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Temporal multi-omics identifies LRG1 as a vascular niche instructor of metastatic colonization

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<u>One sentence summary</u>: A systems-biology endothelial cell screen has established the vascular
 systems map of early metastatic colonization and identified the TGFβ
 pathway specifier as therapeutic target of metastasis.

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39 Metastasis is the primary cause of cancer-related mortality and the mechanistically least well understood step of the tumour progression cascade¹⁻³. Tumour cell interactions with 40 41 cells of the vessel wall are decisive and rate-limiting for metastasis⁴⁻⁶. The past decade has 42 witnessed a fundamental change of paradigm from blood vessel wall-lining endothelial cells 43 (EC) being conceived as merely supportive of angiogenesis to an active gatekeeper and modulator of the tumour microenvironment⁷⁻¹². The molecular nature of this crosstalk is 44 45 beyond candidate gene approaches hitherto poorly understood. Employing surgical models 46 of lung metastasis in temporal systems biology-based screens, we show here that primary 47 tumours systemically reprogram the body's vascular endothelium to perturb homeostasis 48 and to precondition the vascular niche for metastatic colonization. The vasculature with its 49 enormous surface thereby serves as amplifier of tumour-induced instructive signals. The 50 combined endothelial transcriptomic and serum proteomic screen identified the TGF β 51 pathway signalling specifier LRG1 as an early instructor of metastatic colonization. Systemic 52 upregulation of LRG1 promoted metastasis by increasing the number of prometastatic NG2+ 53 perivascular cells. In turn, adjuvant LRG1 inhibition in primary tumour-resected mice delayed metastatic growth and increased overall survival. The study has thereby established 54 55 the systems map of early primary tumour-induced vascular changes and identified LRG1 as 56 a therapeutic target for metastasis.

57 In order to identify molecular changes of EC in the premetastatic and metastatic niche in an 58 unbiased systems biology approach, we employed surgical metastasis models¹³ and 59 transcriptionally profiled target organ EC over time. A primary screen was performed by 60 subcutaneously inoculating lung metastasising tumour cells (Lewis Lung Carcinoma, LLC) in 61 C57BL/6N mice and analysing lung EC at sequential stages of tumour progression, including 62 control (d0), small primary tumour-bearing (d15), 1 wk post-primary tumour resection (d22), 63 and metastasis-bearing (d36) (Fig. 1a). Lung EC were isolated in high purity and used for global 64 transcriptomic profiling (Extended Data Fig. 1a-c). Differential gene expression analysis 65 revealed transcriptional activation of EC upon disease progression (Fig. 1b-d, Extended Data 66 Fig. 1d). Most-significantly altered genes at d15 and d36 were related to protein secretion, 67 inflammatory responses, hypoxia, and cellular proliferation (Fig. 1e, Extended Data Fig. 2a). The presence of a primary tumour evoked a systemic inflammation^{14,15}, as evidenced by an 68 69 inflammatory transcriptomic signature of lung EC (Fig. 1f, g). Concomitantly, a strong immune 70 cell infiltration, particularly of myeloid cells, was observed in d15 lung tissue as compared to 71 d0 (Fig. 1h, Extended Data Fig. 2b, 3a-d). A sharp decline in the expression of inflammatory 72 genes and corresponding infiltrating immune cells was observed at d22 (Fig. 1h, Extended 73 Data Fig. 2a, b, 3a-d), suggesting subsided systemic inflammation following primary tumour 74 resection. Hence, the employed metastasis model truthfully captured the tumour cell-driven 75 systemic alterations including initial myelopoiesis during primary tumour growth, rapid 76 restoration of homeostasis following tumour resection, and finally myeloid cell expansion 77 upon metastatic colonization. Surprisingly though, the immune cell infiltration in d36 lung 78 tissue was mostly restricted to the adjacent normal tissue rather than the metastatic nodules 79 (Fig. 1h, Extended Data Fig. 2b). Taken together, the data emphasize that the vascular and

immune compartments within a metastatic organ exhibited a defined temporal signature that
 mirrors the kinetics of disease progression. Further comparative gene ontology analyses of
 disease and bio-functions not only supported the immune-phenotyping data but additionally
 identified disease stage-specific regulation of neovascularization-, cell viability- and
 metastasis-related gene sets (Fig. 2a).

85 Zooming-in on genes involved in EC development bio-function, *Lrg1* was identified as one of 86 the most differentially expressed EC-specific genes (Fig. 2b, c, Extended Data Fig. 4a). Lrg1 87 expression closely reflected the temporal pattern of systemic inflammation, thereby 88 classifying Lrg1 as an immediate endothelial response gene to tumour challenge. LRG1, 89 Leucine-rich alpha-2-glycoprotein 1, was reported to modulate endothelial TGF β -signalling¹⁶. 90 Mechanistically, in the presence of TGF β 1, LRG1 interacts with the accessory receptor 91 Endoglin, thereby switching the EC phenotype from quiescence-mediating ALK5 signalling to 92 activation-inducing ALK1 signalling¹⁶. Indeed, upstream regulator analysis of the RNA-seq data 93 revealed TGF β as a positively-correlated signalling effector as well as the enrichment of 94 subsequent downstream signalling cascades during metastatic progression (Extended Data 95 Fig. 5a-c). Altered TGF β -signalling and overall activation of lung endothelium suggested a 96 counter-regulation of the recently described vascular maturation program¹⁷.

- 97 Endothelial STAT3 signalling has been described to actively orchestrate EC responses to inflammation and during metastasis^{11,18,19}. Concurrently, we found STAT3 signalling enriched 98 99 in a disease stage-specific manner in lung EC (Fig. 2d, Extended Data Fig. 2a). To investigate 100 whether STAT3 transcriptionally regulates Lrg1 expression, we employed EC-specific genetic 101 deletion of Stat3 (Extended Data Fig. 6a). Indeed, Stat3 deletion strongly abrogated Lrg1 102 expression in lung EC isolated from tumour-bearing mice (Fig. 2e). Further, primary tumour 103 experiments in immunocompromised NSG mice manifested reduced levels of Lrg1 as 104 compared to immunocompetent C57BL/6N mice (Extended Data Fig. 6b). Additionally, tumour 105 cell-derived factors failed to directly induce Lrg1 expression in mouse lung EC in in vitro 106 Boyden chamber-based experiments (Extended Data Fig. 6c), thereby establishing LRG1 as an 107 endothelial-response factor to tumour-induced systemic inflammation, but not directly 108 tumour cell-derived factors.
- We next performed proteomic analyses of serum specimens at sequential stages of LLC
 tumour progression. Consistent with the transcriptomic screen, LRG1 was one of the most
 abundant proteins differentially upregulated in d15 serum as compared to d0 specimens (Fig.
 2f). Supporting the lung EC bulk RNA-seq data, the serum levels of circulating LRG1 closely
 reflected the temporal pattern of disease progression (Fig. 2g, Extended Data Fig. 7a).

To confirm the findings of the LLC screen in a second, less reductionist tumour model, we orthotopically implanted small bio-banked MMTV-PyMT breast tumour fragments in the mammary fat pads of syngeneic FVB/N mice (Extended Data Fig. 8a), and traced spontaneous metastasis. Similar to the LLC model, *Lrg1* was upregulated in lung EC and in serum during metastatic progression in the MMTV-PyMT model (Extended Data Fig. 8b, c). Correspondingly, a meta-analysis of several retrospective clinical studies²⁰⁻²⁴ revealed an upregulation of serum 120 LRG1 levels for different human cancer entities as compared to corresponding cohorts of

- 121 healthy volunteers, including colorectal, gastric, lung, ovarian, and pancreatic tumours (Fig.
- 122 2h). These data underline the systemic regulation of LRG1 during metastatic progression.

123 To determine the primary source of circulating LRG1, we compared *Lrg1* expression amongst 124 in vitro-cultured LLC cells, primary tumours, and d15 lung tissue. While LLC cells did not 125 express Lrg1, small levels of Lrg1 were detectable in the primary tumour (Fig. 3a). Notably 126 however, lung tissue displayed substantially stronger Lrg1 expression as primary tumour 127 tissue (Fig. 3a). To further dissect the cellular source of *Lrq1*, we isolated EC, leukocytes, and 128 CD31⁻CD45⁻ cells from both, primary tumour and lung tissue. *Lrg1* expression was enriched in 129 the EC population (Fig. 3b, Extended Data Fig. 9a). Nevertheless, infiltrating leukocytes did 130 express detectable levels of *Lrg1* in primary tumours (Fig. 3b). Next, to investigate the role of 131 leukocyte-derived LRG1 in tumour progression, bone marrow (BM) chimeric mice were 132 generated with either WT or Lrg1-KO BM cells (Extended Data Fig. 9b-d). Lack of leukocyte-133 derived LRG1 neither affected primary tumour vasculature (Extended Data Fig. 9e, f), nor did 134 it impact overall survival of mice when compared to the WT BM-chimeras (Fig. 3c). Taken 135 together, EC appear to represent the major cellular source of LRG1, and leukocyte-derived 136 LRG1 is largely-dispensable during metastasis.

137 To gain insights into EC transcriptomic heterogeneity and to map Lrg1 expression across EC 138 subpopulations, we conducted single-cell RNA sequencing of lung EC isolated at sequential 139 stages of tumour progression. The cellular heterogeneity was investigated both, within and 140 between the samples by applying uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) 141 and graph-based clustering. Following biologically-supervised filtering (Extended Data Fig. 142 10a), 8,512 cells were annotated as capillary (sub-cluster I/II), arterial, venous, and cycling 143 populations based on the top 10 differentially-expressed genes in each cluster (Fig. 3d, e). The 144 cluster annotation was in line with the current knowledge of prominent EC signalling families 145 including Vegf-Vegfr, Ang-Tie, and Notch (Extended Data Fig. 10b), and corroborated with 146 recently published single-cell data of homeostatic brain and lung EC²⁵. Unexpectedly, the 147 clustering of lung EC remained unaffected during metastasis progression (Extended Data Fig. 148 10c). Additionally, there were no overt changes in the distribution of cells amongst the clusters 149 (Extended Data Fig. 10d), thereby negating any major restructuring of the vascular hierarchical 150 network as metastatic disease progressed.

151 Approximately 60% of venous EC were found positive for *Lrg1* expression (Fig. 3f), attributing 152 to the fact that LRG1 was initially identified as a marker for high-endothelial venules²⁶. Yet, 153 Lrg1⁺ venous cells constituted merely 20% of total Lrg1⁺ cells, while the remaining 80% of 154 Lrg1⁺ cells were uniformly dispersed amongst the other EC clusters (Fig. 3g). Whilst the 155 frequency of cells expressing Lrq1 (Log₂-normalized expression >0) remained largely 156 unchanged between the samples, d15 and d36 witnessed a much higher fraction of total cells 157 with elevated levels of *Lrg1* expression (Fig. 3h). In concordance with the bulk RNA-seq data, 158 the single-cell data highlighted a systemic upregulation of *Lrg1* expression throughout all lung 159 EC in a tumour stage-specific pattern. Additionally, we examined *Lrg1* expression levels in 160 different organ EC and found them to be strongly upregulated at d15 across all examined

161 vascular beds when compared to the resting vasculature (Fig. 3i). The multiorgan increase in 162 *Lrg1* expression was reversed by EC-specific deletion of *Stat3* (Fig. 3j), highlighting STAT3 as a 163 key transcriptional regulator of systemic EC *Lrg1* expression. It is noteworthy that enhanced 164 *Lrg1* expression across multiple vascular beds might have resulted in the observed increase in 165 serum levels of LRG1, thereby indicating that a primary tumour utilizes the large surface of 166 the body's vascular endothelium as an amplifier of tumour-induced systemically acting 167 angiocrine signals.

168 To dissect the function of LRG1 during metastatic progression, we established a systemic gain-169 of-function (GOF) experiment by ectopically expressing *Lrg1* in LLC cells (Extended Data Fig. 170 11a-c). Mice were subcutaneously implanted with LLC-pLenti or LLC-Lrg1 tumours. Upon 171 attaining an average tumour size of just 50 mm³, they were intravenously injected with 172 melanoma (B16F10) cells (Extended Data Fig. 11d). Mice with systemic upregulation of LRG1 173 exhibited a strong increase in melanoma lung metastases (Fig. 4a), thereby establishing a pro-174 metastatic role of systemic LRG1. Likewise, in an experimental liver metastasis model, 175 intravenous injection of WT31 cells resulted in a higher metastatic incidence in mice with 176 systemic GOF of LRG1 (Extended Data Fig. 11e, f). To further decipher the exact step of the 177 metastatic cascade, LLC-pLenti and LLC-Lrg1 tumours were resected 24 h after intravenous 178 injection of B16F10 cells (Extended Data Fig. 12a). There were no differences observed 179 between the two groups suggesting that the pro-metastatic effect of systemic LRG1 was 180 rapidly lost upon withdrawal of the source of LRG1 during metastatic colonization (Extended 181 Data Fig. 12b). To conclusively rule any possible direct effect of LRG1 on tumour cell 182 extravasation, mice were preconditioned with a single injection of either LRG1-neutralizing 183 antibody (anti-LRG1) or control-IgG prior to intravenous injection of melanoma cells 184 (Extended Data Fig. 12c). Consistent with the previous results, blocking LRG1 did not affect 185 the extravasation of melanoma cells (Extended Data Fig. 12d). Collectively, systemically 186 elevated levels of LRG1 supported colonization of disseminated tumour cells.

187 To investigate the functional impact of LRG1 on the metastatic niche, we quantitated different 188 stromal populations in the lung (Extended Data Fig. 13a). Surprisingly, LRG1 neither influenced 189 EC proliferation nor did it affect the infiltration of different immune cells (Fig. 4b, Extended 190 Data Fig. 13b-d), thereby indicating an angiogenesis- and immune-independent role LRG1 191 during metastasis. Intriguingly, we observed a strong increase in lung perivascular cells with 192 systemic upregulation of LRG1 (Fig. 4c-e). These NG2+ perivascular cells were recently 193 described to establish a conducive metastatic niche and facilitate metastasis²⁷. Therefore, the 194 data suggest that EC-derived LRG1 activates perivascular cells to support metastatic 195 colonization.

Lastly, to assess the therapeutic potential of the LRG1-neutralizing antibody 15C4²⁸ in clinically
 relevant settings, we adopted two therapeutic strategies – short-term perioperative and long term postsurgical adjuvant therapy (Fig. 4f). Perioperative therapy was initiated after LLC
 tumours had grown to an average size of 150 mm³ and therapy was discontinued 10 days post primary tumour resection. This short-term treatment had no apparent effect on the primary
 tumour vasculature (Extended Data Fig. 14a). Yet, perioperative therapy with anti-LRG1

202 yielded a significant overall survival advantage (Fig. 4g). To circumvent any effect on primary 203 tumour growth or early steps in the metastatic cascade such as intravasation and 204 extravasation, we next employed an adjuvant therapy approach wherein administration of 205 anti-LRG1 or control-IgG was commenced 1-day post-primary tumour resection until the 206 experimental endpoint. Similar to the perioperative approach, long-term adjuvant therapy 207 prolonged overall survival of mice by 8.5 days, which corresponded to an approximately 40% 208 improvement over the control-IgG treated group (Fig. 4h). Remarkably, anti-LRG1 as a 209 monotherapy offered a substantial overall survival advantage in a mouse model which has 210 previously been reported to be refractory to anti-VEGF therapy²⁹ and in which chemotherapy shows no effect on lung metastatic burden¹¹. Overall, neutralizing LRG1 suppressed tumour 211 212 cell colonization, thereby providing a significant survival benefit in a clinically-relevant 213 therapeutic window.

214 In summary, exploiting a comparative systems biology approach, the present study captured 215 the temporal evolution of vascular changes in the pre-metastatic and metastatic niches. In-216 depth bulk RNA-seq analysis of lung EC complemented with serum proteomics served as a 217 versatile tool for the identification of novel angiocrine molecules. Furthermore, 218 transcriptomics at single-cell resolution mapped endothelial heterogeneity and spatial 219 expression of angiocrine instructors in a tumour cell-seeded lung. The single-cell data added 220 another layer of complexity by attributing spatial information, especially about the arterio-221 venous axis, which would be diluted in bulk RNA-seq analysis. Notably, the high-resolution 222 expression analysis identifying widespread regulation of LRG1 expression throughout the 223 vascular tree supports the notion that the vascular endothelium serves as an amplifier of 224 tumour-induced systemically-acting instructive signals.

225 The temporal approach with surgical removal of the primary tumour facilitated for the first 226 time to formally discriminate between pre-metastatic and metastatic EC transcriptomic 227 changes. We prototypically datamined for secreted angiocrine factors and identified the TGF β pathway specifier LRG1 as an early EC-specific STAT3-dependent responsive signal that was 228 229 tightly calibrated to the tumour-induced inflammation. Systemic upregulation of LRG1 was 230 dispensable for extravasation but facilitated early-stage colonization of tumour cells at distant 231 metastatic sites. Concomitantly, intervention with anti-LRG1 suppressed metastatic 232 progression in a clinically-relevant adjuvant regimen. Recently, a phase I/IIa clinical trial with 233 Magacizumab, a humanized version of anti-LRG1 employed in this study, has been initiated 234 for patients with neovascular age-related macular degeneration. Our preclinical data firmly 235 support a crucial role of LRG1 in tumour metastasis and warrant further translational studies 236 of LRG1 as a therapeutic target for metastasis.

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Author contributions: MS, NG, AAAP, and HGA conceived and designed the study. MS, NG, AAAP, MK, LH, BK, BL, CM, JK, MSc, and JH performed experiments. DMK, SEM, and JG provided reagents. EB provided technical support. MS, NG, AAAP, and HGA analysed and interpreted data. MS and HGA supervised the project. MS, NG, AAAP, and HGA wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

334 **Competing interests:** Authors declare no competing interests.

Data and materials availability: NGS data have been deposited in the Gene Expression
 Omnibus under accession numbers GSE131072 (bulk RNA-seq) and GSE131110 (single-cell
 RNA-seq). The mass spectrometry data files have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

338 Consortium under the accession number PXD013978.



Fig. 1| Transcriptomic evolution of lung EC during metastasis. a, Schematic depiction of LLC spontaneous metastasis model, in which mice develop lung metastases following primary tumour resection. **b**, Principal component analysis of RNA-seq data of isolated lung EC (n = 4 samples for each time point). Circles and squares denote individual samples and centroid of each group, respectively. **c**, Dot plot showing Log₂ fold change (FC) for genes with RPKM \geq 1 in at least one of the samples. The mean FC of all analysed genes is indicated for each comparison. **d**, Bar graph illustrating the number of significantly upregulated (\uparrow) and downregulated (\downarrow) genes in d15 (226 \uparrow , 89 \downarrow), d22 (480 \uparrow , 119 \downarrow), and d36 (1329 \uparrow , 71 \downarrow) lung EC as compared to d0. **e**, Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) comparing d15 and d0 data sets. **f**, The inflammatory response gene set was found positively-correlated with d15 time point. **g**, Heatmap highlighting genes in the inflammatory response gene set. **h**, Immunofluorescence images showing infiltrating CD45⁺ immune cells in the lung tissue. Scale bars = 200 µm. M = metastatic nodule; N = normal adjacent tissue; NES = normalized enrichment score.



Fig. 2| LRG1 is systemically elevated during tumour progression. a, Comparison of disease and biofunctions was conducted using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA). Correlation scores (z-score) are shown for the selected disease and bio-functions. b, Genes involved in the EC development gene set are shown in row-normalized Log₂-expression values. c, qPCR quantitation of Lrg1 expression in lung EC to validate RNA-seq data (mean ± SD, n = 5-9 mice). **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001 (two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test). d, GSEA plot highlighting enriched IL6_JAK_STAT3 signalling on d15 as compared to d0 (upper panel). IPA analysis revealing STAT3 as an upstream regulator in disease stage-specific pattern. e, On the left, qPCR analysis of Stat3 and Lrg1 expression in lung EC isolated from tumour-bearing Stat3^{fl/fl} (S3) or Stat3^{fl/fl} X VECadCre^{ERT2} (S3V) mice (mean ± SD, n = 4-5 mice). **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001 (multiple t-tests corrected with the Holm-Sidak method). On the right, Pearson's correlation between Stat3 and Lrg1 expression. f, Volcano plot displaying FC and adjusted p-value for each identified protein in LC-MS analyses. The mean of 4 biological replicates is indicated. g, Shown are iBAQ intensities of LRG1 protein in serum samples (mean ± SD, n = 4 mice). *, P<0.05 (two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test). h, LRG1 protein amounts in sera of cancer patients and healthy volunteers were retrieved from previously-published articles (13-17). The bar graph shows relative LRG1 abundance normalized to the corresponding healthy cohort. Data normalization removes differences originating due to varying measurement techniques employed in different studies. The size of each sample cohort is indicated in the graph. ****, P<0.0001 (multiple t-tests corrected with the Holm-Sidak method).



Fig. 3| Vascular endothelial cells are the major source of LRG1 and serve as a signal amplifier. a, Comparison of Lrg1 expression between in vitro-cultured LLC cells, primary tumour and d15 lung tissue (mean ± SD, n = 4 mice). *, P<0.05 (two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test). b, EC, leukocytes, and CD31 CD45 cells were isolated from primary tumours and d15 lung tissues. Dot plots show relative Lrg1 expression in EC and leukocytes as compared to CD31 CD45 cells (mean \pm SD, n = 5-6 mice). **, P<0.01 (*two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test*). **c,** LLC tumours were implanted in WT or *Lrg1*-KO BM chimeras. Kaplan-Meier graph showing overall survival of mice after primary tumour resection (n = 8-9 mice). The comparison was rendered non-significant (ns) according to Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. d, On the left, UMAP visualization of colour-coded clusters of lung EC (n = 8,512 cells). On the right, gene signature of the capillary I/II, arterial, venous, and cycling subpopulations based on 10 most-upregulated genes. e, Feature plots indicating enriched genes for each identified subpopulation. EC-specific Cldn5 and Cdh5 were uniformly expressed by all subpopulations. f, Feature plot displaying Lrq1 expression across all analysed lung EC. g, Shown is the cluster-wise spread of Lrg1-expressing cells for each sample. h, The graph highlights the frequency of Lrg1expressing cells (Log_2 -normalized expression >0 or >2) amongst the total number of cells per sample. *, P<0.05; ****, P<0.0001 (two-sided Fischer's exact test). i, Lrg1 expression was analysed in EC isolated from multiple organs of d0 and d15 mice (mean ± SD, n = 4-6 mice). ****, P<0.0001 (twotailed Mann-Whitney U test). j, Lrq1 expression in multiorgan EC isolated from tumour-bearing Stat3^{fl/fl} (S3) or Stat3^{fl/fl} X VECadCre^{ERT2} (S3V) mice (mean ± SD, n = 4-5 mice). **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001 (*multiple t-tests corrected with the Holm-Sidak method*). n.d. = non-detectable.



Fig. 4] LRG1 neutralization inhibits metastasis. a, *Lrg1*-overexpressing LLC (LLC-Lrg1) or control-LLC (LLC-pLenti) cells were subcutaneously inoculated in mice. 7 days later, melanoma (B16F10) cells were intravenously injected. On the left, dot plot showing the number of melanoma metastases in the lung, and on the right, representative lung images (mean \pm SD, n = 12 mice). Scale bars = 5 mm. *, P<0.05 (*two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test*). **b-e**, WT or NG2-Cre X YFP^{fl/fl} mice were injected with either *Lrg1*-overexpressing LLC (LLC-Lrg1) or control-LLC (LLC-pLenti) cells. FACS-based quantitation of EC, immune cells, and NG2⁺ perivascular cells in the lung of tumour-bearing mice (**b**, **c**) (mean \pm SD, n = 5-6 mice). **, P<0.01 (*two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test*). Lung tissue sections were stained for Desmin (pericyte-specific) and α SMA (smooth muscle cell-specific). Representative images of lung sections (**d**). Scale bars = 100 µm. Quantitation of Desmin/DAPI area and aSMA/DAPI area are shown (**e**) (mean \pm SD, n = 10 mice; *two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test*). **f-h**, Therapeutic assessment of LRG1-blocking antibody 15C4 in LLC metastasis model using two different strategies (**f**). Kaplan-Meier graphs showing overall survival of mice after primary tumour resection when treated with control-IgG or anti-LRG1 in perioperative (**g**; n = 10 mice) or postsurgical adjuvant (**h**; n = 8-9 mice) setting (50 mg/kg twice per week). *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01 (*Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test*).