in their quest to co-opt the vasculature while invading tissue. Although the molecular basis for vascular co-option in cancer is largely unknown, the present identification of L1CAM as a mediator provides an opening for a mechanistic dissection of this process.

**Implications beyond Brain Metastasis**

The molecular mechanisms defined here protect metastatic cells against selective pressures that are particularly acute in the brain. However, a high mortality of infiltrating cancer cells is largely unknown, the present identification of L1CAM as a mediator provides an opening for a mechanistic dissection of this process.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Animal Studies**

All animal experiments were done in accordance with a protocol approved by the MSKCC Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Athymic NCR nu/nu (all from NCI-Frederick), and B6129SF1/J (The Jackson Laboratory) female mice 4–6 weeks of age were used. Brain metastatic derivatives of a syngeneic ErbB2 model (ErbB2-BrM2) were established according to a previous protocol (Bos et al., 2008; Nguyen et al., 2009) and are detailed in the Extended Experimental Procedures. Brain colonization assays were performed as follows: We injected 100 μl of PBS into the left ventricle containing 50,000 cells (for long-term experiments) or 500,000 cells (for short-term experiments) in the case of MDA231-BrM2a, CN34BrM-2c, H2030-BrM3, and PC9-BrM3, and 100,000 cells in the case of 373N1, 393N1, 428N1, 2691N1, and ErbB2-BrM2. Brain colonization was analyzed in vivo and ex vivo by BLI. Anesthetized mice (ketamine 100 mg/kg/xylazine 10 mg/kg) were injected retro-orbitally with D-Luciferin (150 mg/kg) and imaged with an IVIS Spectrum Xenogen machine (Caliper Life Sciences). Bioluminescence analysis was performed using Living Image software, version 2.50.

**Brain Slice Assays**

Organotypic slice cultures from adult mouse brain were prepared by adapting previously described methods (Polleux and Ghosh, 2002). Brains from 4- to 6-
week-old athymic NCR nu/nu mice were dissected in Hank’s balanced salt solution (HBSS) supplemented with HEPES (pH 7.4, 2.5 mM), D-glucose (30 mM), CaCl2 (1 mM), MgSO4 (1 mM), NaHCO3 (4 mM), and embedded in low-melting agarose (Lonza) preheated at 42°C. The embedded brains were cut into 250 μm slices using a vibratome (Leica). Brain slices (bregma –1 mm to +3 mm) were placed with flat spatulas on top of 0.8 μm pore membranes (Millipore) in slice culture media (Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium [DMEM], supplemented HBSS, fetal bovine serum 5%, L-glutamine (1 mM), 100 IU/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin). The brain slices were incubated at 37°C and 5%
CO₂ for 1 hr, and then 3 × 10⁴ cancer cells suspended in 2 μl of culture media were placed on the surface of the slice and incubated for 48–72 hr. Brain slices could be maintained under these conditions for up to 5 days without apparent alterations in tissue architecture.

Brain slices could be maintained under these conditions for up to 5 days without apparent alterations in tissue architecture.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes Extended Experimental Procedures and seven figures and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2014.01.040.

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