1 Invasive lobular carcinoma integrated multi-omics analysis reveals silencing of

2 Arginosuccinate synthase and upregulation of nucleotide biosynthesis in

3 tamoxifen resistance

4 **Running title:** ASS1 silencing confers tamoxifen resistance in ILC

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25 Abstract

Invasive Lobular Carcinoma (ILC), a distinct subtype of breast cancer is hallmarked by E-26 27 Cadherin loss, slow proliferation, and strong hormone receptor positivity. ILC faces significant challenges in clinical management due to advanced stage at diagnosis, late recurrence, and 28 29 development of resistance to endocrine therapy - a cornerstone of ILC treatment. To elucidate the mechanisms underlying endocrine resistance in ILC, ILC cell lines (MDA-MB-134-VI, SUM44PE) 30 31 were generated to be resistant to tamoxifen, a selective estrogen receptor modulator. The 32 tamoxifen-resistant (TAMR) cells exhibit a 2-fold increase tamoxifen IC_{50} relative to parental cells. 33 Metabolomics and RNA-sequencing revealed deregulation of alanine, aspartate, and glutamate 34 metabolism, purine metabolism, and arginine and proline metabolism in TAMR cells. Among the 35 fifteen commonly dysregulated genes in these pathways, low ASS1 expression was identified in the TAMR cells and was significantly correlated with poor outcome in ILC patients, specifically in 36 37 the context of endocrine therapy. Our study reveals methylation mediated silencing of ASS1 in 38 TAMR cells as a likely mechanism of downregulation. Demethylation restored ASS1 expression 39 and correspondingly reduced tamoxifen IC₅₀ toward parental levels. Nucleic acid biosynthesis is augmented in TAMR cells, evidenced by increase in nucleotide intermediates. Both TAMR cell 40 lines demonstrated increased expression of several nucleic acid biosynthesis enzymes, including 41 42 PAICS, PRPS1, ADSS2, CAD, and DHODH. Furthermore, CAD, the key multifunctional protein 43 of *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis pathway is differentially activated in TAMR cells. Treating TAMR cell with Decitabine, a demethylating agent, or Farudodstat, a pyrimidine biosynthesis 44 inhibitor, markedly augmented efficacy of tamoxifen. Collectively, our study unveils ASS1 45 downregulation as a novel mechanism underlying acquired tamoxifen resistance in ILC and 46 47 establishes a metabolic link between ASS1 and nucleic acid biosynthesis. Restoring ASS1 expression or inhibiting pyrimidine biosynthesis restored tamoxifen sensitivity. ASS1 could be a 48 potential biomarker and therapeutic target in tamoxifen resistant ILC patients, warranting further 49 50 investigation.

51 Introduction

Invasive lobular cancer (ILC) is a distinct histological and molecular subtype accounting for ~15% 52 53 of all breast cancers and is the second most common subtype of invasive breast cancer after 54 invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC) [1, 2]. Typically, ILC is estrogen receptor (ER) positive, 55 progesterone receptor (PR) positive, and HER-2 negative with a low mitotic index. Loss of E-56 cadherin is a hallmark of ILC which contributes to the unique morphology, frequent multifocality, 57 and characteristic metastatic pattern to serosa including ovaries, gut, and peritoneum [3, 4, 5]. Patients with ILC face delayed and higher stage at diagnosis, and long-term worse disease-free 58 59 and overall survival [6, 7]. While endocrine therapy remains the cornerstone in treatment of ILC, one of the greatest hurdles in the management of ILC is resistance to endocrine therapy leading 60 to late recurrences [8]. Though a prevalent subtype, ILC remains relatively understudied, and is 61 62 frequently grouped with ER/PR positive IDC; consequently, ILC management including screening, 63 treatment, and follow-up strategies are largely based on data from IDC. Hence there is an unmet need to address mechanism underlying endocrine resistance in ILC and develop strategies to 64 65 overcome resistance.

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67 Tamoxifen, a selective estrogen receptor modulator (SERM), is a cornerstone in endocrine therapy for premenopausal (and certain postmenopausal) women with estrogen receptor-positive 68 (ER+) breast cancer [9]. There is active clinical development of novel SERMs, such as 69 lasofoxefine [10, 11], and bazedoxefine [12]. However, one-third of the patients with ER+/PR+ 70 71 tumors fail to respond to initial tamoxifen treatment, with many relapsing later [13, 14]. The 72 development of tamoxifen resistance, studied predominantly in IDC is a complex phenomenon, involving an interplay of diverse cellular processes and signaling pathways, including upregulation 73 74 of receptor tyrosine kinase activity leading to activation of ERK and PI3K pathway, altered expression of ER α and ER β expression [15] and increased expression of miR-221/222 targeting 75

p27/kip1 [16]. Recent studies demonstrate alteration of cellular metabolism as an important mechanism underlying development of drug resistance [17, 18, 19, 20]. Metabolic plasticity in cancer cells allows hijacking and remodeling existing metabolic pathways to foster cancer cell growth and survival impacting drug response [21]. For example, a recent study using tumor and adjacent normal tissues from IDC patients revealed distinct enrichment of one carbon metabolites in IDC tumors [22], yet similar metabolomic analysis of ILC cell lines and their endocrine resistant derivatives are limited.

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To address these key gaps in ILC biology and therapeutic resistance, we developed and characterized tamoxifen-resistant ILC cell lines through concurrent transcriptional and metabolomic profiles with a goal to identify and characterize candidate therapeutic targets and biomarkers toward improved outcomes for ILC.

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92 Tamoxifen-resistant ILC cell lines

Tamoxifen-resistant (TAMR) cells were generated from two commercially available invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) cell lines, MDA-MB-134-VI (MB134) and SUM44PE (SUM44). The MB134TAMR cells demonstrated marked morphological changes, with parental MB134 cells growing as a loosely adherent monolayer, while the MB134TAMR cells grown routinely in 100 nM 4-hydroxy tamoxifen (4-OHT) acquired a more cuboidal shape and formed larger adherent patches (**Fig. 1A**). SUM44 and SUM44TAMR cells had similar appearance growing as individually dispersed cells, with SUM44TAMR reflecting an increased proportion of cells with spindle like

morphology, grown routinely in 500nM 4-OHT (increased concentration of 4-OHT due to inherent
SUM44 tolerance).

Comparison of growth kinetics demonstrated significant increase in growth rate of TAMR cells 102 relative to parental cells (MB134: p = 0.008, SUM44: p = 0.005) (Fig. 1B). In addition, TAMR cells 103 104 showed >2-fold increase in the half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) for tamoxifen compared to their respective parental counterparts (Fig. 1C), confirming functional tamoxifen 105 resistance. Specifically, tamoxifen IC₅₀ values were 8.4 μ M and 16.3 μ M for MB134 and 106 107 MB134TAMR, respectively, and 11.15 μ M and 27.3 μ M for SUM44 and SUM44TAMR cells, respectively. Both TAMR cells demonstrated increased migration compared to the corresponding 108 109 parental cells, with MB134TAMR 4-fold increase (p=0.04, Fig. 1D) and SUM44TAMR 1.2-fold 110 increase relative to the corresponding parental cells (p=0.046, Fig. 1D). To evaluate if these 111 changes were mediated through canonical breast cancer receptor expression, Western blot 112 analysis revealed comparable ER α protein levels but TAMR cell lines expressed higher levels of HER2 than the parental lines (Fig. 1E): MB134-TAMR line showed a 4-fold increase and SUM44-113 TAMR had a 2-fold increase in HER2 expression. 114

115 Collectively, these data show that TAMR cells reflect morphological, phenotypic, and molecular 116 changes relative to parental cell lines.

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118 Metabolic alterations associated with tamoxifen resistance in ILC cell lines

To elucidate the molecular changes associated with tamoxifen resistance in ILC, we subjected parental and TAMR derivatives of MB134 and SUM44 cell lines to metabolic profiling. Untargeted metabolomics profiling, involving comprehensive compound identification through databases like the Human Metabolite Database (HMDB) and an in-house high-resolution mass spectra database, was conducted on metabolites extracted from our representative cell lines. Using the polar metabolites fraction, we identified 120 metabolites across all samples with a QC coefficient 125 of variation < 20%. Partial least square discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) was performed to summarize the overall metabolic differences between the cell phenotypes. Distinct and tight 126 127 clustering of the experimental groups suggests distinct metabolic profiles pertaining to each cell line (Supplementary Fig. S1A). A heatmap was used to summarize the relative abundance of 128 129 each metabolite across our queried cell lines (Supplementary Fig. S1B), where it became 130 evident that the unique histological origin contributed to the metabolic uniqueness of each cell 131 pair. Taking the abundance of unique metabolites in each pair of cell lines (parental vs. TAMR) into consideration, we chose to first analyze each pair separately. PLS-DA was thus performed 132 to observe the metabolic differences of SUM44 parental vs. SUM44TAMR cells. Fig. 2A shows 133 the independent clustering of SUM44 parental vs. SUM44TAMR cells, where model exhibited an 134 R^2 value of 0.99 and a Q^2 score of 0.97, suggesting good model fit and predictive capability, 135 136 respectively [23]. Our finding suggests that the acquired tamoxifen resistance contributes to a 137 deregulated metabolic profile distinct from the parental line. Herein, a VIP plot highlights the top 15 deregulated metabolites driving separation of the PLS-DA model (Fig. 2B). Phosphocreatine, 138 5-amino levulinate and N-acetyl aspartic acid were the top deregulated metabolite across the 139 140 SUM44 cell pairs. Importantly, many nucleotides and their derivatives, namely cytidine, uridine 141 monophosphate, uridine diphosphate (UDP)-N-acetyl-D-galactosamine, and UDP-xylose were 142 among the top deregulated metabolites driving separation of the PLS-DA model. The metabolic differences of the MB134 cell pair were also probed using a similar analysis, where a PLS-DA 143 model demonstrated independent clustering of MB134 parental and MB134TAMR counterpart 144 with an R^2 value of 0.99 and a Q^2 score of 0.95, indicating good model fit and predictive ability. 145 respectively (Fig. 2C) [23]. The metabolites driving separation of the MB134 cell pair are depicted 146 147 in the VIP plot in Fig. 2D where UDP-xylose, cytidine 5'-triphosphate and D-glucosamine 6-148 phosphate were identified as the top metabolites driving separation of the PLS-DA model. 149 Collectively, our findings corroborate the notion that acquired resistance contributes to an aberrant metabolic profile. 150

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152 Systemically, quantitative enrichment analysis uncovered 14 significantly altered pathways that 153 were associated with the acquired tamoxifen resistance in our SUM44 cell pair [-log(p) value > 1.32 and pathway impact > 0.2]. In comparison, the analysis uncovered 13 significantly altered 154 155 pathways that were associated with the acquired tamoxifen resistance in the MB134 cell pair. The 156 pathways included alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism, tyrosine metabolism, glycine, 157 linoleic acid metabolism, purine metabolism, lysine degradation, arginine biosynthesis, arginine and proline metabolism, as well as D-glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism (Fig. 2E). A full list 158 of the significantly deregulated pathways between our queried cell pairs is summarized in 159 160 **Supplementary Table 1.** To investigate mutually deregulated metabolic processes driven by acquired tamoxifen resistance, we identified 10 mutually deregulated pathways between the 161 162 TAMR and parental cell lines (Fig. 2F & Table 1). The pathways deregulated in both the cell lines 163 were predominantly amino acid metabolism pathways such as alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism, arginine biosynthesis and lysine degradation, but also included nucleotide metabolic 164 processes such as purine metabolism pathway. Importantly, identification of shared metabolic 165 changes across both ILC cell pairs identifies the prominent metabolic processes consistently 166 167 altered as a result of acquired tamoxifen resistance.

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169 Altered nucleic acid and amino acid pathways associated with tamoxifen resistance

To further validate the observed metabolic alterations and delineate the underlying metabolic rewiring, we subjected all four cell lines to RNAseq transcriptomic analysis. The volcano plots show the differentially expressed genes between the SUM44 pair (**Supplementary Fig.S2A**) and MB134 pair (parental vs. TAMR) (**Supplementary Fig.S2B**). The genes deregulated in our RNAseq data were subjected to Gene Set Enrichment analysis (GSEA). A total of 30,000 genes were analyzed and gene sets were mapped to KEGG database. In line with our metabolomics analysis,

transcriptomic data was analyzed separately for each pair of cell lines. Significantly altered
pathways were identified with a cut-off of FDR < 0.2 for significance for both MB134 cell pairs and
SUM44 cell pairs where up to top 14 pathways are shown in Fig. 2G and Fig. 2H, respectively.
Mutually altered pathways across both cell pairs were next analyzed, with 52 pathways identified
to be significantly deregulated as a result of acquired tamoxifen resistance (Fig. 2I). A subset of
the pathways deregulated in both MB134TAMR and SUM44TAMR cells is highlighted in Table 2.

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To further enable mechanistic understanding, an integrated analysis of both metabolomics and 183 transcriptomics revealed that only three mutually deregulated metabolic pathways exhibited 184 similar alterations in both parental and TAMR ILC cells (across both of our metabolomics and 185 transcriptomics datasets): 1) alanine, aspartate, and glutamate metabolism (AAG); 2) purine 186 187 metabolism; and 3) arginine and proline metabolism (Fig. 2J). To further investigate these 188 metabolic changes and to confirm the observed trend in tamoxifen resistant cells, we identified genes overlapping in all dysregulated pathways. While a single gene was not at the intersection 189 190 of all three pathways, 15 genes were found to partake in at least 2 unique metabolic processes 191 Fig. 2K. There were 4 gene overlap between AAG and Purine metabolism pathway, namely 192 ADSS1, ADSS2, ADSL and PPAT. Additionally, there were 11 genes that overlapped between 193 AAG and Arginine & proline metabolism pathways, namely, ALDH4A1, ASS1, ASL, CPS1, GLS, GLS2, GLUL, GLUD1, GLULD2, GOT1, GOT2 (Supplementary Table 2). As these genes 194 partake in an intricate metabolic network, a gene metabolite interaction map between our three 195 196 deregulated pathways was mapped in Fig. 2L to investigate potential association with tamoxifen resistance. This analysis provides a comprehensive view of the molecular landscape associated 197 198 with tamoxifen resistance in ILC cell lines, with ASS1 (Arginosuccinate Synthase 1) emerging as 199 one of the central players in the observed metabolic and transcriptomic alterations connecting 200 amino acid and nucleotide biosynthesis. Collectively, the integration of our unbiased analyses was able to identify 3 unique metabolic pathways directly associated with tamoxifen resistance at 201

202 both the metabolite and transcript level. Overlap of the genes within the deregulated pathways 203 identified 15 mutually expressed genes across at least 2 pathways, where *ASS1* was determined 204 to be one of the central metabolic hubs within this aberrant metabolic network. ASS1 is a key 205 enzyme in urea cycle, synthesizing arginosuccinate from aspartate and citrulline. Downregulation 206 of ASS1 could lead to metabolic diversion of aspartate towards nucleic acid biosynthesis fostering 207 cell proliferation.

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Methylation-mediated downregulation of ASS1 associated with tamoxifen resistance in ILC cell lines

211 Transcriptomics data revealed a significant down-regulation of ASS1 expression in both MB134-TAMR (95%, p = 0.01) and SUM44-TAMR cells (90%, p = 0.019); (Fig. 3A). This finding was further 212 213 confirmed in three independent biological replicates by gRT-PCR, where consistent decrease in 214 ASS1 mRNA levels in TAMR cells (MB134-TAMR: 40%, p<0.0001 and SUM44-TAMR: 73%, p<0.0001) compared to the respective parental cells were observed (Fig. 3B). We also evaluated 215 216 ASS1 expression in ILC cells grown long-term in estrogen deprived (LTED) medium. The MB134-217 LTED and SUM44-LTED cells grown in absence of estrogen demonstrated resistance to tamoxifen [24]. Interestingly, two different clones of LTED cells derived from each ILC cell lines 218 219 showed a significant decrease in ASS1 expression (MB134-LTED: >90%, p<0.0001, SUM44-220 LTED: 90%, p<0.0001; Fig. 3B). Marked reduction of ASS1 protein (60-90%) was observed in 221 TAMR and LTED cells compared to the corresponding parental cell lines (all p < 0.05, Fig. 3C). 222 This observation raises the possibility that estrogen may play a regulatory role in modulating 223 ASS1 expression, although comparable ER α protein levels (as shown in **Fig 1C**).

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We next investigated the mechanism underlying silencing of *ASS1* in TAMR ILC cells. Computational analysis revealed presence of a CpG island in the 5' regulatory region of the *ASS1*

gene spanning from -499 bp to -6bp with +1 as the transcription start site (**Fig 3D**). Methylationspecific PCR (MSP) using methyl CpG specific primers led to amplification of a 150bp product
from TAMR and LTED cell DNA but not from parental cell DNA. Use of primers specific for
unmethylated DNA led to amplification of a147 bp product from parental cell DNA, but not from
TAMR and LTED cell DNA, (**Fig. 3E**). Our data demonstrates methylation of the *ASS1* promoter
in TAMR and LTED cells but not in the parental counterparts.

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To determine if treatment with a demethylating agent would reverse methylation at this specific 5' 234 regulatory region of the ASS1 gene and enhance expression of ASS1, TAMR cells were treated 235 with established demethylating agent decitabine (5-Aza-2'-Deoxycytidine, dAzaC) at 5 μ M. When 236 treated for 120 hours, MB134-TAMR cells showed a 12-fold increase (p< 0.0001), and SUM44-237 238 TAMR cells showed a 3-fold increase (p=0.01) in ASS1 mRNA, when compared to untreated cells 239 (Fig. 3F). Similarly, a 72-fold and ~2-fold increase of ASS1 protein in dAzaC treated MB134-TAMR (p=0.0078) and SUM44-TAMR (p=0.01) cells respectively were observed (Fig. 3G). These 240 data support the notion that methylation of the CpG island in ASS1 promoter contributes to its 241 242 downregulation in tamoxifen resistant cells.

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To determine if ASS1 downregulation is sufficient to mediate tamoxifen resistance, we knocked 244 down ASS1 in MB134 and SUM44 cells using shRNA (shASS1 cells). In MB134-shASS1 cells 245 there was a 50% reduction in ASS1 mRNA (p=0.0012), and protein was barely detectable 246 (p=0.0003), whereas in SUM44-shASS1 cells 80% reduction in both mRNA (p<0.0001) and 247 protein (p=0.0001) levels were observed (Fig. 4A & 4B). The shASS1 cells demonstrated 248 249 increased tolerance to tamoxifen as evidenced by increase in IC_{50} values for tamoxifen compared 250 to the parental cells. For MB134 cells, IC_{50} values are 9.0 μ M vs. 15.2 μ M in pLKO vs. shASS1 251 cells (p=0.017), and for SUM44 cells the values are 11.9 µM vs. 18.4 µM in pLKO vs. shASS1 cells (p=0.05) (Fig. 4C). In addition, we have observed a small but significant increase in growth 252

rate when *ASS1* is knocked down in the ILC cell lines (**Fig. 4D**, MB134: pLKO vs. *shASS1*, *p*=0.04 and SUM44: pLKO vs. *shASS1*, *p*=0.03). These findings suggest that reduced expression of *ASS1* promotes cell growth, and resistance to tamoxifen.

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257 To determine the significance of ASS1 downregulation in breast cancer patients with respect to 258 disease outcome, we used publicly available datasets. Using the METABRIC dataset, when all 259 subtypes are included, we found that upregulation - not downregulation - of ASS1 (upper guartile) is prognostic of poor overall survival (OS) in the breast cancer population (**Fig.4E**, *p*=0.001). 260 suggesting our findings are not generalizable to all breast cancer subtypes together. When we 261 262 specifically analyzed ILC patients treated with endocrine therapy (the focus of this study), low ASS1 expression (lower quartile) is prognostic of poor OS, and the correlation was significant with 263 264 a *p-value* of 0.04 (Fig. 4F). We did evaluate all endocrine-treated breast cancer patients in 265 METABRIC, and ASS1 was not predictive of OS (data not shown). Thus, there is evidence that 266 low ASS1 expression, associated with tamoxifen resistance experimentally, is associated with worse survival among endocrine therapy-treated patients and, specifically, endocrine therapy-267 268 treated patients with ILC. To evaluate an orthogonal dataset, we used the K-M Plotter dataset to 269 analyze the correlation between ASS1 expression and OS of breast cancer patients who received endocrine therapy and observed that lower ASS1 expression was associated with worse OS (Fig 270 **4G**, *p*=0.022). 271

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273 Nucleic acid biosynthesis and pathway intermediates in tamoxifen resistant ILC cells

Aberrant metabolism of amino acids and one-carbon units in cancers are acknowledged contributors to nucleic acid synthesis, fostering proliferative signaling, resistance to cell death, and metastasis [25]. Purine metabolism is one of the three pathways that was found to be mutually deregulated in both TAMR cells in our multi-omics analysis (**Fig.2J**). When subjected to

278 metabolomic analysis, ASS1 knock down and the respective control cells (shASS1 vs. pLKO) derived from MB134 and SUM44 cell lines showed independent clustering (Supplementary Fig. 279 280 **S3A and S3C**). The VIP plots highlight the top metabolites driving the separation of the ASS1 knock down vs. the control cells (Supplementary Fig. S3B and S3D). Importantly, similar 281 282 enrichment of purine metabolism was observed in both MB134 (p=0.003) and SUM44 (p=0.0008) 283 cells upon ASS1 knock down (Fig. 5A & 5B). In addition, the observed enrichment of alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism in SUM44-shASS1 cells, suggests association between 284 ASS1 downregulation and metabolic pathways altered in TAMR cells. Our untargeted 285 metabolomics analysis uncovered changes in intermediates of nucleotide metabolism upon 286 287 acquiring tamoxifen resistance. In particular, we noticed an increased in intracellular abundance of the purine intermediates deoxyguanosine-monophosphate (dGMP) (p=0.03), guanosine 288 289 diphosphate (GDP) (p=0.03) and guanosine monophosphate (GMP) (p=0.02) (Fig.5C). 290 Additionally, an increase in the pyrimidine intermediate cytosine monophosphate (CMP) was also evident in the MB134TAMR cells (p=0.002) (Fig.5D). Similarly, in SUM44TAMR cells, we 291 292 observed small but significant increase in ADP (p=0.009) and ATP (p=0.05), as well as an 293 elevation in cytosine level (*p*= 0.0006) (Fig. 5E & 5F).

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Using the transcriptomics data we next investigated if expression of additional genes involved in 295 296 purine and pyrimidine synthesis pathways are altered in TAMR cells. We observed significant upregulation of *PRPS1* (phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate synthetase 1) in MB134TAMR (p=0.0008) 297 and SUM44TAMR cells (p=0.017) when compared to the respective parental cells (**Fig. 5G**). 298 Phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate is essential for both *de novo* and salvage pathway of purine and 299 300 pyrimidine biosynthesis. Additionally, we found PAICS (phosphoribosylaminoimidazole 301 carboxylase and phosphoribosylaminoimidazolesuccincarboxamide synthase) converting carboyaminoimidazole ribonucleotide (CAIR) to N-Succinocarboyyamide-5-aminoimidazole 302 ribonucleotide (SAICAR), an intermediate of purine biosynthesis to be significantly upregulated in 303

both MB134TAMR (p=0.015) and SUM44TAMR cells (p=0.01) (**Fig. 5H**). Furthermore, there is significant increase in *DHODH* (*dihydroorotase dehydrogenase*) converting dihydroorotate to orotate, a pyrimidine biosynthesis intermediate in both MB134TAMR (p=0.015) and SUM44TAMR cells (p=0.01) (**Fig. 5I**). *ADSS2 (adenylosuccinate synthase 2*), a crucial enzyme for converting IMP to AMP is upregulated significantly in MB134TAMR cells (p=0.036) but not in SUM44TAMR cells (**Supplementary Fig. S4A and S4B**). Collectively, multiple enzymes in the nucleotide biosynthesis pathways are upregulated in the TAMR cells.

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CAD (Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase 2, Aspartate transcarbamoylase, Dihydroorotase), a key 312 313 trifunctional enzyme utilizes aspartate as substrate and executes the first three steps of pyrimidine biosynthesis. Phosphorylation at Ser1859 leads to activation of CAD. To this end we have 314 315 evaluated pCAD^{S1859} level in parental and TAMR cells, where a 1.8-fold increase in pCAD was 316 observed in MB134TAMR compared to MB134 cells (Fig. 5J, p=0.0003). SUM44TAMR cells showed a trend toward increase in pCAD, compared to SUM44 cells. When analyzed in ASS1 317 knockdown cells, significant increase in pCAD^{S1859} levels was observed in both MB134-shASS1 318 319 (1.3-fold, p=0.003) and SUM44-shASS1 (11-fold, p= 0.036) cells compared to the control cells 320 (Fig. 5K).

In conclusion, multiple cellular pathways are affected in the course of acquiring resistance to anti-estrogen that promotes proliferation of the resistant cells.

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Therapeutic targeting of *ASS1* methylation and nucleotide biosynthesis to overcome tamoxifen resistance

Our data demonstrated methylation mediated silencing of *ASS1* that correlates with poor outcome in endocrine treated ILC patients. We rationalized that increased expression of *ASS1* by promoter demethylation will improve efficacy of tamoxifen. To this end TAMR ILC cells were

pre-treated with 5 µM dAzaC for 120 hours, untreated cells were used as control. Subsequently, 329 330 MTT assays were performed with both dAzaC pre-treated and untreated cells, exposing them to increasing concentrations of tamoxifen. Our data showed significantly higher inhibition of dAzaC 331 pre-treated MB134TAMR when treated with 7.5 and 10 µM tamoxifen when compared to the 332 333 effects on dAzaC -untreated cells (p=0.04 and 0.03, respectively. Fig. 6A). Similarly, SUM44TAMR cells were significantly more sensitive to 10 µM tamoxifen when compared with 334 335 untreated cells (p=0.05, Fig. 6B), suggesting this to be a potential therapeutic combination for 336 ILC patients with acquired resistance to endocrine therapy.

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Based on the observation that multiple pyrimidine biosynthesis intermediates are deregulated in 338 339 TAMR ILC cells, we next examined if inhibition of *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis is an additional 340 avenue to improve tamoxifen efficacy in endocrine resistant ILC. Farudodstat (ASLAN003) is an 341 FDA-approved inhibitor of DHODH, a rate-limiting enzyme for *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis. Our data showed increased DHODH expression in TAMR cells (Fig.5I). To test the combinatorial 342 effect of tamoxifen and farudodstat, TAMR cells were treated with farudodstat alone or in 343 combination with tamoxifen for 120 hours. Combined treatment of MB134TAMR cells with 15 µM 344 tamoxifen and 7.5µM farudodstat led to an 71% inhibition of cell viability. In comparison, 345 treatment with 15 µM tamoxifen alone resulted in a 47% reduction, and 7.5 µM farudodstat alone 346 led to a 26% reduction in cell viability. These results indicate a synergistic effect of the combined 347 348 treatment, as reflected by a combination index (CI) of 0.85931 (p= 0.02, Fig.6C). In 349 SUM44TAMR cells, the combination resulted in synergistic inhibition as well, where a 58% 350 inhibition in cell viability was observed (CI=0.84613), compared to 37% and 32% inhibition by tamoxifen alone and farudodstat alone respectively (p=0.05, Fig. 6D). This data suggests that 351 352 combined targeting of nucleic acid biosynthesis and estrogen signaling could be a potential 353 therapeutic option for ILC patients with acquired resistance to tamoxifen.

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355 Discussion

356 One of the corner stones in treating patients with ER+ ILC is endocrine therapy [13, 26]. In 357 general, ILC tumors have lower response rates to chemotherapy because of low proliferation 358 index. Resistance to endocrine therapy poses a major challenge in managing the disease 359 effectively. Up to 40% of ER+ breast cancer patients' tumors may develop tamoxifen resistance 360 during the initial phase of treatment, with an additional 25% developing resistance over time [27]. 361 Although the mechanisms underlying endocrine resistance have been studied extensively in ER+ IDC (reviewed by Osborne et.al. [28]), these two subtypes of breast cancer are distinct in terms 362 363 of histo-morphology, disease progression, recurrence, and outcome, underscoring the importance 364 of studying endocrine resistance specifically in ILC. This is the first study to our knowledge where a multi-omics approach was used to compare tamoxifen resistant ILC cell lines with their parental 365 counterpart and identify aberrations in amino acid and nucleotide biosynthesis pathways in the 366 resistant cells. In these cells, acquired resistance to tamoxifen resulted in down regulation of 367 ASS1, a key enzyme at the intersection of these pathways, and corelates with poor overall survival 368 369 of ILC patients, specifically those who received endocrine therapy.

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371 Our recent review highlights the studies that investigated mechanism of endocrine resistance in 372 ILC [13]. Reduced expression of $ER\alpha$, increased expression of estrogen-related receptor y 373 (ERRy) [29], activation of AP1-dependent transcription [29, 30], frequent mutation of PTEN and 374 PIK3CA [31], activation of SREBP1 driving lipid and cholesterol metabolism specifically in 375 resistance to aromatase inhibitors [32, 33], and the involvement of WNT4 in estrogen-induced growth [34], has been associated with endocrine resistance in ILC. Additionally, mutations in 376 377 FOXA1, a pioneer factor for ER-mediated transcription, confers endocrine resistance by 378 increasing FOXA1 expression and activity [35].

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380 The major challenges in studying ILC is lack of established and authentic cell lines along with 381 slow growth rate of the tumor reflected in the mouse models of ILC, particularly in orthotopic 382 models [36]. A recent study has systematically analyzed several ILC/ILC like cell lines and 383 identified additional cell lines harboring key molecular features of ILC [37]. These cell lines are 384 promising for future studies. Currently, the two most commonly used and universally accepted cell 385 lines to study ILC are MDA-MB-134-VI and SUM44PE, confirming the relevance to ILC biology and used in this study. Both these cell lines are ER+ and lack E-cadherin, harboring the most 386 387 common features of ILC tumors. SUM44PE was isolated from a patient refractile to endocrine therapy and is therefore de novo resistant to endocrine therapy [38], whereas MB134 cells were 388 isolated from pleural fluid of a patient diagnosed with papillary mammary carcinoma, later 389 390 classified as luminal subtype [36, 39]. MB134TAMR cells generated in our lab models acquired 391 anti-estrogen resistance. Increased tolerance of the SUM44TAMR cells to tamoxifen is not therefore expected to fully mimic the characteristics observed in MB134TAMR cells. This poses 392 393 additional challenge and limits the ability to study and validate the mechanisms underlying development of anti-estrogen resistance in ILC patients. However, long term exposure of the two 394 395 ILC cell lines to tamoxifen, the classic estrogen receptor modulator to generate TAMR cells and 396 to estrogen deprivation to generate LTED cells, blocking estrogen signaling led to increased 397 tamoxifen resistance. Importantly, in all these cell lines (TAMR and LTED), methylation mediated downregulation of ASS1 suggests role of estrogen signaling in protecting ASS1 promoter 398 399 methylation. Importantly, ASS1 is not methylated and silenced in SUM44 parental cells as shown 400 in our studies, suggesting a different mechanism of *de novo* resistance to anti-estrogen in this patient. 401

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403 ASS1, the rate-limiting enzyme for the biosynthesis of arginine catalyzes the conversion of L-404 citrulline and aspartate to Arginosuccinate [40]. Downregulation of ASS1 results in availability of 405 aspartate for purine and pyrimidine biosynthesis facilitating cell proliferation (Fig. 6E). Zhou et.al. 406 used Spinosyn A and its derivative LM-21 to augment ASS1 enzymatic activity that led to inhibition 407 of cancer cell by blocking pyrimidine biosynthesis [41]. Our study showed enrichment of purine 408 metabolism in the TAMR cells and in the ASS1 knockdown cells suggesting that ASS1 could be 409 both a biomarker as well as therapeutic target in tamoxifen resistant ILC. Use of decitabine, a demethylating agent augment ASS1 expression and enhanced tamoxifen efficacy in our study. 410 Decitabine is clinically approved to treat myelodysplastic syndrome [42], but demonstrated 411 412 minimal efficacy as monotherapy in solid tumors [43, 44, 45]. However, combination therapy with targeted agents and chemotherapeutic agents have shown some promise [46], including a 413 414 recently completed window of opportunity study [47]. Further studies are needed to see if prior 415 treatment with decitabine can overcome tamoxifen resistance in ILC patients.

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417 Association of low ASS1 expression with poor overall survival has been reported in multiple 418 cancer including bladder [48], myxofibrosarcoma [49] and breast cancer [50], although the 419 number of breast cancer patients included were limited (n=149) and all subtypes were analyzed. 420 However, analysis of 1980 breast cancer patients from METABRIC data set in our study revealed 421 significant correlation of high ASS1 with poor overall survival. Importantly, subtype specific analyses focusing on ILC have not been reported before. Correlation of low ASS1 expression with 422 423 poor OS in ILC patients only if treated with endocrine therapy as revealed in our study, highlights the potential of ASS1 as a biomarker for endocrine resistance in ILC. We cannot disregard the 424 425 possibility that such correlation also exists for endocrine resistant IDC patients. Further studies 426 are warranted to establish this relationship in IDC but beyond the scope of this study. Importantly, ASS1 loss has also been implicated in chemotherapeutic resistance in different tumors including 427

428 non-small cell lung cancer, ovarian cancer and hepatocellular carcinoma [49, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55,

56], suggesting ASS1 to be a vulnerable metabolic hub for development of therapy resistance.

Our study shows elevated phosphorylation of CAD, a key enzyme in pyrimidine biosynthesis, in 430 both TAMR and shASS1 cells. This further reinforces the notion that metabolic rewiring of existing 431 432 pathway is a mechanism that cancer cells use to develop treatment resistance. Similar metabolic 433 alteration was reported by Rabinovich et al. showing reduced ASS1 activity in cancer facilitates 434 pyrimidine synthesis by activating CAD [57]. Our transcriptomics data further revealed heightened expression of several key genes involved in nucleotide biosynthesis pathways, 435 436 suggesting that acquisition of drug resistance is a multiprong adjustment by the cancer cells for maximum benefit under the adversity of drug treatment. It is therefore likely that we could improve 437 the efficacy of tamoxifen in TAMR cells by targeting nucleotide biosynthesis. As a proof of concept 438 439 we used Farudodstat, to inhibit DHODH and observed synergistic effect when combined with 440 tamoxifen. This combination therapy could be a potential treatment option for TAM-resistant ILC, 441 warranting further investigation in the clinical setting.

442

Some limitations of our study warrant acknowledgment. First, our investigation is constrained by 443 444 the availability of only two ILC cell lines, however, as noted above these are globally accepted as 445 robust ILC models. Correlation of our finding with patient data partly addresses this limitation. The observed variability in experimental outcomes between these two cell lines may stem from their 446 origin as discussed previously. In addition, metabolomic and transcriptomic studies provide a 447 448 snapshot of the metabolic and gene expression state of the cells at the time of harvest. Although seeded at the same density, inherent difference in rate of cell growth between the lines in this 449 study poses challenge in capturing the identical metabolic state for all the lines. This is reflected 450 451 in the dissimilarities in pathway enrichment and metabolic intermediate levels observed in

different cell pairs. However, the three pathways and *ASS1* alteration, highlighted in this study are
 common among the two ILC cell lines and could be a potential predictive marker in ILC patients.

454 In conclusion, our study highlights ASS1 as a potential biomarker for tamoxifen response and 455 overall survival in ILC patients treated with endocrine therapy. Methylation mediated 456 downregulation of ASS1 provides an opportunity for clinical intervention of endocrine resistant 457 ILC patients with demethylating agents, such as Decitabine and need to be explored further. 458 Additionally, therapeutic interventions targeting nucleotide biosynthesis pathways show promise 459 in overcoming tamoxifen resistance. Upregulation of purine and pyrimidine biosynthesis pathway 460 enzymes in TAMR cells underscores the importance of metabolic adaptations in resistance. Further research into role of estrogen in protecting ASS1 promoter methylation and therapeutic 461 implications is expected to enhance treatment strategies of this understudied subtype of breast 462 cancer. 463

464

465

466 Materials and Methods

467 **Cell lines**

ILC cell lines MDA-MB-134-VI (MB134) (ATCC, USA) and SUM44PE (SUM44) (Asterand, USA) 468 were used to develop the tamoxifen-resistant (TAMR) cells by continuously exposing them to 100 469 470 to 500 nM of 4-hydroxy tamoxifen (4-OHT) for over 6 months. Parental and TAMR MB134 cells were grown in a 1:1 ratio of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Gibco, USA) and 471 Leibovitz's L-15 medium (Gibco, USA), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 472 473 penicillin-streptomycin. Parental and TAMR SUM44 cell lines were cultured in Ham's F-12 (Gibco, 474 USA) supplemented with 1 g/L bovine serum albumin, 5 mM ethanolamine, 10 mM HEPES, 1 µg/mL hydrocortisone, 5 µg/mL insulin, 50 nM sodium selenite, 5 µg/ mL apo-transferrin and 10 475

nM triodo-L-thyronine. MB134TAMR and SUM44TAMR cells were maintained in media
containing 100 nM and 500 nM 4-OHT respectively. MB134-LTED (Long Term Estrogen
Deprived) and SUM44-LTED cells are generous gifts from Dr. Steffi Oesterreich (University of
Pittsburgh) routinely maintained in IMEM + 10 % CS-FBS (Charcoal-Stripped FBS) and penicillinstreptomycin [34]. All cell lines were maintained at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator. All cell
lines tested Mycoplasma-free before the experiments.

482

483 **RNA isolation and sequencing**

Total RNA was extracted from exponentially growing cells using Trizol (Invitrogen, USA) following manufacturer's protocol. The TAMR cells were grown in tamoxifen-free media for 72 hours before harvest. RNA from three biological replicates of each cell line was subjected to RNA-seq analysis (Novogene, USA). Data processing and pathway analysis was performed by Novogene, and KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) pathway database, GO (Gene Ontology) database, and Reactome Pathway database were used for data analysis.

490

491 Polar Metabolite Extraction

Exponentially growing cells (~1 x 10⁶) in quadruplet were used for metabolite extraction. Polar 492 493 metabolites extraction was performed via a cold methanol extraction as previously described [58, 59]. Briefly, the cells were washed with cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) followed by addition 494 of 250 µL of methanol (LCMS-grade). Internal standards containing ¹³C and ¹⁵N labeled amino 495 496 acids mix (1.2 mg/mL) were introduced to the samples in a volume of 50 µL. The cells were homogenized for 2 minutes and incubated at -20 °C for 20 minutes. The resulting homogenate 497 was centrifuged to pellet the debris, and 150 µL of the supernatant was transferred to an LC-MS 498 499 vial for further analysis. Additionally, a pooled quality control (QC) sample was created by 500 combining an equal volume of all supernatants into a separate vial and mixed thoroughly using a 501 vortex.

502

503 LC-MS/MS System

Untargeted metabolomics was performed to uncover the metabolic alterations responsible for the 504 505 drug-resistant phenotype using our established workflow [59]. The LC-MS/MS analyses were performed on a Vanquish ultra high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system 506 (Thermo Scientific, Waltham MA, USA) coupled to a Qexactive ™ Hybrid Quadrupole-Orbitrap™ 507 508 Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham MA, USA). A sample volume of 5 µL was injected 509 onto an Xbridge BEH Amide XP Column, 130Å (150 mm × 2.1 mm ID, particle size 2.5 µm) (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA). The column oven was maintained at 40 °C. Mobile phase 510 511 A consisted of a mixture of 5 mM NH₄Ac in Acetonitrile/H₂O (10:90, v/v) containing 0.1% Acetic acid. Mobile phase B consisted of 5 mM NH₄Ac in Acetonitrile//H2O (90:10, v/v) containing 0.1% 512 513 Acetic acid. The mobile phases were delivered at a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min for a 20-minute run 514 with the following stepwise gradient for solvent B: firstly 70%; 0-5 min 30%; 5-9 min 30%; 9-11 min 70%. A divert valve was used to direct the flow to waste during the final 5 minutes of the run. 515 516 The Qexactive[™] was equipped with an electrospray ionization source (ESI) that was operated in 517 both negative and positive ion modes to encompass a broader range of metabolite detection. The 518 ESI source setting and the compound dependent scan conditions were optimized for full scan MS mode and ranged between 150 and 2,000 m/z. The ion spray voltage was set at 4 kV with a 519 520 capillary temperature of 320°C. Sheath gas rate was set to 10 arbitrary units. Scans of 1ms were performed at 35,000 units resolution. A QC sample followed by a blank injection was introduced 521 522 after every 10 biological sample injections. The pooled samples were leveraged for the top 10 MS/MS analyses, employing dynamic exclusion to identify compounds during the analysis. 523

524

525 Growth Kinetics

526 Exponentially growing cells (30,000/well) were seeded in triplicate in 24-well plates. 527 Subsequently, at 0, 24-, 48-, 72-, and 96-hour post-seeding, cells were trypsinized and counted

using a cell counter (LUNATM, L12001). Fold change in growth was calculated with cell numberat 0-hour timepoint as 1.

530

531 Generation of ASS1 knockdown cells

532 For shRNA-mediated knockdown of ASS1, lentivirus coding for ASS1 shRNA in pLKO.1 backbone vector Sigma (TRCN0000045554, 533 were purchased from sequence: GCCTGAATTCTACAACCGGTT). Exponentially growing MB134 and SUM44 cells (300,000/well) 534 were seeded in 6-well plates. Overnight cultures were infected with 5-10 µL of viral particles in 535 fresh medium containing 10 µg/mL polybrene. The cells were then incubated overnight followed 536 by replacement of the virus containing media with fresh complete medium after 16 hours of 537 incubation. Cells were expanded and transduced cells were selected using puromycin. The 538 539 efficiency of viral infection in SUM44PE cells was assessed for GFP positivity using the EVOS 540 M7000 imaging system. Knockdown of ASS1 was validated by gRT-PCR and Western blot analysis. Similar experiments were conducted with the empty vector pLKO.1 to generate the 541 control cells. 542

543

544 Quantitative RT-PCR analysis

545 DNase treated total RNA was used to synthesize cDNA using High-Capacity cDNA Reverse 546 Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). qRT-PCR was performed in triplicate using 96-well 547 StepOne Real-Time PCR System. 36B4 was used a housekeeping gene. Primer sequences are:

548 ASS1-F: GCTGAAGGAACAAGGCTATGACG and ASS1-R: GCCAGATGAACTCCTCCACAAAC.

549 36B4-F: GGTTGTAGATGCTGCCATTGTC and 36B4-R: GCCCGAGAAGACCTCCTTTTC.

550

551 Western blot analysis

Whole cell lysates in radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150
mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.1% SDS; Sigma-Aldrich), supplemented with protease and phosphatase

554 inhibitors (Sigma) were resolved on SDS polyacrylamide gels. Following electrophoresis, proteins 555 were transferred onto 0.45 µM PVDF membranes. Nonspecific binding was blocked by incubation 556 with blocking buffer (Rockland) for 60 min at room temperature. The membranes were probed for ASS1 [Cell Signaling Technology (CST), 70720], GAPDH (CST, 2118S), ERα (Abcam, ab32063), 557 558 HER2 (CST, 2242) and Phosphor-CAD (Ser1859) (CST, 1266). ASS1 and GAPDH was detected using IR800CW dye-tagged IgG secondary antibody (LICOR, 926-32211). Phosphorylated 559 560 proteins (p-CAD) were detected using peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit secondary antibody (CST, 7074) and enhanced chemiluminescence western blot detection reagents (Pierce, Thermo 561 Scientific). The Odyssey CLx and Fc systems (LI-COR Biosciences, USA) were used for western 562 563 blot imaging. All original western blot images are provided in Supplementary file 2.

564

565 Methylation-specific PCR

566 Computational analysis using 'CpG Island Finder' (CpG Islands (bioinformatics.org) was performed to locate CpG island on gene promoter. DNA (200-500 ng) extracted from 567 568 exponentially growing cells were subjected to bisulfite conversion using the EZ DNA methylation kit (Zymo Research Corporation, USA). Treatment of genomic DNA with sodium bisulfite converts 569 570 unmethylated cytosine residues to uracil, while methylated cytosine residues remain unchanged. 571 The methylation status of ASS1 promoter was determined using methylation-specific PCR (MSPCR). **MSPCR** designed **MethPrimer** 572 Primers for were using software 573 (https://www.urogene.org/methprimer/). The bisulfite-converted DNA (1-4 µL) was used for PCR 574 reactions with primers specific for either methylated (F: GTCGGTATCGGATAGAAGTGAGTAC, R: ATAACTCAAAAACGAAAAATAACCG) or unmethylated sequences (F: TTGGTATTGGATAGAAGTGAGTATGA, 575 576 min, 61 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, followed by 32 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 61 °C for 30 s, 577

and 72 °C for 30 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were electrophoresed
in 2% agarose gels and visualized using a transilluminator.

580

581 Cell viability assay

582 MTT assay kit (Roche) was used to assess cell viability and drug effect. Fifteen thousand cells 583 were seeded per well in triplicates in a 96 well plate, and overnight cultures were treated with 584 drugs for 120 hours. This was followed by addition of MTT reagent and solubilizing agent following manufacturer's protocol. The drugs included 5 µM of 5-Aza-2 deoxycytidine (dAzaC, Sigma), also 585 586 known as Decitabine, 4-hydoxy tamoxifen $(0 - 25 \mu M, Cayman chemical)$ and Farudodstat (7.5 µM, Cayman Chemical), a pyrimidine biosynthesis inhibitor. 587 20 CompuSyn 1.0 (https://compusyn.software.informer.com/) was used to analyze combinatorial effect of two drugs. 588 589 Combination index (CI) value = 1, <1 and >1 indicate additive, synergistic and antagonistic effect, 590 respectively.

591

592

593 Migration assays

In-vitro cell migration assays were conducted using Transwell chambers (Corning, USA) coated with collagen (50µg/mL) on the exterior of the inserts for 60min at 37°C. For the migration assay, 500,000 cells in serum free media were seeded in the inserts. A chemotactic gradient was established by adding 0.6 mL of complete growth medium containing 10% FBS in the lower chamber. After 120 hours of incubation the unmigrated cells in the inserts were removed using a cotton swab, the migrated cells were fixed in methanol, and stained with 0.5% crystal violet solution. The area occupied by migrated cells was quantified using ImageJ software.

601

602 Patient dataset analysis

Human breast cancer patient data was obtained from The Cancer Genome Atlas Firehose BRCA cohort (TCGA_BRCA) and the METABRIC invasive breast carcinoma cohort were obtained from the cBioPortal webpage. Analysis of METABRIC patient data was conducted in R 4.2.2 utilizing dplyr 1.0.10, tibble 3.1.8, ggplot2 3.4.0, and survival 3.5.8 packages to import, subset, and analyze relevant patient data[60]. The Kmplotter webtool was used to analyze the Kmplotter meta cohort (Kmplotter.com) [61].

609

610 Statistical analysis

Three independent replicates of all the experiments were conducted. Western blot experiments were independently repeated using cell lysates from three biological replicates and data expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical analyses between two groups were performed using Student's t-test. One-way ANOVA was used for multiple group comparisons. Percentage of cell viability and IC₅₀ value were calculated using GraphPad Prism. Differences in survival of patients from the METABRIC cohort and the KM plotter meta cohort were determined via log-rank test. A *p*-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Metabolomic Data Processing and Statistical Analysis: Initial screening of the spectral peaks was 618 619 performed using the Quan browser module of Xcalibur version 4.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 620 Waltham, MA, USA). The MS data were searched against our in-house database containing 621 experimentally obtained MS/MS spectra of 171 authentic analytical standards using Compound Discoverer software (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA). The raw data was normalized to 622 623 the protein content per replicate. Subsequently, the spectra underwent filtration to diminish redundancy and ensure instrument reproducibility. Any metabolite exhibiting a coefficient of 624 variation exceeding 20% was eliminated before subsequent analysis. Statistical analyses, 625 626 including univariate T-test, were conducted using the online resource MetaboAnalyst 5.0. Partial 627 Least Square Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) was employed to interpret the metabolic variances

between the sensitive and resistant cell lines. VIP (Variables Important in Projection) plots were 628 generated to visualize the key metabolites contributing to the deregulated metabolic processes. 629 630 Overall metabolite data was subjected to quantitative enrichment analysis to pinpoint the deregulated metabolic process within the cell pairs. A Venn diagram was generated to show the 631 632 distinguishable gene expression profiles among samples and summarize the mutually deregulated pathways across both metabolomics and transcriptomics datasets. The gene-633 634 metabolite interaction networks were constructed by integrating annotated metabolites or genes with comprehensive interaction data from Search Tool for Interactions of Chemicals (STITCH) 635 636 [62]. This tool utilizes interaction data from peer-reviewed literature to assess node importance within the network based on degree centrality and betweenness centrality. Degree centrality is 637 determined by the number of connections a node has with others, while betweenness centrality 638 639 calculates the number of direct routes passing through the node. These measures help identify 640 metabolic hubs within the network.

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818 Conflict of Interest

There are no conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this manuscript.

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822 Author contribution statement

AG and FC: Experimental design, Methodology, Investigation and Writing Original Draft. JR: Bioinformatic analysis of patient data, Writing and Review. NP, AK, ES: Investigation. STS: Supervision of bioinformatics analysis and Review. JZ: Resources, Data curation, Editing. DGS: Supervision and Editing. BR: Funding acquisition, supervision, editing and project administration. SM: Conceptualized, Supervision, Data interpretation, Writing-Review and Editing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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830 Ethics Statement

This study was conducted using human invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) cell lines. All cell lines used were obtained from accredited sources (ATCC) and handled according to standard laboratory safety and ethical guidelines.

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844 Availability of Data and Materials

845 Both the RNA sequencing and Metabolomics data generated in this study will be submitted to the 846 publicly available databases [Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database- for RNA seq data and

<u>https://massive.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/static/massive.jsp</u> -Metabolomics data] upon acceptance
 of the manuscript and before final printing. The data supporting the findings reported in this study
 are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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852 Figure Legends:

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Figure 1. Characterization of Tamoxifen-Resistant ILC Cells. A. Phase contrast light 854 855 microscopy images of parental and tamoxifen-resistant ILC cells with magnified images in the 856 inserts. B. Growth kinetics of parental and tamoxifen-resistant MB134 (upper panel) and SUM44 857 (lower panel) cell lines. Fold change in growth normalized to day 0 at each time point over 72 858 hours. C. Dose response to tamoxifen in MB134 and MB134TAMR cells (upper panel) and SUM44 859 and SUM44TAMR cells (lower panel). Overnight cultures of exponentially growing cells were treated with vehicle or drugs for 5 days. IC₅₀ for TAM was calculated using GraphPad Prism 10. 860 **D.** Transwell Boyden chamber assays comparing the migratory capabilities of parental vs. TAMR, 861 MB134 (upper panel) and SUM44 (lower panel) cell lines. Area covered by migrated cells were 862 quantified in the bar diagram. E. Representative image of western blot and densitometry analysis 863 of ERα and HER2 levels in parental vs. TAMR ILC cells. GAPDH was used as loading control. 864 Representative of three independent experiments is presented in the figures. Statistical 865 differences between groups were evaluated using Student's t-test. Significance levels are 866 indicated as follows: **p <0.001, *p <0.05. P= Parental, TAMR = Tamoxifen Resistant 867

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Figure 2. Metabolomic and transcriptomic analysis of paired ILC cell lines. A. Partial Least
 Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) showing metabolic differences between parental and
 tamoxifen-resistant SUM44 cell pair. B. Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) plot highlighting

872 the top 15 metabolites driving the separation between parental and resistant SUM44 cell pair. C. PLS-DA showing metabolic differences between parental and tamoxifen-resistant MB134 cell pair. 873 874 **D.** VIP plot highlighting the top 15 metabolites driving the separation between parental and 875 resistant MB134 cell pair. E. Overlap of altered pathways in parental vs. tamoxifen-resistant SUM44 and MB134 pairs, represented by impact scores. F. Venn diagram illustrating the number 876 877 of shared and unique pathways altered in SUM44 and MB134 cell pairs, indicating common 878 metabolic changes associated with tamoxifen resistance. G. Significantly deregulated KEGG 879 pathways in parental vs. tamoxifen-resistant MB134 cells and, **H.** SUM44 cells as determined by RNA sequencing analysis of cell pairs in quadruplicate. I. Venn diagram showing the overlap of 880 52 deregulated pathways between parental and tamoxifen-resistant pairs of SUM44 and MB-134 881 cell lines. J. Venn diagram showing the overlap of metabolomic and transcriptomic data, 882 883 identifying three mutually deregulated pathways in SUM44 and MB134 TAMR cells. K. Venn 884 diagram showing the overlap of 15 genes within the three mutually deregulated pathways. L. Gene-metabolite interaction map illustrating interactions between three deregulated pathways. 885 Circles represent genes and squares represent metabolites. 886

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888 Figure 3. Downregulation of ASS1 in ILC-TAMR and LTED Cells. A. Comparative expression 889 of ASS1 in parental vs. parental and tamoxifen-resistant ILC cell lines as determined by change 890 in Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (FPKM) obtained from RNA seq data. **B.** qRT-PCR analysis showing ASS1 expression, and **C.** western blot and densitometry 891 892 analysis showing ASS1 protein levels in MB134 and SUM44 cells, their respective tamoxifen resistant and LTED derivatives (LTEDA and LTEDB). D. Schematic diagram showing the CpG 893 island in the ASS1 promoter. E. Analysis of the ASS1 promoter region using MS-PCR showing 894 895 amplification of 150 bp methylated DNA in TAMR and LTED derivatives of ILC cell lines and 147 896 bp unmethylated DNA in parental ILC cell lines. F. gRT-PCR analysis showing ASS1 expression

in MB134TAMR and SUM44TAMR cells that are either left untreated (UT) or treated with 5 μ M 5-Aza-2'-deoxycytidine (dAzaC) for 120 hours. **G.** Western blot and densitometry analysis showing ASS1 protein levels in MB134TAMR and SUM44TAMR cells after 120 hours of dAzaC treatment (n=2 experiments). Error bars represent the standard deviation of triplicates. Significance levels are indicated as follows: ****p <0.0001, ***p <0.001, **p <0.01, *p <0.05.

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903 Figure 4. ASS1 knockdown in ILC cells. MB134 and SUM44 cells were transduced with plasmids expressing shRNA targeting ASS1 or the corresponding empty vector to produce 904 shASS1 and control (pLKO) cell lines. A. qRT-PCR analysis showing ASS1 expression, and B. 905 906 western blot and densitometry analysis of ASS1 protein levels in ASS1 knockdown (shASS1) vs. pLKO (control) MB134 and SUM44 cell lines. C. Dose response to tamoxifen and IC₅₀ of tamoxifen 907 908 in ASS1 knockdown (shASS1) vs. pLKO (control) MB134 (left panel) and SUM44 cell lines (right panel). D. Comparison of growth kinetics of shASS1 vs. pLKO derivatives of MB134 (left panel) 909 and SUM44 cell lines (right panel). Fold change in growth is normalized to day 0 at each time 910 911 point over 72 hours. E. Overall survival analysis of all breast cancer patients in relation to ASS1 912 expression using METABRIC data set. F. Overall survival analysis of ILC patients who received endocrine therapy in relation to ASS1 expression using METABRIC data set. G. Overall survival 913 914 analysis of breast cancer patients who received endocrine therapy in relation to ASS1 expression 915 using K-M plotter dataset. ****p <0.0001, ***p <0.001, **p <0.01, *p <0.05.

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Figure 5. Nucleic acid biosynthesis and pathway intermediates in tamoxifen resistant ILC
cells. A. Significantly enriched metabolic pathways in *shASS1* vs. pLKO derivatives of MB134,
and B. SUM44 cell lines. C. Changes in the levels of purine (dGMP, dGDP, GDP, GMP, IMP) and
D. pyrimidine (UDP, UMP and CMP) nucleotides in parental (P) vs. tamoxifen-resistant (TAMR)
MB134 cells. E. Changes in the levels of purine (ATP and ADP, dGTP, GDP) and F. pyrimidine

(Cytosine, UMP) nucleotides in parental (P) vs. tamoxifen-resistant (TAMR) SUM44 cells. G.
Expression levels of *PRPS1*, H. *PAICS*, and I. *DHODH* in MB134 and SUM44 cell pairs as
analyzed from RNA seq data. (FPKM: Fragments Per Kilobase Per Million reads). J.
Representative picture of pCAD^{S1859} (pCAD) levels in parental and TAMR cells and K. in control
(pLKO) vs. *shASS1* derivatives of MB134 and SUM 44 cell pairs. Bar diagrams show average of
more than one independent experiments (n=2). ***p <0.001, **p <0.01, *p <0.05.

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Figure 6. Combined treatment of tamoxifen-resistant ILC cell lines with tamoxifen and 929 930 drugs targeting ASS1 methylation or nucleotide biosynthesis. A. MB134TAMR and B. 931 SUM44TAMR cells were pretreated with 5uM dAzaC for 120 hours. Untreated (vehicle) cells were used as control. Viability of dAzaC treated and control cells in presence of indicated doses of 932 tamoxifen was compared after additional 5 days of treatment. C. Comparison of cell viability after 933 934 treatment of MB134TAMR and **D**. SUM44TAMR cells with 10 μ M Farudodstat (FR) alone and in 935 combination with 15 µM tamoxifen for 5 days. Data is representative of three independent experiments conducted in triplicate for each treatment condition. E. Schematic diagram showing 936 937 how methylation mediated silencing of ASS1 could lead to augmentation of purine and pyrimidine 938 biosynthesis pathway in tamoxifen-resistant ILC cells, where the enzymes that uses aspartate as 939 substrate are highlighting. Statistical significance indicated as p < 0.05.

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Purine Biosynthesis

Table 1: List of 10 mutually deregulated pathways between the parental and TAMR cell lines

Pathway Name	-log(p)	Impact	Cell pair
Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	7.57	0.47	SUM44
	6.24	0.47	MB134
Arginine biosynthesis	4.33	0.37	SUM44
	3.88	0.37	MB134
Lysine degradation	4.30	0.28	SUM44
	3.92	0.28	MB134
Arachidonic acid metabolism	2.95	0.31	SUM44
	2.48	0.31	MB134
D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism	6.02	0.50	SUM44
	4.93	0.50	MB134
Riboflavin metabolism	2.66	0.50	SUM44
	3.88	0.50	MB134
Glycine, serine and threonine metabolism	3.66	0.22	SUM44
	2.02	0.22	MB134
Purine metabolism	4.04	0.28	SUM44
	5.16	0.28	MB134
Arginine and proline metabolism	4.78	0.33	SUM44
	3.23	0.33	MB134
Tyrosine metabolism	3.64	0.36	SUM44
	3.68	0.36	MB134

revealed by metabolomic analysis.

Table 2: Subset of deregulated pathways significantly altered in both ILC cell pairs as

revealed by transcriptomic analysis.

KEGG Pathways
KEGG_ARGININE_AND_PROLINE_METABOLISM
KEGG_GLUTATHIONE_METABOLISM
KEGG_ALANINE_ASPARTATE_AND_GLUTAMATE_METABOLISM
KEGG_PURINE_METABOLISM
KEGG_TRYPTOPHAN_METABOLISM
KEGG_APOPTOSIS
KEGG_HEDGEHOG_SIGNALING_PATHWAY
KEGG_STEROID_HORMONE_BIOSYNTHESIS
KEGG_ALDOSTERONE_REGULATED_SODIUM_REABSORPTION
KEGG_FRUCTOSE_AND_MANNOSE_METABOLISM
KEGG_FOCAL_ADHESION
KEGG_NOTCH_SIGNALING_PATHWAY
KEGG CALCIUM SIGNALING PATHWAY