Title: Tumor cell heterogeneity drives spatial organization of the intratumoral immune

response in squamous cell skin carcinoma

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Abstract:

Intratumoral heterogeneity (ITH)—defined as genetic and cellular diversity within a tumor—is

linked to a failure of immunotherapy in multiple cancer types and to an inferior anti-tumor

immune response even in the absence of therapy. To determine how tumor heterogeneity

shapes the immune microenvironment and impacts responses to therapy, we modeled

heterogeneous tumors comprised of a pro-inflammatory ("hot") and an immunosuppressive

("cold") tumor population. This was done by mixing two squamous skin carcinoma cell lines that

alone give rise to tumors with a reproducible immunologically "hot" or "cold" immune

phenotype respectively, and labeling these with YFP or RFP fluorescent tags to enable precise

spatial tracking. The resulting mixed-population tumors were made up of a patchwork of

distinct regions that could be classified as being comprised of YFP$^+$ ("hot") cells, RFP$^+$ ("cold")

cells, or a mixture of YFP$^+$ and RFP$^+$ cells. We find the spatial organization of tumor cells creates

a blueprint for the spatial organization and functional activity of infiltrating immune cells,

defining the architecture of both tumor-infiltrating T cell and myeloid cell compartments. Using

a combination of microdissection techniques and single-cell spatial transcriptomics, we show

that YFP regions harbor a higher frequency of Th1 cells and IFNγ^+ CD8 T cells compared to RFP

regions, whereas immunosuppressive macrophages preferentially accumulate in RFP regions.

Total CD4 T cells were also enriched in YFP regions, but by contrast, total CD8 T cells—despite

their superior function in YFP regions—were of low abundance throughout the heterogeneous

tumors. We identify the chemokine Cx3cl1, produced at higher levels by our "cold" tumors, as a

mediator of intratumoral macrophage abundance, and show that overexpression of Cx3cl1 in

pro-inflammatory ("hot") tumor cells leads to an increase in immunosuppressive CD206^{Hi}

macrophages. We further interrogated the impact of this spatial patterning of immune cells on

the responses of heterogeneous tumors to checkpoint blockade. We find that combination of

PD-1 blockade and CD40 agonist is able to increase the Th1 response in "cold" RFP regions,

however the T cell response in "cold" regions remains inferior to "hot" regions and treatment

achieves only a modest reduction in tumor growth. Collectively, our results demonstrate that

the spatial organization of heterogeneous tumor cells has a profound impact on directing the

spatial organization and function of tumor-infiltrating immune cells as well as on responses to

immunotherapy.

Introduction:

Immunotherapies have shown great promise in treating cancer by activating a patient's

own immune cells to fight their tumor, but only a fraction of patients respond to current

treatment regimens[1–4]. Immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) therapy routinely achieves durable

cures in only a limited number of cancer types, and in many tumor types, response rates are as

low as 15% with high relapse rates[3,4]. Genetic heterogeneity within a tumor is a significant

factor that has been linked to poor ICB response[5–7]. Tumors are often comprised of multiple

populations of cancer cells, with each population carrying a distinct set of genetic alterations

and phenotypic behaviors[8–10]. Genetic heterogeneity—often given the generalized label

"intratumoral heterogeneity" (ITH)—is inherent in all cancer types[6], and studies in multiple

cancer types have shown that tumors with high genetic heterogeneity (high ITH) are less likely

to respond to ICB regimens[5,7]. Further, in patients, tumors are frequently a patchwork of "hot"

and "cold" regions[11–13]—characterized by high and low T cell infiltrates, respectively —

indicating that a dysfunctional T cell phenotype can be spatially localized. One study of 85 pre-

treatment lung cancers revealed that over two-thirds of tumors investigated contained both

"hot" and "cold" regions[11]. However, model systems that lend themselves to mechanistically

interrogating the impact of tumor heterogeneity on the spatial organization of immune cells

within a tumor are limited at present.

Heterogeneity-induced impairment of the anti-tumor immune response has also been

observed in mouse models[14–16]. A mixture of two mouse pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma

(PDAC) cell lines, one giving rise to "immune hot" and the other to "immune cold" tumors on its

own, resulted in an overall "cold" tumor, suggesting that "coldness" may be a dominant

phenotype[14]. Another study in a murine melanoma model showed that high-heterogeneity

tumors exhibited an inferior CD8 T cell response compared to low-heterogeneity tumors[15].

Building on this, we set out to ask not only how tumor heterogeneity impacts the immune

response in the tumor as a whole, but also to interrogate its impact on the spatial organization

of the intratumoral immune response.

Our studies employed tumor cell lines derived from carcinogen-induced squamous cell

skin carcinomas, induced by dimethylbenzanthracene and 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-

acetate (DMBA/TPA)[17,18]. The DMBA/TPA skin carcinogenesis model gives rise to tumors that

exhibit a physiologically relevant range of mutational burdens[19,20] and develop in immune-

competent hosts, resulting in tumors with neoantigen and immune profiles that mimic those

found in human tumors. We have generated cell lines from DMBA/TPA-induced tumors, which,

when implanted into mice, give rise to tumors with reproducible immune phenotypes. Here, we

develop a novel model of heterogeneous tumors by implanting a mixture of two such cell lines.

Each cell line, labeled with a fluorophore, represents a distinct, trackable population within the

tumor. The two cell lines we selected share a common oncogenic driver, *Hras* Q61L, but also

each contain over 100 distinct nonsynonymous mutations; their combination thus models a

genetically heterogeneous tumor.

Using this novel model system, we here interrogate the mechanisms by which

heterogeneity in tumor cells impacts the immune response, the spatial organization of

infiltrating immune cells, and the response to ICB therapy. We find, not surprisingly, that the

"cold" tumor population drives an overall "cold" immune phenotype at a whole tumor level.

Further, we observe that our constituent tumor populations form a patchwork pattern within

the tumor. Our study reveals that the spatial organization of the tumor cells themselves creates

an architectural blueprint that dictates the spatial localization and function of infiltrating

immune cells. We observe T cells preferentially accumulating and exhibiting superior effector

function in the neighborhood of "hot" tumor cells, while "cold" tumor cells recruit an

immunosuppressive microenvironment to their immediate vicinity. The presence of the "cold"

tumor cells further mediates resistance to ICB therapy in mixed-population tumors. However,

to our surprise, we observe that immunotherapy improves the quality of the immune response

in "cold" tumor regions as well as "hot" regions—but not to a sufficient degree to induce robust

tumor regression. Our model system of heterogeneity thus illuminates how heterogeneity in

tumor cells impacts both the endogenous anti-tumor immune response and the efficacy of

therapy on a highly localized spatial scale.

Results:

Modeling heterogeneous tumors with trackable tumor populations.

We have established a series of squamous cell skin carcinoma cell lines, named the CIT

("carcinogen-induced tumor") lines, derived from DMBA/TPA-induced skin carcinomas that

were initiated in *K5-CreER^T2-Confetti* mice on an FVB background[18]. To establish a model system

in which to study the impact of tumor heterogeneity on the immune response, we selected and

combined two of these cell lines, CIT6 and CIT9, that give rise respectively to tumors exhibiting

a high and low frequency of overall CD3 T cells, CD4 T cells and CD8 T cells, representing

immunologically "hot" and "cold" tumors. We introduced fluorescent labels into these tumor

cells, taking advantage of CIT lines originating from mice carrying an unactivated *Confetti*

cassette. We treated CIT6 and CIT9 with adenoviral Cre recombinase (AdCre), leading to

recombination of the Confetti allele and stochastic labeling of each cell with one of four

fluorescent proteins—yellow, red, cyan and green fluorescent protein (YFP, RFP, CFP and GFP,

respectively)[21]. We then sorted YFP+ cells from the CIT6 line and RFP+ cells from the CIT9 line to

establish fluorescently-tagged CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines. For all subsequent experiments,

these fluorescently labeled cell lines were implanted into syngeneic *Confetti* mice, carrying an

unactivated *Confetti* allele, which recapitulated the expected "hot" and "cold" immune

phenotypes (**Fig. 1A-D**; Supp Fig. 1) we observed when unlabeled CIT6 and CIT9 tumor cells

were implanted into wild-type FVB mice.

To model heterogeneous tumors, we injected mice subcutaneously with an equal

mixture of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines (6.25×10^4 cells each, totaling 1.25×10^5 cells per

injection) (**Fig. 1E**). Tumors were assessed for composition by fluorescent stereomicroscope at

the time of harvest, when tumors were 1cm in longest diameter (21-28 days). We consistently

observed approximately 2/3 of the resulting tumors were comprised of both YFP+ and RFP+ cells

with clearly defined YFP$^+$ and RFP$^+$ regions, whereas the remaining 1/3 consisted of only RFP$^+$

cells in most cases, or only YFP$^+$ cells in rare cases (**Fig. 1F**, data not shown). The tumors that

contained both YFP$^+$ and RFP$^+$ cells, termed "mixed-population tumors" herein, were used for

downstream analyses. When the equal mixture of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cells was implanted

into immunodeficient NOD/SCID/IL-2Rɣ null (NSG) mice, which lack T, B and NK cells and innate

lymphoid cells (ILCs), we observed a higher penetrance of mixed-population tumors, indicating

that immune activity against tumor cells was likely responsible for cases where mixed tumors

failed to establish (Supp Fig. 2). Inspection of the mixed-population tumors by cryosectioning

and fluorescent imaging showed a patchwork of regions that could be classified as being

occupied primarily by YFP$^+$ cells, primarily by RFP$^+$ cells, or by a mixture of both populations

(**Fig. 1G**). The fluorescent tags in these cell lines thus successfully enabled spatial tracking and

quantification of each tumor population in the mixed-tumor population tumors and enabled us

to establish a novel model to study ITH.

An immunosuppressive phenotype dominates the immune microenvironment of mixed-

population tumors.

To determine how each constituent tumor population affects the overall immune

response in mixed-population tumors, we performed a comprehensive flow cytometric analysis

of the immune infiltrates (Supp Fig. 3) found in CIT6-YFP + CIT9-RFP mixed-population tumors

and compared this to infiltrates found in each CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP single-population tumors.

Mixed-population tumors have an overall "cold" immune phenotype, exhibiting CD4 and CD8 T

cell infiltration comparable to CIT9-RFP tumors and significantly lower than that found in CIT6-

YFP tumors (**Fig. 2A**). MHC-I proteins were expressed on more than 85% of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-

RFP tumor cells and expressed at a similar level (**Fig. 2B**), suggesting that the differences in T

cell abundance are not due to the differences in MHC-I expression. MHC-II expression was very

low on both CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP tumor cells (Supp. Fig. 4A), in line with these tumors being

of epithelial origin. Although there was no significant difference in the fraction of CD4 T cells

that were regulatory T cells (Tregs; $CD4^+$ $CD25^+$ $Foxp3^+$) or in the CD8 T cell-to-Treg ratio

between any of the groups, CIT9-RFP and mixed-population tumors showed a lower CD4 Teff

($CD4^+$ $CD25^-$ $Foxp3^-$)-to-Treg cell ratio than CIT6-YFP tumors, suggesting a skewing in CIT9-RFP

and mixed tumors toward an immunosuppressive microenvironment (**Fig. 2C**). Other

lymphocytes, specifically B cells and $NKp46^+$ lymphocytes (including natural killer (NK) cells and

innate lymphoid cells (ILCs)), showed a similar pattern: CIT6-YFP tumors showed significantly

higher infiltration by both lymphoid populations than CIT9-RFP tumors, and mixed-population

tumors overall resembled CIT9-RFP tumors (although the difference between $NKp46^+$

lymphocytes in CIT6-YFP versus mixed tumors was not statistically significant) (**Fig. 2D**). By

contrast, CIT9-RFP tumors showed a higher infiltration than CIT6-YFP tumors of $F4/80^+$ $CD11b^+$

$MHC-II^+$ macrophages (**Fig. 2E**) and $CD11b^+$ myeloid cells (Supp Fig. 4B), which often harbor

immunosuppressive properties in the tumor microenvironment. Mixed-population tumors also

had an increase in $CD11b^+$ myeloid cells and a trend toward more macrophages compared to

CIT6-YFP tumors, again exhibiting more similarity in immune profile to CIT9-RFP tumors (**Fig. 2E,**

Supp Fig. 4B). $Ly6G^+$ $Ly6C^{mid}$ neutrophils, $Ly6G^-$ $Ly6C^+$ monocytes, and $CD11b^+$ $CD11c^+$ $MHC-II^+$

$F4/80^-$ dendritic cells (DCs), which are conventionally anti-tumoral effector cells, all showed a

trend toward lower frequency in both CIT9-RFP and mixed tumors compared to CIT6-YFP

tumors, albeit not statistically significant differences (Supp Fig. 4C). Collectively, these data

support our designation of CIT6-YFP tumors as pro-inflammatory and "immune hot," and of

CIT9-RFP tumors as immunosuppressive and "immune cold," and further reveal that the

immunosuppressive phenotype is dominant in mixed-population tumors.

Macrophages are conventionally known to facilitate antigen presentation and assist in T

cell activation, but in the context of a tumor, evidence suggests that tumor-associated

macrophages (TAMs) are more frequently a mediator of immunosuppression. TAMs are the

most abundant immune cells in CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP tumors, comprising 30-80% of total

CD45$^+$ immune cells. Therefore, we sought to determine if F4/80$^+$ CD11b$^+$ MHC-II$^+$ macrophages

in our tumors are functionally immunosuppressive. Macrophages were sorted from CIT6-YFP,

CIT9-RFP, and mixed-population tumors, and assessed for their capacity to suppress CD8 T cells

isolated from naïve, non-tumor bearing syngeneic *Confetti* mice and activated by CD3/CD28

beads. In comparison to CD8 T cells alone, the addition of TAMs significantly suppressed CD8 T

cell proliferation, measured as the number of cells that had undergone division (as marked by

CFSE dilution) (**Fig. 2F**). The expansion of activated T cells, measured as CD69$^+$ CD25$^+$ CD8$^+$ T

cells (early activation), CD69$^-$ CD25$^+$ CD8$^+$ T cells (late activation), or PD-1$^+$ CD8$^+$ T cells, showed

similar results, with the addition of macrophages decreasing the number of activated T cells

(**Fig. 2G**, Supp Fig. 4D). Moreover, the expansion of the CD62L$^-$ CD44$^+$ effector T cell subset and

the CD62L$^+$ CD44$^+$ central memory T cell subset was significantly suppressed in the presence of

TAMs (**Fig. 2H**, Supp Fig. 4E). Surprisingly, no difference in immunosuppressive capacity was

observed between TAMs derived from CIT6-YFP, CIT9-RFP or mixed-population tumors (**Fig. 2F-**

H). Thus, macrophages in CIT6-YFP, CIT9-RFP and mixed-population tumors are equally

immunosuppressive, but we conclude that the increased abundance of these macrophages in

CIT9-RFP and mixed-population tumors **(Fig. 2E)** may be responsible for creating a more

suppressive immune microenvironment in those tumors.

Spatial organization of tumor populations drives the spatial organization of immune cells.

Since the mixed-population tumors were comprised of a patchwork of YFP, mixed, and

RFP tumor regions, we next sought to better understand whether the "dominant cold" immune

phenotype was uniformly true in all tumor regions. To this end, we first quantified $CD3^+$ T cells

by immunofluorescent (IF) staining of 8µm sections. We classified each field of view as

predominantly occupied by CIT6-YFP cells ("YFP regions"; >60% of tumor cells are YFP^+),

predominantly occupied by CIT9-RFP cells ("RFP regions"; >60% of tumor cells are RFP^+), or

mixed ("mixed regions"; YFP and RFP each represent more than 40% of tumor cells), and then

quantified the number of $CD3^+$ T cells in the field (**Fig. 3A**). This analysis revealed a significantly

higher average count of $CD3^+$ T cells in YFP regions compared to RFP regions, with mixed

regions showing an intermediate level (**Fig. 3B**). Further, we observed a significant positive

correlation between the number of T cells and the fraction of YFP tumor cells (R^2=0.22, *p*=4.7 x

10^{-35}) in each field, and noticed that the fields of view with the highest number of infiltrating T

cells were all comprised of >50% YFP^+ cells (**Fig. 3C**). These data suggest that T cells

preferentially localize to the regions occupied by CIT6-YFP tumor cells in mixed-population

tumors.

We next turned to flow cytometry-based analysis of the immune cells in each YFP,

mixed, and RFP regions to gain a higher dimensional profile of the immune response in each

region. Mixed population tumors were embedded into agarose gel and each tumor was sliced

into five to ten 400μm-thick live sections. Each section was manually microdissected into YFP,

mixed, and RFP regions using a surgical scalpel under a fluorescent dissecting microscope. All

YFP pieces, all mixed pieces, and all RFP pieces from the same tumor were pooled and digested

into a single cell suspension for immune profiling by flow cytometry (**Fig. 3D**). Mirroring our

findings by IF, we found a higher frequency of total $CD3^+$ T cells in YFP regions than in RFP

regions, with mixed regions showing intermediate infiltration **(Fig. 3E)**. This localization pattern

was also seen in, and was driven by, CD4 T cells. The abundance of total T cells and CD4 T cells

in YFP regions of mixed-population tumors was comparable to that in single-population CIT6-

YFP tumors, and similarly, the abundance of total and CD4 T cells in RFP regions of mixed

tumors was comparable to that in single-population CIT9-RFP tumors (**Fig. 3F**). By contrast, CD8

T cells were at low abundance in all tumor regions, including YFP regions, and were found at

levels resembling those in single-population CIT9-RFP tumors (**Fig. 3G**). A more detailed analysis

of T cell function showed that nearly one-third of the CD4 T cells in YFP regions were Th1 cells

($CD4^+$ $IFN\gamma^+$), whereas only ~2% of CD4 T cells in RFP regions were Th1 cells (median frequency

of Th1 cells in YFP regions = 28.9%, RFP regions = 1.99%) (**Fig. 3H**). Th2 ($CD4^+$ $IL-4^+$) and Th17

($CD4^+$ $IL-17^+$) cells were equally rare in all regions (**Fig. 3I**). Even more strikingly, despite their

low abundance, CD8 T cells showed increased effector function in YFP regions: over 70% of CD8

T cells in YFP regions showed capacity to produce $IFN\gamma$, whereas less than 10% of CD8 T cells in

mixed and RFP regions showed the same (**Fig. 3J**). There was no apparent difference in Treg

($Foxp3^+$ $CD25^+$) cell frequency between regions, but the ratio of Treg:Th1 cells and Treg: $IFN\gamma^+$

CD8 T cells was higher in RFP regions compared to YFP and mixed regions, suggestive of an

overall more immunosuppressive microenvironment in RFP regions (**Fig. 3J, K**). In addition,

macrophages (F4/80+ CD11b+ MHC-II+) were significantly enriched in mixed regions compared

to YFP regions, and also trended toward higher enrichment in RFP regions (**Fig. 3L**).

244   Collectively, these data show that local tumor cells themselves play a significant role in

driving the immune microenvironment in their vicinity. Moreover, the observation that mixed

regions look similar to RFP regions—in terms of effector T cell infiltration and macrophage

infiltration—suggests that in regions in which both CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP tumor cells co-exist,

"cold" CIT9-RFP tumor cells exert dominance over the local immune infiltrate. The "dominant

coldness" of CIT9-RFP is also seen in the global suppression of CD8 T cell infiltration in all

regions. However, CD8 T cells that managed to infiltrate YFP regions appeared to be highly

active.

CD206Hi macrophages and lack of neutrophils and monocytes mediate an immunosuppressive

TME in RFP regions.

To characterize immune cell spatial patterning more deeply, we employed ZipSeq spatial

transcriptomics[22] to CIT6-YFP + CIT9-RFP mixed-population tumors. ZipSeq allows immune cells

within user-defined regions of interest in live tissue sections to be tagged with distinct

nucleotide sequences (akin to assigning each region of interest a unique zip code), making use

of photocaged oligonucleotides and precise light exposure. Using this method, immune cells

from YFP, RFP and mixed regions of mixed population tumors (n=2) were tagged with distinct

"zip code" barcodes, and sections were subsequently disaggregated and subjected to single cell

RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) (**Fig. 4A**). Immune cells were subjected to UMAP clustering, and

cluster identities were assigned based on expression of well-established markers (**Fig. 4B**, Supp

Fig. 5A, B). Using ZipSeq barcodes, we mapped each immune cell back to the region it

originated from. In line with our flow cytometry analyses, we observed a higher infiltration of T

cells in YFP regions compared to RFP regions (**Fig. 4C, D**), and also saw that myeloid cells

comprised a majority of the immune cells (**Fig. 4B**). In particular, we observed three large

macrophage clusters, CD206^{Hi} macrophages, MHC-II^{Hi} macrophages, and Arg1^{Hi} macrophages

(**Fig. 4B,** Supp Table 1). These three clusters were all enriched in RFP regions (**Fig. 4E**). By

contrast, neutrophils and monocytes were observed at lower abundance in RFP regions than

YFP regions (**Fig. 4F, G**). We carried out ZipSeq single cell spatial transcriptomics on a second

mixed-population tumor, and found similar results (Supp Fig. 6). Myeloid cells comprised a

majority of the immune cells (Supp Fig. 6A-C) and T cells were enriched in YFP regions (Supp Fig.

6D, E). Notably, out of seven macrophage clusters in the second tumor, six of them were

enriched in RFP regions compared to YFP regions (Supp Fig. 6F). Moreover, the second tumor

showed enrichment of neutrophils and monocytes in YFP regions (Supp Fig. 6G, H). Pathway

analysis with EnrichR, using genes enriched in each cluster and the GO Biological Process 2021

repository, suggested neutrophils had pro-inflammatory properties, as seen by neutrophil

activation-related genes (**Fig. 4F**, Supp Fig. 6G). Monocytes also exhibited evidence of

activation, with a particularly clear pro-inflammatory signature in the second tumor (**Fig. 4G**,

Supp Fig. 6H). Together, the combination of an enrichment of immunosuppressive

macrophages and a de-enrichment of inflammatory monocytes and neutrophils point to a

myeloid cell-driven immunosuppressive TME in RFP regions.

285   **Chemokine CX3CL1 is a mediator of the CIT9-RFP-driven immunosuppressive TME.**

286   To identify the drivers behind the striking spatial organization of myeloid cell infiltrates

287   in our mixed tumors, we next assessed the protein expression of a total of 44 cytokines and

288   chemokines using the lysates from CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP tumors. Cytokines and chemokines

289   are major mediators of immune cell localization and function, thus we hypothesized differences

290   in their expression between CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP might explain the differences we saw in

291   myeloid infiltrate. We found the chemokine CX3CL1 was significantly enriched in CIT9-RFP

292   tumors compared to CIT6-YFP tumors (**Fig. 5A**, Supp Fig. 7A). CX3CL1 is a chemokine with

293   reported pro-tumor properties, capable of directly promoting tumor cell proliferation and

294   migration as well as of attracting various immune cell types. To test the hypothesis that Cx3cl1

295   plays a role in driving the immunosuppressive microenvironment in our squamous cell

296   carcinomas, we generated a CIT6-YFP cell line overexpressing *Cx3cl1* and analyzed the immune

297   profile of these tumors. The abundance of macrophages was increased in Cx3cl1-

298   overexpressing tumors compared to control tumors (**Fig. 5B**). We next asked if it was a

299   particular macrophage subset(s) that showed increased abundance, and for this analysis

300   divided macrophages into the 3 main clusters we identified in our ZipSeq analysis: CD206^{Hi}

301   macrophages (CD206^{Hi} MHC-II^{Low}), MHC-II^{Hi} macrophages (CD206^{Mid} MHC-II^{Hi} Arg1$^-$) and Arg1^{Hi}

302   macrophages (CD206^{Mid} MHC-II^{Hi} Arg1$^+$) (Supp Fig. 7B). We found that CD206^{Hi} macrophages

303   were increased in frequency in Cx3cl1-overexpressing CIT6-YFP tumors compared to control

304   tumors, while the other two macrophage subsets showed no difference in frequency (**Fig. 5C**).

305   In line with this, expression of CX3CR1, a cognate receptor of CX3CL1, was the highest on

306   macrophages among all immune cell types (Supp Fig. 7C), and highest on CD206^{Hi} macrophages

among the three macrophage subsets (**Fig. 5D**). Additionally, we observed a lower abundance

of neutrophils (Ly6G$^+$) and monocytes (Ly6C$^+$) in Cx3cl1-overexpressing CIT6-YFP tumors (**Fig.**

5E). Other immune cell types including B cells, CD8 T cells and DCs showed no difference in

frequency (Supp Fig. 7D).

We next asked whether CD206^{Hi} macrophages, as the main macrophage subtype

increased by Cx3cl1 overexpression, had a greater capacity to suppress T cells than non-CD206^{Hi}

macrophages (which include both MHC-II^{Hi} and Arg1^{Hi} macrophages). We isolated CD206^{Hi} and

non-CD206^{Hi} macrophages from CIT9-RFP and CIT6-YFP tumors by flow cytometry-based sorting

(Supp Fig. 7B) and tested for their ability to suppress CD8 T cell proliferation using an *in vitro* co-

culture assay. We found that CD206^{Hi} macrophages could suppress T cell proliferation and

activation even at a low macrophage-to-CD8 T cell ratio (1:16), whereas non-CD206^{Hi}

macrophages could suppress CD8 T cells only at a higher co-culture ratio (1:4) (**Fig. 5F**, Supp Fig.

7E). Thus, while both CD206^{Hi} and non-CD206^{Hi} macrophages exhibited suppressive capacity to

some extent, the CD206^{Hi} macrophage subset in our tumors has a particularly strong ability to

suppress T cell proliferation.

Because we also observed an enrichment of CD206^{Hi} macrophages and lower

abundance of neutrophils and monocytes in RFP regions of mixed-population tumors in our

ZipSeq data (**Fig. 4**), we hypothesized that the CX3CL1-CX3CR1 axis plays a role in driving the

immunosuppressive microenvironment in these regions. There were few reads of *Cx3cl1* in the

ZipSeq data (data not shown) likely due to limitations associated with single cell RNAseq.

Therefore, to test this hypothesis, we assessed the correlation between the *Cx3cr1* expression

level in immune cells and their abundance in RFP regions. *Cx3cr1* transcript level was high in

clusters that were enriched in RFP regions (**Fig. 5G** and **Fig. 4C**; Supp Fig. 8A and Supp Fig. 6D),

and was the highest on the CD206^{Hi} macrophage cluster (**Fig. 5H**, Supp Fig. 8B). Moreover,

there was a positive correlation across clusters between the abundance of a cluster and its

average *Cx3cr1* transcript expression level in RFP regions, but not in YFP or mixed regions (**Fig.**

5I). Collectively, these data indicate that Cx3cl1 plays a role in driving local myeloid cell

abundance and enriching immunosuppressive CD206^{Hi} macrophages in RFP regions of mixed-

population tumors.

An immunosuppressive tumor population drives resistance of mixed-population tumors to

anti-PD-1 blocking and CD40 agonistic antibody combination treatment.

Having shown that CIT9-RFP tumor cells in mixed-population heterogeneous tumors

exert a dominant immunosuppressive effect and drive spatial organization within the tumor,

we next sought to determine if the presence of CIT9-RFP tumor cells impacts the response of

mixed-population tumors to immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) therapy. In particular, as an

immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment is linked to resistance to ICB therapy, we asked if

CIT9-RFP tumor cells make otherwise therapy-sensitive CIT6-YFP tumor cells resistant. We

tested multiple ICB combinations on our tumors, and we selected a regimen combining PD-1

blockade and CD40 agonist antibodies, a combination that is currently in clinical trials for

multiple tumor types. The combination treatment was administered in two doses at a 3-day

interval when the CIT6 and CIT9 tumors reached 5mm in diameter (**Fig. 6A**) and induced 50% of

CIT6-YFP tumors (5 out of 10 tumors) to regress completely, with 2 tumors eventually growing

back after 5-17 days (**Fig. 6B**). In contrast, only 9% (1 out of 11) of CIT9-RFP tumors showed a

decrease in tumor volume after therapy, and none achieved a complete regression (**Fig. 6B**).

Furthermore, the increase in the average volume of CIT6-YFP tumors over time was blunted by

the combination treatment in comparison to isotype control treatment, whereas CIT9-RFP

tumors showed similar growth kinetics in both combination treatment and isotype control arms

(**Fig. 6B**). This coincided with prolonged overall survival of the mice harboring CIT6-YFP tumors,

but not CIT9-RFP tumors, after treatment with the combination therapy (**Fig. 6C**). Thus, the

combination of anti-PD-1 blocking and CD40 agonistic antibodies mimics prototypical patient

outcomes to immunotherapy where "immune hot" tumors respond and "immune cold" tumors

do not. Further, this combination showed the clearest dichotomy in responses between "hot"

and "cold" tumors among the regimens tested, and so we chose to proceed with using it to

investigate how mixed-population tumors would respond.

We then assessed the response of tumors derived from a 1:1 mixture of CIT6-YFP and

CIT9-RFP cell lines to the anti-PD-1 blocking and CD40 agonistic combination treatment. The

combination therapy achieved complete regression (CR) in 1 out of 23 mice (4.3%) but the

tumor quickly grew back (**Fig. 6D**). The CR rate of mixture-derived tumors was higher than CIT9-

RFP single-population tumors (0% CR), but lower than CIT6-YFP tumors (50% CR) (**Fig. 6B, D**).

The average tumor volume was slightly smaller in the combination treatment group (**Fig. 6D**),

although this did not correlate to an extension of overall survival (**Fig. 6D**), suggesting therapy

had only a modest effect in these mixed tumors.

Immune profile analysis of tumors at the time of harvest (10mm in diameter) revealed

that CD4 and CD8 T cell infiltration was increased in both CIT6-YFP tumors and mixed tumors

treated with the anti-PD-1 + anti-CD40 agonist combination, and that this influx was of similar

magnitude in both (**Fig. 6E**). By contrast, CIT9-RFP tumors did not show a change in T cell

infiltration after treatment (**Fig. 6E**). However, despite the influx of T cells into mixed tumors,

this influx did not correspond to the same level of treatment efficacy seen in CIT6-YFP tumors.

Collectively, these data suggest that the presence of CIT9-RFP tumor cells dampens the

response of mixed tumors to the combination treatment, and also reveals an improved influx of

T cells into the tumor after treatment is not necessarily a marker of a successful response in the

context of a heterogeneous tumor.

Spatial immune infiltration patterns persist in mixed-population tumors following anti-PD-1

blockade and CD40 agonist combination treatment.

Given our previous data showing that RFP regions (and to a lesser extent, mixed regions)

of mixed-population tumors were spatially organized pockets of immune "coldness", we sought

to test the hypothesis that the immunotherapy combination treatment was acting successfully

in YFP regions, but failing to improve the immune response in RFP regions, leading to overall

failure. We applied our live tumor slice microdissection technique (**Fig. 3D**) to mixed-population

tumors treated with either anti-PD-1 blockade + CD40 agonist or control antibodies. The

immune infiltration profiles of YFP, RFP and mixed regions were analyzed 6 days after the initial

treatment dose, at which point tumors have not started to shrink yet (**Fig. 6B and D**). We

focused our analysis on T cells, as we had observed that T cell infiltration was increased by the

combination treatment in mixed population tumors (**Fig. 6**).

At the 6-day timepoint, the frequencies of overall CD4 and CD8 T cells did not differ

between the isotype control arm and the combination treatment arm in any of the three

regions (Supp Fig. 9). However, the presence of Th1 cells was dramatically increased in RFP and

mixed regions by the combination treatment compared to isotype control treatment (**Fig. 7A**).

There was also a trend toward increased Th1 cells in YFP regions, but it did not reach statistical

significance. The treatment-induced change in abundance was unique to Th1 cells, as other CD4

T cell subsets including Treg, Th2 and Th17 cells showed a similar frequency between isotype

control and combination treatment arms (**Fig. 7B, C**). The changes in Th1 cell abundance

resulted in a favorable increase in the Th1:Treg ratio in mixed and RFP regions of the

combination therapy-treated tumors (**Fig. 7D**). The functional impact on the CD8 T cell

compartment was directionally the same, but much less dramatic. The frequency of IFNγ^+ CD8 T

cells was modestly increased by the combination therapy in RFP regions, but not in mixed

regions (**Fig. 7E**), and the IFNγ^+ CD8 T cell to Treg ratio showed a trend of improvement in mixed

and RFP regions in response to the treatment (**Fig. 7F**). However, because the abundance of

CD8 T cells remained low in all regions (as previously observed in mixed-populations tumors,

Fig. 3G), these improvements in CD8 T function were of small magnitude on an absolute scale.

Collectively, these data show that anti-PD-1 and CD40 agonist antibody treatment was

successful at improving the quality of the immune response in "cold" RFP and mixed tumor

regions—contrary to our expectations that we would only observe such improvements in the

"hot" YFP regions. However, despite the therapy-induced boost, the quality of the immune

response in RFP regions remained inferior to that in YFP regions, and the absolute number of

tumor-infiltrating CD8 T cells remained low. Thus, while the therapy-induced improvement in

anti-tumor Th1 CD4 T cell response in RFP and mixed regions likely contributed to the blunted

growth of treated tumors—which was also seen in this 6-day cohort (**Fig. 7G**)—it was largely

insufficient to mediate tumor rejection.

Discussion

Combining fluorescently tagged pro-inflammatory and immunosuppressive squamous

cell skin carcinoma tumor populations, we have developed a novel model system to interrogate

the spatial heterogeneity of tumor cells and intratumoral immune cells. When combined in a

1:1 ratio, we see that an immunosuppressive tumor population has a "dominant negative"

suppressive effect, in line with a previous report in a model of pancreatic cancer[14]. The overall

immune phenotype of mixed-population tumors most closely resembles that of "cold"

immunosuppressive tumors, and exhibits a poor infiltration of CD8 T cells—which are critical to

anti-tumor immunity—in all regions. Moreover, the dominant effect of the immunosuppressive

tumor population is also seen locally in "mixed" regions where the two tumor populations co-

exist.

However, when we look at regions locally dominated by pro-inflammatory tumor cells

(YFP[+] regions in our tumors), we find CD4 T cells accumulate specifically in these regions, as do

inflammatory monocytes and neutrophils. Both CD4 and CD8 T cells also show better effector

phenotypes in the vicinity of these "hot" tumor cells. By contrast, immunosuppressive

macrophages preferentially accumulated in the neighborhoods of "cold" tumor cells. Tumor

cells themselves thus set up a blueprint for the spatial architecture of infiltrating immune cells,

with different tumor cell populations driving distinct "micro-microenvironments" in their

vicinities. Our study is the first, to our knowledge, to demonstrate a clear, reproducible link

between spatial organization of infiltrating immune cells and the underlying spatial organization

of tumor cells.

Tumor cell-driven spatial differences in the intratumoral immune response exist at

baseline in the absence of therapy, but also persist during immunotherapy and exert an

influence on the response to therapy. Regional analysis of response to anti-PD-1 blockade +

anti-CD40 agonist combination immunotherapy showed a more nuanced pattern than we

expected: Rather than seeing a simplistic "good" response in "hot" regions and "poor" response

in "cold" regions, the relative influx of Th1 cells and IFNγ^+ CD8 T cells was strongest in RFP$^+$

"cold" regions. Nonetheless, "cold" regions remained more poorly infiltrated than "hot" regions

at an absolute level, even after the therapy-induced boost, indicating that therapy did not

entirely overcome the spatial patterning that existed pre-treatment. While the anti-PD-1 plus

CD40 agonist combination we employed failed to cure our mixed tumors, our model system

facilitated detailed region-by-region analysis of the effects and efficacy of therapy. This system

thus establishes a platform on which additional drug combinations or dose regimens can be

probed to iterate on how best to induce a productive tumor-wide anti-tumor immune response

across all tumor regions.

We identify Cx3cl1 as a mediator of a myeloid-cell-centric immunosuppressive

microenvironment, and a candidate driver of the "pockets of coldness" we observe in our

heterogeneous tumors. We show that Cx3cl1-expressing tumor cells drive enrichment of

immunosuppressive CD206^{Hi} macrophages, and depletion of inflammatory monocytes and

neutrophils. This finding is in line with previous reports of chemokine-driven spatial

organization of immune cells within tumors[23,24]. However, antibody depletion of Cx3cl1 was

insufficient to potentiate the anti-PD-1 blockade + anti-CD40 agonist combination in CIT9-RFP

immunosuppressive tumors (data not shown), suggesting that additional mediators of

immunosuppression contribute to the "coldness" of these tumors. While no single chemokine is

likely to potentiate a complete reversal of the immune microenvironment, identifying key

players that drive "pockets of coldness" is essential for better understanding how to induce a

robust anti-tumor response in heterogeneous tumors.

We have shown that local immune composition and function are both linked to the

identity of local tumor cells. Previous studies have suggested links between tumor genetics and

the anti-tumor immune response[25,26], providing a mechanistic basis by which differences in

local genetic mutations could drive differential patterns of local immune cells. Genetic

differences in tumor cells can also serve as markers of tumor populations that have evolved to

adopt different phenotypic behaviors from their neighbors, such as differences in chemokine

expression, which may or may not be direct consequences of the mutations. A multi-region

study of lung tumors found that "cold" regions of the tumor were more likely to be highly

clonally related, suggesting that some tumors had evolved a "cold" subclone—although there

was not a mutation reported in these clones that was promoting immune coldness directly[11].

Future work is expected to uncover additional pathways by which tumor cells shape their local

micro-microenvironments, as well as deeper insights into how immunotherapy acts on a highly

local spatial scale in heterogeneous tumors.

Figure legends:

Figure 1. Modeling intratumoral heterogeneity using fluorescently-labeled DMBA/TPA-

induced squamous cell skin carcinoma cell lines.

(A-C) Flow cytometric analysis of T cell infiltration in subcutaneous tumors derived from

injection of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines into mice carrying an unactivated *Confetti* cassette.

(D) Immunofluorescent staining of $CD3^+$ T cells in 8μm cryosections of subcutaneous CIT6-YFP

and CIT9-RFP tumors, with DAPI staining cell nuclei, and quantification of T cell count per field

Scale bar = 100μm. **(E)** Schematic of mixed-population tumor generation. A 1:1 mixture of CIT6-

YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines subcutaneously was injected into the right hind flank of mice

carrying an unactivated *Confetti* cassette, and the resulting tumors were harvested for

downstream analyses when they reached 1cm in diameter at 21-28 days post injection. **(F, G)**

Whole-tumor images by fluorescent dissecting microscope (F) and a representative image of a

tumor cross-section (8μm cryosection) (G) of tumors that were a 1:1 mixture of CIT6-YFP and

CIT9-RFP cell lines. Scale bars in (F) and (G) are 2mm and 1mm respectively. All data are a

representation of at least 3 independent experiments.

Figure 2. The immunosuppressive tumor population drives an overall immunosuppressive

phenotype in mixed-population tumors.

(A-E) Flow cytometric immune profiling of tumors derived from CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines

and mixed-population tumors derived from a 1:1 mixture of the two cell lines, including **(A)** T

cells, CD4 T cells and CD8 T cells, **(B)** frequency of tumor cells ($CD45^-$ YFP^- or $CD45^-$ RFP^-)

expressing MHC-I molecules ($H2\text{-}K^q$ and $H2\text{-}L^qD^q$) (left) and median fluorescence intensity (MFI)

of the MHC-I molecules on $H2\text{-}K^q$ and $H2\text{-}L^qD^q$ double positive tumor cells (right), **(C)** Treg

(Foxp3$^+$ CD25$^+$) frequency, CD8 T cell-to-Treg ratio, and effector CD4 T cell (Teff, Foxp3$^-$ CD25$^-$)-

to-Treg ratio, **(D)** B cells (B220$^+$) and natural killer (NK) or innate lymphoid cell (ILC) (NKp46$^+$)

lymphocytes and **(E)** macrophages (F4/80$^+$ CD11b$^+$ MHC-II$^+$). Data in (A)-(E) are a representation

of at least two independent experiments with ≥5 mice per experiment. **(F-H)** *In vitro* CD8 T cell

suppression by macrophages sorted from the tumors. CFSE-stained and CD3/28 beads-

stimulated CD8 T cells isolated from naïve *Confetti* mice were co-cultured with tumor-

associated macrophages (TAM) at varying ratios and analyzed for proliferation via CFSE signal

and activation markers. Data are a representation of 2 independent experiments, with 3

biological replicates in each experiment. **(F)** Representative histogram showing the CFSE signal

in CD8 T cells, with gates marking divided cells, defined as the cells that have divided more than

twice (left) and graph showing the count of divided cells (right). "No TAM", T cell stimulation

control without macrophages; "No stim", control with no T cell stimulation. **(G)** Count of

activated (CD69$^+$ CD25$^+$) CD8 T cells, **(H)** Count of effector CD8 T cell subsets marked by

combinations of CD62L and CD44 expression.

Figure 3. Spatial organization of tumor populations drives the spatial organization of immune

cells.

(A) Representative cross-section images showing examples of a YFP, mixed and RFP region of a

mixed-population tumor and CD3 stain. **(B)** Quantification of CD3$^+$ T cells per field, plotted for

each region. **(C)** Correlation of YFP$^+$ cell fraction and CD3$^+$ T cell frequency in each field. CD3$^+$ T

cell count was scaled to DAPI$^+$ cell count in each field to normalize the difference in cell density

between fields. **(D)** Schematic of immune cell profiling in YFP, mixed and RFP regions of mixed-

population tumors. Each mixed-population tumor was sliced into five to ten 400μm-thick live

sections, and each section was manually microdissected into YFP, mixed, and RFP regions using

a surgical scalpel under a fluorescent dissecting microscope. All YFP pieces, all mixed pieces,

and all RFP pieces from the same tumor were pooled for immune profiling by flow cytometry.

White scale bar = 5mm, blue scale bar = 1mm. **(E-L)** Frequency of T cell subsets, ratio of Treg to

IFNγ^+ CD8 T cells or Th1 cells, and frequency of macrophages in YFP, mixed and RFP regions.

Grey dotted lines in panels (E), (F), (G) and (L) separate data of mixed-population tumors from

the data of single-population tumors. All data are a representation of two independent

experiments, with ≥3 mice per experiment (B,C) or ≥6 mice per experiment (E-L).

Figure 4. CD206^{Hi} macrophages and lack of neutrophils and monocytes mediate an

immunosuppressive TME in RFP regions.

(A) Schematic of ZipSeq spatial transcriptomic analysis of mixed-population tumors. Composite

stitched image of a 200μm-thick live section marked with YFP regions (encircled with green

lines), RFP regions (red lines) and mixed regions (blue lines) is shown. YFP, RFP and mixed

regions were illuminated individually to allow for the binding of a unique barcode ("zipcode") to

a photocaged oligo-CD45 antibody complex. ZipCode-tagged immune cells were analyzed by

scRNAseq. **(B)** Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) representation of

zipcode-labeled cells with cluster overlay. n = 3,238 cells, n_{YFP} = 1,236, n_{RFP} = 1,318, n_{Mixed} = 684.

(C) UMAP representation of zipcode-labeled cells with zipcode identity overlaid. **(D)** Abundance

of cells belonging to the T cell cluster (cluster 9), calculated as percentage of total immune cells

in each region. **(E)** Abundance of cells belonging to MHC-II^{Hi}, Arg1^{Hi} and CD206^{Hi} macrophage

clusters (clusters 1, 2, and 3 respectively), calculated as percentage of total immune cells in

each region. **(F)** Percentage of cells belonging to neutrophil cluster (cluster 7) in each region and

pathway analysis showing the gene families enriched in the neutrophil cluster based on the top

250 differentially expressed genes. **(G)** Percentage of cells belonging to monocyte cluster

(cluster 6) and pathway analysis of genes enriched in the monocyte cluster based on the top 31

differentially expressed genes.

Figure 5. Chemokine Cx3cl1 mediates the CIT9-RFP-driven immunosuppressive TME.

(A) ELISA-based quantification of CX3CL1 using tumor lysates of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP single-

population tumors (n=3 per cell line) **(B, C)** Infiltration of total macrophage (B) and macrophage

subsets (C) in CIT6-YFP tumors overexpressing CX3CL1 (CIT6-YFP^{Cx3cl1}) and empty vector (CIT6-

YFP^{Empty}). **(D)** Expression of CX3CR1 on macrophage subsets in CIT6-YFP^{Cx3cl1} tumors, measured

as MFI from flow cytometric analysis. **(E)** Frequency of neutrophils and monocytes in CX3CL1-

overexpressing CIT6-YFP tumors. Data in (B)-(E) are representation or combination of two

independent experiments with ≥10 mice per experiment. **(F)** CD8 T cell suppression assay using

CD206^{Hi} macrophages and a pool of Arg1^{Hi} macrophages and MHC-II^{Hi} macrophages (Non-

CD206^{Hi} TAMs) isolated from CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP single-population tumors. Representation

of two independent experiments with at least 2 mice per arm. **(G)** Feature plot overlaid on

UMAP representation for *Cx3cr1* gene from the tumor analyzed by ZipSeq in Fig. 4. **(H)** Violin

plot showing *Cx3cr1* distribution based on cluster identity. **(I)** Correlation between an average

relative *Cx3cr1* transcript level of each cluster and the percentage of cells belonging to the

cluster. Combined analysis of two tumors analyzed in Fig. 4 and Supp Fig. 6.

Figure 6. An immunosuppressive tumor population drives resistance of mixed-population tumors to anti-PD-1 blocking and CD40 agonistic antibody combination treatment.

(A) Dosing schedule of anti-PD-1 and CD40 agonist treatment. **(B)** Tumor growth curves of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP tumors showing tumor volume of individual tumors and average volume of isotype control and anti-PD-1+CD40 agonist combination treatment arms. Red arrows under the x axis shows the timing of treatments (day 0 and 3), fraction shown on the top right corner of individual tumor volume plots shows the number of mice whose tumors completely regressed post-treatment. **(C)** Kaplan-Meier curves comparing the survival of mice from each treatment arm. Statistical test was performed using log-rank test. **(D)** Tumor growth and survival of mice harboring tumors derived from a 1:1 mixture of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines. **(E)** Frequency of tumor-infiltrating T cells post-treatment in CIT6-YFP, CIT9-RFP, and 1:1 mixture-derived tumors. All experiments were performed with at least 8 mice per treatment arm.

Figure 7. Spatial immune infiltration patterns persist in mixed-population tumors following anti-PD-1 blockade and CD40 agonist combination treatment.

(A–F) Tumors derived from a 1:1 mixture of CIT6-YFP and CIT9-RFP cell lines were treated with α-PD-1 +CD40 agonist combination treatment or isotype control antibodies at day 0 and 3 and analyzed at day 6 for spatial T cell infiltration profile via microdissection and flow-based analysis. **(A)** Th1 cell frequency in each region of isotype control-treated and combination therapy-treated tumors, **(B)** Treg frequency, **(C)** Frequency of Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg cells, **(D)**

Th1-to-Treg ratio, **(E)** Frequency of IFNγ^+ CD8 T cells and **(F)** IFNγ^+ CD8 T cell to Treg ratio. **(G)**

Average tumor volume of each treatment arm. Red arrows under the x axis shows the timing of

treatments. Experiment was performed with at least 10 mice per treatment/tumor arm.

Materials and methods:

<u>Carcinogenesis and cell line generation</u>

To induce tumors, *K5-CreER^(T2)-Confetti FVB/N* mice were treated with 25 mg DMBA followed by

TPA (200 µl of a 10^{-4} M solution in acetone) two times a week for 20 weeks, as described[18]. To

generate cell lines, carcinomas were resected at a size of >1 cm in longest diameter, finely

chopped, digested in DMEM containing Collagenase I and IV and DNase I for 45 minutes at

37 °C, washed with PBS, plated in supplemented DMEM (high-glucose DMEM (Gibco, catalog#

11995065) plus 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Gibco), 2mM L-glutamine, with 100 units/ml

penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, and 2.5 µg/ml amphotericin B (Gibco)), and passaged until

cells stably grow in culture. The established cell lines were cultured in the supplemented DMEM

for all experiments.

<u>Cell line labeling</u>

Unlabeled cell lines were treated with adenoviral Cre recombinase (Vector Biolabs catalog

#1045) to induce labeling with Confetti fluorescent proteins. YFP- and RFP-expressing cells were

sorted via fluorescence-activated cell sorter and further grown in vitro to establish CIT6-YFP and

CIT9-RFP cell lines.

<u>In vivo experiments</u>

A total of 1.25 x 10^5 cells were injected subcutaneously into the dorsal flank of 8 to 16 week-old

male and female *Confetti*-homozygous *FVB/N* mice. Approximately 21-28 days later, when

tumors measured ~1cm in diameter, tumors were dissected and digested as described above,

and subsequently used in flow cytometric analysis. For treatment experiments, when tumors

measured approximately 5mm in diameter, mice were injected intraperitoneally with one dose

(CD40 agonistic antibody) or two doses (anti-PD-1 antibody) of therapeutic antibodies,

administered at a three day interval. Antibodies used were rat anti-mouse PD-1 IgG2a antibody

(RMP1-14, BioXCell), rat anti-CD40 agonist IgG2a antibody (FGK4.5, BioXCell), and rat IgG2a

isotype control (2A3; BioXCell) at 200µg per antibody per dose. Tumors were resected at 1cm in

diameter and used for downstream analyses, except in 6-day post-treatment analyses where

tumors were resected 6 days after treatment initiation. All animal experiments were approved

by the University of California San Francisco Laboratory Animal Resource Center (IUCAC;

AN187679). This work complies with all the relevant ethical regulations regarding animal

research.

<u>Flow cytometric immune profiling and macrophage cell sorting</u>

For whole tumor analysis and sorting, 5 million cells were stained with antibodies. For spatial

immune profiling, tumors were embedded in 2% agarose gel, sliced into 400µm section by a

Leica Vibratome, microdissected into YFP, RFP and mixed regions using surgical scalpel while

visualizing each region on MVX10 fluorescent stereoscope. Multiple pieces of each region from

a single tumor were pooled for digestion, followed by flow cytometric analysis. Cell sorting was

performed on FACS Aria III (BD Biosciences). Antibodies used for flow cytometric analyses and

sorting are listed in Table 2.

Immunofluorescence imaging

After half of the tumors were processed for flow cytometric analysis, the remaining halves were

fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 2 hours, dehydrated in PBS with 30% sucrose overnight at

4C°, embedded in Tissue-tek O.C.T. compound (Sakura Finetek USA) and stored at -80C°.

Embedded blocks were cryosectioned into 8µm sections using Leica CM3050 S Cryostat (Leica

Biosystems) and stained with rabbit anti-mouse CD3 antibody (ab5690, Abcam) overnight,

followed by stain with secondary anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 647 antibody (Invitrogen) for 1 hour at

room temperature and DAPI stain for 5 minutes. Fluorescence image was taken on microscope

(DMi8, Leica Biosystems) using Leica Application Suite X (Leica Biosystems) imaging software,

and fraction of YFP+ and RFP+ cells as well as the number of CD3+ cells in each tile were

quantified using CellProfiler ver. 3.1.9.

Overexpression of cytokines and chemokines

Mouse *Cx3cl1* gene was amplified using forward primer 5' -aactcgagatggctccctcgccgctcg -3' and

reverse primer 5' -ttccgcggtcacactggcaccaggacgta- 3', cDNAs generated from CIT9 cell line and

Q5® High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB). MSCV 2.2-IRES-CFP retroviral vector was generated

by replacing GFP of MSCV 2.2-IRES-GFP vector (obtained from James Carlyle lab at University of

Toronto) with CFP. Using restriction enzymes XhoI and SacII, *Cx3cl1* coding sequencing was

cloned into MSCV 2.2-IRES-GFP vector. Proviral vectors Gag/Pol and VSV-G were co-transfected

with Cx3cl1-IRES-GFP MSCV2.2 vector using lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen) into HEK293T cells.

48 hours later, the viruses were collected, mixed with CIT6-YFP cells and spinfected at 800g for

90 minutes. YFP[+] CFP^{+} transduced cells were sorted 72 hours post-transduction.

<u>ZipSeq spatial transcriptomics analysis</u>

Mixed-population tumors were harvested at 1cm in diameter and sliced into 200μm section in

2% agarose using vibratome. Section was incubated with CD45 antibody linked to Cy5-

conjugated photocaged oligo for 1 hour at 4C°, followed by patterned illumination of a user-

defined region of interest[22] and incubation with a unique ZipCode. The process was repeated

for YFP, RFP and mixed regions. The section then was digested in a Collagenase I and IV blend

for 30 minutes at room temperature, and sorted for live Cy5^{+} cells using FACS Aria II. washed in

PBS + 0.04% BSA and then encapsulated following 10× Genomics specifications for 3' v3

chemistry with target cell number of 8,000.

Libraries were sequenced with a target number of 30,000 reads per cell for gene

expression and 3,000 reads per cell for ZipCode barcodes on a Illumina NovaSeq. Demultiplexed

fastqs were aligned using CellRanger to the mm10 Ensembl 93 reference genome. Count

matrices were used to generate Seurat objects in R keeping only cells with at least 200 detected

genes and genes found in at least 3 cells. Cells were further filtered based on a minimum 500

gene cutoff and maximum 15% mitochondrial reads. ZipCode counts were normalized using

centered log ratio transform and then assigned a dominant ZipCode identity (as in [22]). Cells

were then passed through SCTransform regressing for percent mitochondrial reads. Following

PCA analysis on the top variable genes, the first 18 principal components were used as inputs

for UMAP dimensional reduction and clustering via the FindNeighbors and FindClusters

commands. For pathway analysis, lists of genes with average Log_2 fold change >1 for each

cluster were used as input for GO Biological Process 2021 repository on EnrichR

(https://maayanlab.cloud/Enrichr/).

Cytokine array

70-150mg of tumor pieces were chopped into small pieces in RIPA buffer containing proteinase

inhibitor (Cell BioLabs) and homogenized using OctoMACS (Miltenyi Biotec). The homogenate

was centrifuged at 400g for 5 minutes followed by further centrifugation at 10,000g for 10

minutes at 4C°. The supernatant was collected and stored at -80C°. Protein concentration was

measured using DC protein assay kit (BioRad). The sample concentrations were normalized

prior to the submission for the analysis by Eve Technologies DM-44 mouse Discovery Assay

panel.

In vitro T cell suppression co-culture assay

CD8 T cells were isolated from the lymph node of naïve mice with unactivated Confetti cassette

using EasySep™ Mouse CD8+ T Cell Isolation Kit (StemCell Technologies) and macrophages were

sorted from the tumors via FACS sorting. CD8 T cells were labeled with CFSE and co-cultured

with the macrophages at varying ratios in the presence of Mouse T-Activator CD3/CD28

Dynabeads™ (Gibco) and analyzed for division and T cell activation markers.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed using Prism 9 (GraphPad) with either Student's t-test for experiments with

two arms, one-way ANOVA analysis for experiments with one variable and more than 3

experiment conditions, or two-way ANOVA for experiments with two variables and more than 3

experiment conditions. Statistical tests for spatial analyses (Fig. 3 and 7) were done using

Student's t-test. For Kaplan-Meier survival analyses, log-rank test was used. Graphs show mean

± SEM or mean ± SD; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

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Author Contributions

M.T., L.L., C.L.-S., and M.Q.R. designed the project and experiments. M.T. and L.L. led all

experiments and data analyses. K.H. and M.T. carried out the ZipSeq single cell transcriptomics

experiments and analysis, with support from M.K. M.T. and M.Q.R. wrote the manuscript, with

input from other co-authors. K.K., D.S., K.N., and Z.A. assisted with experiments. L.F. provided

guidance to the studies.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7