Single-cell analysis characterizes PLK1 as a promoter of immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment in LUAD

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Abstract

PLK1 (Polo-like kinase 1) plays a critical role in cancer progression of lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD). Recent studies have demonstrated that targeting PLK1 improves the efficacy of immunotherapy, indicating its important role in the regulation of tumor immunity. However, the correlation between PLK1 and tumor microenvironment (TME) is poorly understood. Here, using genetically engineered mouse model and single-cell RNA-seq analysis, we report that PLK1 promotes a general immunosuppressive TME in LUAD characterized with impaired tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, enhanced M2 polarization and suppression of antigen presentation process. Mechanistically, elevated PLK1 coincides with increased secretion of CXCL2 cytokine, which promotes M2 polarization of macrophages and decreases expression of class II major histocompatibility complex (MHC-II) in professional antigen-presenting cells. Furthermore, PLK1 negatively regulates MHC-II expression in cancer cells, which has been shown to be associated with poor tumor immunity and patients' outcomes. Taken together, our results reveal PLK1 as a novel modulator of TME in LUAD and provide possible therapeutic interventions.

Significance

The characterization of PLK1 as a promoter of immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment enhances our understanding of PLK1's role in anti-tumor immunity and supports the idea of targeting PLK1 in cancer treatment.

Introduction

Lung cancer accounts for one-fifth of all cancer mortalities in the US, making it the leading cause of cancer-related deaths [1]. Lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) is the major type of this disease, comprising almost half of all cases [2]. LUAD is characterized by genetic alternations that drive tumor heterogeneity and the most common forms are mutations involved in receptor tyrosine kinase pathways, including EGFR, KRAS, ALK, and ROS1 genes [3]. These mutations have been demonstrated to have significant impact on disease progression and patients' response to treatment. Hence, targeted therapies have been developed for individualized treatment. Despite the advances in treatment options, the prognosis for LUAD remains poor, with the 5-year survival rate for metastatic disease is less than 5%. Therefore, precise early screening and the development of more effective treatment options are essential to improve patients' outcomes.

Recently, immunotherapies have emerged as a novel treatment option for LUAD [4]. Drugs that target the immune checkpoint have shown significant benefit to manage disease by reinvigorating the tumor immunity and allowing immune system to attack cancer cells. While immunotherapies marks the new era of cancer treatment, the success of immunotherapies depends on several factors, including the patient's immune status, and most importantly, the characteristics of the tumor microenvironment (TME), which has emerged as a pivotal area of cancer research [5]. The TME is composed of various types of tumor-infiltrating myeloid cells and lymphocytes. The interactions between cancer cells and immune cells shape the properties of tumor growth, invasion, and metastasis. More closely, immunosuppressive TME can render immunotherapies ineffective. Unfortunately, most patients don't respond to immunotherapy [6, 7]. Specifically for lung cancer, only 20% of patients respond to monotherapy with checkpoint blockade, and this number increases to 40% when combined with standard chemotherapy [8, 9], suggesting a more complex yet

underexplored features of TME in LUAD. Therefore, a better understanding of the TME is critical

for developing effective immunotherapies.

Polo-like kinase 1 (PLK1) is a serine/threonine kinase that plays a critical role in various cellular

processes. The canonical function of PLK1 largely focuses on the regulation of cell division at

multiple phases [10-15]. Beyond its canonical role, studies have identified several non-mitotic

functions of PLK1, including the regulation of DNA damage repair, metabolism, and immune

response [16]. Due to the wide involvement of PLK1 in many critical biological events,

Dysregulation of PLK1 has been implicated in tumorigenesis, with elevated expression observed

in various types of cancers [17]. Considering its importance in tumorigenesis, novel therapies

targeting PLK1 have been developed with observable efficacy in cell and animal models [18].

Both our lab and others have proven that PLK1 overexpression in LUAD leads to cancer

progression and associates with poor overall survival [19, 20]. Interestingly, recent studies have

validated PLK1 as a potential target to improve the efficacy of immunotherapies in lung cancer

[21], consistent with our finding in pancreatic cancer that targeting PLK1 in pancreatic cancer

enhances the effectiveness of immune checkpoint blockade [22]. While these results indicate that

PLK1 may be an important modulator of tumor immunity, whether and how PLK1 functions in

the TME of LUAD is largely unknown. Here, using single-cell sequencing, we show that elevation

of PLK1 incurs a suppressive TME in LUAD, marked by decreased infiltration of immune cells,

M2 polarization and suppression of antigen presentation process. Elevation of PLK1 promotes M2

polarization and attenuates the expression of class II major histocompatibility complex (MHC-II)

in professional antigen presentation cells and cancer cells, leading to impaired antigen presentation

and anti-tumor immunity. Our results reveal PLK1 as a key regulator of TME and provide evidence

of targeting PLK1 to improve immunotherapies in LUAD.

Methods

Sample preparation for single-cell sequencing

All animal experiments used in this study were approved by the University of Kentucky Division

of Laboratory Animal Resources. 8-week-old LSL-Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$ (KP) and LSL-

Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$/LSL-Plk1 (KPP) mice were intratracheally instilled with adenovirus-expressing

Cre recombinase at a viral titer of 2.5×10^7 PFU per mouse according to the protocol [23]. Tumor

formations were monitored every week by MRI and harvested after 12 weeks of adenovirus

delivery. Single cell suspensions were prepared following 10x Genomics Cell Preparation Guide.

Briefly, mice lung tissues were harvested and cut into smaller pieces, then used pipette to

extensively pipette up and down to get tissue mixture in DMEM medium containing 2% FBS. This

mixture was filtered with a 70 μm nylon mesh strainer, centrifuged at 300g for 10 mins, then

resuspended in DMEM medium containing 2% FBS to get single cell suspension. The single cell

suspension was further sorted to enrich immune cell populations, and this suspension was used for

single-cell sequencing. Cell viability was at least 95% for all samples. 10000 cells were targeted

for sequencing and loaded onto a Chromium Controller (10x Genomics) for gel beads-in-emulsion

formation. Library preparation was conducted using Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Gene

Expression Kit (v3.1, 10x Genomics) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Single indexed,

paired-end libraries were sequenced on an HiSeq 2500 sequencer (Illumina).

Analysis of single-cell RNA-seq

Single-cell RNA-seq gene expression libraries were mapped to mm10 mouse reference (10x

Genomics pre-built reference, mm10-2020-A) using Cell Ranger (v6.1.1, 10x Genomics). For each

library, Cell Ranger filtered matrix was subjected to QC filters to remove low quality cells with

$\leqslant$ 500 features or percentage of mitochondrial transcripts $\geqslant$ 15. DoubletFinder analysis was then

performed on each library separately to identify and filter potential doublets with default

parameters [24]. Additionally, cells with features > 8000 or counts > 50,000 were removed. Pass

QC cells from the KP and KPP groups were combined and processed using the Seurat (v3) R

package [25]. Count matrices were Log-normalized and scaled. The top 2,000 highly variable

genes (HVGs) were selected to define principal components (PCs). Batch integration was

performed via Harmony algorithm (v0.1.0) to the combined data for batch effect corrections with

default settings [26]. Neighbor analysis was performed by FindNeighbors function using the PCs

from the Harmony dimension. Clustering was identified with FindClusters function at resolution

= 0.8. UMAP was calculated based on the Harmony dimension for clusters visualization.

Identification of cluster markers was performed using a Wilcoxon rank-sum test by comparing

each cluster with the rest of the cells. For differential gene expression analysis for each cell

population, we used DESeq2 test in Seurat [27], to identify the up/down-regulated sets of genes

between treatment groups in the cell populations. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) was

performed with fgsea R package [28], using KEGG and HALLMARK datasets [29, 30]. The two-

sample binomial test will be used to compare the distribution of cell clusters between the two

groups.

Analysis of public dataset and bulky RNA-seq

For STRING analysis [31], genes functionally associated with CXCL2 were directly checked with

online STRING tool (https://string-db.org/). For gene expressions, correlation, and survival

analyses of TCGA-LUAD dataset, patients' demographic data with RSEM and zscore values

(normalized to all samples) of gene expressions were downloaded from cBioportal [32-34].

Analysis of bulky RNA-seq data from KP and KPP tumors was described previously [20].

Cell culture

KP and KPP cell lines were isolated from transgenic mice 12–14 weeks after adenovirus infection, which was described before [20]. H358 cell line was purchased from ATCC (CRL-5807). All cell lines were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium containing 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C incubator with 5% CO_2. For preparation of conditioned medium, KP or KPP cells were cultured in 100mm dish until 70-80% confluency, them medium was refreshed with DMEM containing 0.5% FBS and continued to culture for 48h. The resulting conditioned medium was used for coculture experiments and mouse cytokines array. For transfection of siRNA, predesigned siRNA (Sigma) targeting PLK1 were transfected with jetPRIME Versatile DNA/siRNA transfection reagent (Polyplus, 101000001) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 48h after transfection, cells were harvested for subsequent experiments. All the cell lines were within 50 passages and tested negative for mycoplasma contamination.

Coculture experiments

Macrophages and dendritic cells were isolated from the bone marrows of B6 hosts. Briefly, bone marrows were flushed out of the femur and tibia with complete DMEM medium using 25-gauge needles. After centrifugation at 400g for 5 mins, bone marrows suspension was treated with 1x RBC lysis buffer (Thermo, 00-4333-57) and centrifuged again. The cell pellets were then washed with 1x PBS twice and resuspended in refresh complete DMEM medium. Cells were cultured at 37°C incubator with 5% CO_2 for a week to induce differentiation. For induction of macrophages, cells were treated with 10ng/ml Csf1. For induction of dendritic cells were treated with 10ng/ml Csf2 and 20ng/ml Il-4. Medium was changed every two days with refresh cytokines. For coculture with cells, KP or KPP cells were directly seeded onto the same plates containing immune cells at indicated ratio for 48h. Treatment with Cxcl2 or SX-682 started at 6h post coculture and continued

169   until end of the experiments. For coculture with conditioned medium, the conditioned medium

170   from KP or KPP, with mouse IgG or anti-Cxcl2 neutralization antibodies, was used to replace

171   normal culture medium in immune cells and continued to culture for 48h.

Flow cytometry

173   Cells were harvested by a cell scraper and washed once with 1x PBS, then stained on ice with

174   indicated antibodies (1:1000) in 1x PBS for 30mins. Samples containing tumor cells were fixed

175   with 70% ethanol before staining. Data were acquired on the BD Symphony A3 analyzer (BD

176   Biosciences) and analyzed using FlowJo software.

Mouse cytokines array

Mouse cytokines array experiment was performed using Proteome Profiler Mouse Cytokine Array

Kit (R&D Systems, ARY006) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, conditioned

medium from KP and KPP was incubated with membranes containing pre-adsorbed primary

antibodies targeting mouse cytokines. Following wash step, the membranes were then incubated

with HRP-linked secondary antibodies. After washing membranes again, membranes were probed

with chemiluminescent reagents to visualize cytokines. Medium containing 0.5% FBS but without

cancer cells was used as negative control. Images were captured with ChemiDoc Imaging System

(Bio-Rad).

Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Formalin-Fixed Paraffin-Embedded slides prepared from KP and KPP tumors were stained with

MHC-II antibodies. IHC staining was performed with the VECTASTAIN Elite ABC Universal

PLUS Kit (Vector Laboratories, PK-8200) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Staining

was visualized with ImmPACT DAB Substrate Kit (Vector Laboratories, SK-4105) and

counterstained with Harris's hematoxylin.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with the statistical functions in GraphPad Prism 8 and R

programming language. Unless denoted elsewhere, an unpaired two-sided t test was used as the

default method for results. Normality and variance of results were checked to confirm the

requirements of t test. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$ unless denoted otherwise. More

details can be found in the corresponding figure legends.

Results

Elevation of PLK1 in LUAD is associated with general immunosuppressive TME.

To investigate the impact of PLK1 on lung cancer TME, we designed a workflow (**Fig. 1A**) to

perform the single-cell RNA-seq using our LSL-Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$ (KP) and LSL-

Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$/LSL-Plk1 (KPP) mouse models that were previously reported [20]. Preliminary

examination of single-cell results indicated that over 95% of cells were immune cells,

demonstrating the efficacy and reliability of single-cell data. Unsupervised clustering of total cells

generated 27 different cell populations in samples (**Figs. S1A-S1B**) characterized by a specific

gene signature, indicating a significant intratumoral heterogeneity of cell populations. Of note, the

different proportion of cell populations suggested a distinct TME in KP and KPP (**Figs. S1C-S1D**).

In both groups, macrophages were the major population, suggesting the unique function of them

in lung cancer progression. To better visualize the differences in immune cell populations, we

performed a supervised clustering of major immune cell types based on their specific gene

signatures (**Figs. 1B, S1E**). Results showed that KPP tumors had low proportions of all cell types

except for macrophages compared to KP tumors (**Figs. 1C-1D**), indicating a general

immunosuppressive TME in KPP tumors. Since T cells are the major immune cells exerting direct

anti-tumor immunity, we further looked into T cell populations by clustering of total T cells in KP

and KPP tumors (**Figs. S2A-S2B**). Clearly, KPP tumors displayed decreased tumor infiltrating T

cells of all subtypes (**Figs. S2C-S2D**). The low levels of cytotoxic Cd8 T cells and NK cells in

KPP tumors were impactful, as they were the major immune cells responsible for eliminating

tumors, and KPP tumors were specifically protected from this anti-tumor immunity. Taken

together, these results illustrated that high PLK1 in LUAD promoted a general suppressive

immunophenotype.

Tumor promoting M2 macrophages propagate in high PLK1 TME of LUAD.

The higher proportion of tumor associated macrophages (TAM) in KPP tumors was intriguing

(**Figs. 1C-1D**), and this phenomenon enticed us to investigate the role of TAM in TME. Given that

the functions of TAM were dichotomous, we specially focused on the proportions of M1 and M2

macrophages in KP and KPP tumors, which were tumor suppressing and tumor promoting,

respectively. Analysis of gene expressions in TAM identified 1201 differentially expressed genes

between KP and KPP tumors (**Fig. 2A**). Investigation of top 10 up and down regulated genes in

KPP tumors revealed that macrophages in KPP tumors were enriched for previously validated

genes associated with M2 macrophages (e.g., Chil3, Ccn3) [35, 36], suggesting more M2

macrophages in KPP tumors (**Fig. 2B**). Examination of several M1 markers (Il1b, Tlr2, Cd86,

Cd68, Cd80, Socs3, Gch1) and M2 markers (Fn1, Pparg, Arg1, Slco2b1, Ptgs1, Pygl, Cd206)

further provided evidence for increased M2 macrophages in KPP tumors (**Fig. 2C**). To confirm

this phenotype, we performed supervised clustering of total macrophages, and the results indeed

showed that TME of KPP tumors consisted of more M2 macrophages compared to KP tumors

(**Figs. 2D-2E**), consistent with the observation of more suppressive immunophenotype in KPP

tumors. In sum, these results supported the notion that high PLK1 was associated with increased

tumor promoting M2 macrophages in LUAD.

High PLK1 suppresses antigen presentation pathway and induces M2 polarization.

Since high PLK1 was associated with increased infiltration and differentiation of M2 macrophages,

we sought to delineate the biological consequence of this phenotype and linked it with specific

immune cells functions. To achieve this aim, we performed GSEA in macrophages. The results

showed that multiple pathways associated with the functions of macrophages were dramatically

disturbed (**Figs. 3A-3B**). Several pathways related to immune response were suppressed in KPP

tumors, such as pathways associated with inflammation (e.g., IFN-γ response, **Fig. 3B**), pathogen

defense (e.g., viral myocarditis) and autoimmune diseases (e.g., systemic lupus erythematosus). In

addition, several pathways associated with steroid and lipid metabolism were elevated in KPP

tumors (e.g., steroid biosynthesis), which were previously demonstrated to promote M2

polarization [37]. These results suggested an impaired anti-tumor immune system and were in

agreement with the more immunosuppressive phenotype in KPP tumors. Of note, antigen

processing and presentation pathway was among the most suppressed pathway in macrophages.

Moreover, results of GSEA in other immune cells showed that inhibition of antigen processing

and presentation was a shared consequence among all major immune cell populations (**Fig. S3**).

Professional antigen presentation cells such as macrophages rely on class II major

histocompatibility complex (MHC-II) and costimulatory factors for their antigen processing and

presentation function [38]. Indeed, review of gene expressions and macrophages markers (**Figs.**

2A-2C) showcased that macrophages in KPP tumors expressed lower level of MHC-II genes

(Cd74, H2-Eb1, H2-Ab1) and several costimulatory factors (Cd86, Cd80), consistent with the

impaired antigen presentation function in this group. Given that this pathway was key to successful

anti-tumor immunity [39], the loss of antigen presentation function in immune cells of KPP tumors,

especially in M2 macrophages, further confirmed the immune suppression role of PLK1. Based

on these results, we hypothesized that PLK1 expression could inhibit antigen presentation and

polarize macrophages towards M2 subtype. To validate our hypothesis, we performed in vitro

coculture experiments using established cell lines from KP and KPP mice and used flow cytometry

to monitor expressions of important genes and markers in antigen presentation and macrophages

polarization. Short-term coculture of bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) with KP or

KPP showed that both cells elevated costimulatory factors (Cd80 and Cd86) with even stronger

effect from KPP group. However, only KPP cells were able to induce higher level of M2 marker

Cd206. Coculture with both cell lines attenuated MHC-II expression, suggesting potential immune

suppression mechanism of tumors. Compared to KP, the level of MHC-II was lower in KPP group

(**Figs. 3C-3D**). Given that MHC-II plays a pivotal role in antigen processing and presentation, the

lower expression of MHC-II in KPP group confirmed that antigen presentation function was

specifically dysregulated in high PLK1 condition. Collectively, these data demonstrated that PLK1

suppresses antigen presentation pathway and induces M2 polarization in LUAD.

Immunosuppressive function of PLK1 depends on CXCL2.

Paracrine signaling through the release of cytokines from cancer cells is critical for intercellular

communication and shaping anti-tumor immunity [40]. Inspection of pathway analyses in immune

cells revealed that several cytokine and chemokine pathways were altered (e.g., interferon response

pathway), and this led to our hypothesis that PLK1 suppressed anti-tumor immunity via regulation

of cytokine secretion. To test our hypothesis, we performed a cytokines array of mouse cytokines

released from the conditioned medium of KP and KPP cells. We found that cytokine profile was

indeed different between KP and KPP. Compared to KP, KPP cells secreted more Il-6, Cxcl2 and

Ccl3 cytokines, but less Ccl5 (**Fig. 4A**). The increased secretion of Il-6 was reasonable given its

established role in M2 polarization [41]. Besides, Ccl3 (macrophage inflammatory protein 1-alpha)

was one of the cytokines released from macrophages and Ccl5 was responsible for T cells

chemotaxis [42, 43], so their alternation was congruent with the higher proportion of macrophages

and lower infiltration of T cells in KPP tumors. We were especially interested in Cxcl2, as it was

the most highly secreted cytokine in the supernatant of KPP. It has been shown that secreted

CXCL2 in TME can recruit myeloid derived suppressor cells and M2 macrophages [44, 45]**,** and

this leads to suppression anti-tumor response (**Fig. 4B**). We also investigated which pathway was

responsible for the increased secretion of IFN-γ in KPP. A preliminary STRING analysis in human

and mice identified several important genes related to CXCL2 (**Figs. S4A**). Except for some

known interaction genes (e.g., CXCR1 and CXCR2, two receptors for CXCL2), we found that in

both species the genes related to JAK-STAT3 pathway (e.g., IL-6) and NFKB pathway (e.g., TNF,

Rela) commonly emerged. GSEA of RNA-seq data confirmed that two pathways were highly

active in KPP cells (**Fig. S4B**). Of note, although not very striking, Il-6 was simultaneously

detected with Cxcl2 in the secretion profile of KPP, which was not observed in KP control (**Fig.**

4A). These results provided evidence that IL-6/JAK/STAT3 and TNF/NFKB axis might account

for the increased Cxcl2 in KPP cells.

In mice, Cxcl2 can bind to Cxcr1 and Cxcr2, albeit with much higher affinity to Cxcr2 [46]. Given that Cxcl2 was predominant in KPP secreted cytokines and its established role in recruiting M2 macrophages, we hypothesized that the observed immunosuppressive function of PLK1 depended on CXCL2. To test this assumption, we performed coculture experiments of BMDM with conditioned medium from KP or KPP, treated with recombinant mouse Cxcl2 or SX-682 (**Figs. 4C-4D**), a previously reported dual CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor in clinical trial [47]. Coculture of BMDM with conditioned medium recapitulated most of the results from coculturing with cells, but MHC-II was not decreased. Instead, MHC-II elevated under this condition, indicating that the decrease of MHC-II in coculture with cells directly came from interaction between cancer cells and immune cells. Coculture with conditioned medium still elevated Cd80 and Cd86 in both groups, with a much higher induction of M2 marker Cd206 in KPP group. Intriguingly, the addition of Cxcl2 in conditioned medium from KP was able to reduce Cd80 and Cd86 while increasing the level of Cd206. Besides, adding CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor in conditioned medium from KPP group elevated Cd80 and Cd86 but attenuated Cd206 expression. However, MHC-II was not disturbed by either Cxcl2 or SX-682. Considering that mouse Cxcl2 binds to Cxcr2 with much higher affinity, and mouse Cxcr1 is mainly for Cxcl6 [46], the off-target effect of SX-682 in our experimental setting cannot be ignored. To address this issue, we performed a parallel coculture experiment of BMDM with conditioned medium from KP, and KPP treated with IgG control or anti-Cxcl2 neutralization antibodies (**Figs. 4E-4F**). Treatment with neutralization antibodies witnessed a uptrend of Cd80 and Cd86 but a downtrend of Cd206, with a unchanged status of MHC-II, reassuring the results obtained from SX-682. These data illustrated that Cxcl2 was partially responsible for the effect of PLK1 in suppressing antigen presentation and inducing M2 polarization. As costimulatory factors in professional antigen presentation cells, the functions

of CD80 and CD86 were similar in dendritic cells, and CD206 was also a hallmark of immature

dendritic cells [48]. Thus, detection of these markers in dendritic cells has similar value in

dissecting the biological effect of PLK1 and CXCL2. To further determine the effect of PLK1 and

CXCL2 on antigen presentation, we repeated all three coculture experiments with dendritic cells

isolated from bone marrow. The results revealed that alternations of Cd80, Cd86 and Cd206 were

quite similar and repeatable, but the level of MHC-II displayed distinct changes. In coculture

experiment with KP or KPP cells, increased proportion of KP cells accompanied elevated level of

MHC-II, but increased ratio of KPP cell reduced MHC-II expression (**Figs. S5A-S5B**). This was

different from the results in BMDM, where a higher ratio of both cell lines was associated with a

lower level of MHC-II. However, in both settings, KPP cells were capable of diminishing MHC-

II expression more strongly compared to KP, suggesting a universal suppression of antigen

presentation. On the other hand, the effect of Cxcl2 on MHC-II was highly in congruent with PLK1,

as treatment with Cxcl2 in KP group reduced MHC-II expression and treatment with either SX-

682 or neutralization antibodies in KPP group elevated MHC-II level (**Figs. S5C-S5F**). Taken

together, these results stated that CXCL2 accounted for the immunosuppressive function of PLK1

in LUAD, but the actual effect of CXCL2 might vary in different immune cells.

PLK1 negatively regulates MHC-II in cancer cells.

It has been reported that MHC-II can also express on the surface of cancer cells, and this phenotype

is associated with improved response to immunotherapy and better survival of cancer patients [49-

52]. However, this phenotype was unexplored in lung cancer. Based on these established facts and

our observations that PLK1 negatively associated with MHC-II, we aimed to explore whether

PLK1 affected expression of MHC-II in LUAD tumors. We first detected MHC-II expression by

IHC staining on tumor slides prepared from KP and KPP mice, and the results indeed showed that both tumors expressed MHC-II, with more striking expression in KPP tumors (**Fig. 5A**). This was consistent with the results observed in immune cells that high PLK1 led to lower MHC-II level. Next, we performed flow cytometry analysis of MHC-II level in KP and KPP cell lines, and the results verified the lower expression of MHC-II in KPP cells (**Figs. 5B-5C**). Since MHC-II expression in cancer cells depends on the interferon gamma (IFN-γ) [53], we performed ELISA experiment to detect intracellular IFN-γ amounts between KP and KPP cells. As expected, KPP cells had a lower level of IFN-γ compared to KP (**Fig. 5D**), consistent with its inferior expression of MHC-II. To direct assess the effect of PLK1, we treated KP and KPP with three PLK1 inhibitors (PLKi), including BI-2536 (BI), GSK461364A (GSK) and Onvansertib (ONV). In both cells, treatment with PLK1i consistently elevated the level of MHC-II (**Figs. 5E-5H**), confirming the negative regulation of MHC-II by PLK1. To assess the human side, we utilized human H358 LUAD cell line to see whether PLK1 played a similar role. We first transfected H358 cells with siRNA targeting PLK1, and the depletion of PLK1 elevated MHC-II as expected (**Figs. 5I-5J**). Dose escalation of PLKi showed a gradual increase in MHC-II expression (**Figs. 5K-5L**), reassuring the effect of PLK1. Cumulatively, these data supported the conclusion that PLK1 also regulated MHC-II in LUAD cancer cells.

Clinical assessment of PLK1 negatively regulating MHC-II

We've previously demonstrated that high PLK1 was associated with worse patients' outcomes [20], and this was consistent with the data that PLK1 suppressing MHC-II in immune cells and cancer cells presented in this study. To evaluate the translational values of our findings, we analyzed the TCGA-LUAD dataset. We first classified all patients into high PLK1 and low PLK1

groups based on the median expression of PLK1. We found that high PLK1 was associated with a

general low levels of MHC-II member genes (**Fig. 6A**). Using this MHC-II genes signature, we

calculated the MHC-II signature scores of all patients and used these signature scores to re-classify

patients into high MHC-II high and low MHC-II groups, then performed survival analysis of those

patients. We found that patients with high MHC-II scores had better survival outcomes compared

to patients with low MHC-II scores (**Fig. 6B**). Given that MHC-II was negatively regulated by

PLK1, and low PLK1 was also an indicator of better survival, these results were consistent with

our previous findings and further demonstrated that PLK1 promoted LUAD progression. In

conclusion, PLK1 was negatively associated with MHC-II in clinical situations, and this affected

patients' survival and might lead to immune suppression in TME, possibly through suppressing

antigen presentation pathways in immune cells.

Discussion

Here in this study, we render pioneering data to support the fact that PLK1 promoted an

immunosuppressive TME in LUAD (**Fig. 7**). Under low PLK1 condition, TME is characterized

by a higher proportion of tumor infiltrating immune cells and lower level of CXCL2, and this

condition is associated with more M1 polarization and functional antigen presentation pathway. In

addition, tumors express more MHC-II and this feature is associated with better patient's survival.

Under high PLK1 condition, TME is characterized by low tumor infiltrating immune cells and

high secreted CXCL2, which promotes M2 polarization and disrupts antigen processing and

presentation. Tumors in this situation also express a lower level of MHC-II, which is associated

with worse outcomes of patients. The differences in TME shown in high PLK1 and low PLK1

conditions suggest that PLK1 is an important modulator of TME, and targeting PLK1 may be a

practical therapeutic intervention in LUAD treatment.

Survival of lung cancer is suboptimal due to limitation of diagnosis and treatment, with 60% five-

year survival rate for localized diseases, which further drops to less than 5% for metastatic cancer

[1]. Although the emergence of immunotherapy has expanded the treatment options for lung

cancer patients, the efficacy is questionable due resistance to immunotherapy [54, 55]. Thus,

identifying mechanisms behind this harmful condition is urgently needed. Here, we report a novel

mechanism of PLK1 in cancer promotion. We show that PLK1 induces an immunosuppressive

TME in LUAD by undermining M1 polarization and antigen presentation, which negatively

impacts anti-tumor immunity in LUAD. PLK1 has been largely considered as a canonical cell

cycle regulator in the past decades. However, recent studies have gradually uncovered the tumor-

promoting functions of this kinase. Clearly, PLK1 is involved in multiple hallmarks of cancer, and

targeting PLK1 has potential to control disease progression [56]. Specifically in LUAD, we've

demonstrated that PLK1 promotes LUAD progression via phosphorylation of receptor tyrosine

kinase RET, which activates MAPK cascade and leads to proliferation and progression [20].

Together with the data in this study, PLK1 may be a critical modulator involving multiple cancer

hallmarks of LUAD. Future studies will discover more innovative functions of PLK1 in cancer

progression.

The fact that PLK1 suppresses anti-tumor in LUAD is intriguing given that immunotherapy is one

of the major therapeutic approaches for lung cancer. The major reasons of resistance to

immunotherapies are the scarcity of tumor-infiltrating immune cells and existence of immune

checkpoints [57]. We show that high PLK1 is associated with lower infiltrating cytotoxic T cells,

and this feature is harmful to anti-tumor response in LUAD. The decreased infiltration of T cells

may be due to the increased M2 polarization from TAM, which is a well-established suppressor

of T cells functions. Besides, functional antigen presentation in TME is the key to the success of

anti-tumor immune response, and immune evasion through suppressing this critical process

significantly reduces the efficacy of immunotherapy [39]. The novelty of our study lies in the fact

we first demonstrate that PLK1 inhibits antigen presentation pathway by down regulating MHC-

II in M2 macrophages, which is the key molecule responsible for processing and presentation of

tumor-specific neoantigens. Besides, this conclusion can be extended to cancer cells, where high

PLK1 is also associated with low MHC-II expression. The expression of MHC-II in tumors is a

good biomarker for better survival of patients [49-52]. However, the function of MHC-II in cancer

cells is unclear. Given that MHC-II is mainly responsible for antigen presentation by professional

APC, the fact that MHC-II expressing in cancer cells may be involved in this process by

functionally mimicking antigen presentation process and priming CD4 T cells, which directly bind

to MHC-II to activate immune response, and this idea has been supported by the discovery of

certain MHC-II specific neoantigens in tumor cells and their necessity in promoting successful

anti-tumor response [52]. Considering the negative regulation of MHC-II by PLK1, our study

further supports this notion in LUAD. However, the mechanistic part behind this regulation is

missing and requires further exploration.

Considering the predominant immunosuppressive functions of PLK1 in LUAD and other cancer

types [21, 22], treatment focuses on targeting PLK1 may decelerate tumor growth by boosting

immune response in TME. However, it is noteworthy that PLK1 may be negatively correlated with

PD-L1 in certain situations [21, 22], devaluing the monotherapy with PLK1 inhibitor as this

approach will unexpectedly elevate immune checkpoints. Thus, combination treatment with PLKi

and immune checkpoints blockade should exhibit premium effect, and this assumption remains to

be investigated by future studies.

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Data availability

450 All data are included in this article and the original data are available from the corresponding

451 author upon reasonable request. Bulky RNA-seq data was deposited in GEO under accession

452 number GSE206644.

Figure 1. Single-cell RNA-seq analysis of KP and KPP mice.

A, Workflow of single-cell RNA-seq of LSL-Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$ (KP) and LSL-

Kras^{G12D}/Tp53$^{f/f}$/LSL-Plk1 (KPP) mice. Ad-Cre, adenovirus-expressing Cre recombinase. **B,**

UMAP projection of major immune cell populations in KP and KPP groups. **C,** Comparison of

cell populations denoted in B between KP and KPP (n=3). **D,** Proportion of cell populations in KP

and KPP. *, $p < 0.05$. **, $p < 0.01$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 2. High PLK1 is associated with M2-predominant phenotype.

A, Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes (KPP vs KP, FDR < 0.05) in macrophages. Top

10 up and down regulated genes (ranked by Log2FC) are labeled. Log10FDR, Log10-transformed

FDR. Log2FC, Log2-transformed fold change (FC). **B,** Top 10 up and down regulated genes

identified in A. **C,** Expression (KPP vs KP) of canonical M1 markers (Il1b, Tlr2, Cd86, Cd68,

Cd80, Socs3, Gch1) and M2 markers (Fn1, Pparg, Arg1, Slco2b1, Ptgs1, Pygl, Cd206). **D,**

Representative genes and functional markers used for identification of M1 (Cd38, Fcgr1) and M2

(Marco, Pparg). **E,** UMAP of M1 and M2 macrophages identified based on D. **F,** Proportion of

M1 and M2 in KP and KPP.

498   **Figure 3. PLK1 suppresses antigen presentation pathway and promotes M2 polarization.**

499   **A,** Significant up and down regulated pathways (KPP vs KP, FDR < 0.1) in macrophages identified

500   by GSEA. NES, normalized enrichment score. **B,** GSEA plots of three exemplary pathways in A.

501   **C,** Flow cytometry analysis of indicated genes in BMDM cocultured with KP or KPP at the

502   indicated ratio for 48h. **D,** Quantification of C (n=3). *, $p < 0.05$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 4. CXCL2 is responsible for the immunosuppressive function of PLK1.

A, Cytokines array detection of cytokines secretion from culture medium between KP and KPP. Visible differences are labeled. **B,** Illustration of CXCL2's function in suppressing anti-tumor immunity. **C,** Flow cytometry analysis of BMDM cocultured with conditioned medium from KP or KPP for 48h, with or without recombinant Cxcl2 (2ug/ml) or CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor SX-682 (1µM) treatment. **D,** Quantification of C (n=3). **E,** Flow cytometry analysis of BMDM cocultured with conditioned medium from KP or KPP for 48h, with or without anti-Cxcl2 neutralization antibodies (5ug/ml) treatment. **F,** Quantification of E (n=3). *, $p < 0.05$. **, $p < 0.01$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 5. PLK1 suppresses MHC-II expression in tumor cells.

A, Representative IHC images of KP and KPP tumors stained with MHC-II antibodies. **B,** Flow cytometry detection of MHC-II in KP and KPP cells. **C,** Quantification of B (n=3). Data are normalized to KP and shown as mean±SD. **D,** ELISA detection of IFN-γ in KP and KPP cells (n=6). Data are normalized to KP and shown as mean±SD. **E,** Flow cytometry detection of MHC-II in KP cells treated with PLK1 inhibitors (50nM BI, 50nM GSK, 200nM ONV) for 48h. **F,** Quantification of E (n=3). Data are normalized to Ctrl and shown as mean±SD. **G,** Flow cytometry detection of MHC-II in KPP cells treated with PLK1 inhibitors (50nM BI, 50nM GSK, 200nM ONV) for 48h. **H,** Quantification of G (n=3). Data are normalized to Ctrl and shown as mean±SD. For these results, an unpaired one-sided t test was used. **I,** Flow cytometry detection of MHC-II in H358 cells 48h after transfection with siRNA control or siRNA targeting PLK1. **J,** Quantification of I (n=3). Data are normalized to Ctrl and shown as mean±SD. **K,** Flow cytometry detection of MHC-II in H358 cells with dose escalation of PLK1 inhibitor ONV (nM) for 48h. **L,** Quantification of K (n=3). Data are normalized to untreated group (0) and shown as mean±SD. *, $p < 0.05$. **, $p < 0.01$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 6. Clinical evidence of PLK1 suppressing MHC-II in lung cancer.

A, Heatmap of MHC-II signature genes in TCGA-LUAD patients separated into PLK1 high and

PLK1 low groups. Data (zscore) of PLK1 and MHC-II genes are used. Patients are clustered based

on the median value of PLK1. **B,** Survival curves of TCGA-LUAD patients separated into MHC-

II high and MHC-II low groups. Data (RSEM) of MHC-II signature genes in A are first Log2+1-

transformed, then averaged to get signature scores. Patients are clustered based on the median

value of signature scores. For these results, a log-rank test was used.

Figure 7. Summary of working model.

Under low PLK1 condition, there is low level of CXCL2 secreted from tumors. Tumor microenvironment is "hot", characterized by increased tumor infiltrating immune cells, M1 polarization of TAM and functional APC. Cancer cells are MHC-II high and this feature is associated with better survival of patients. Under high PLK1 condition, there is increased secretion of CXCL2 from tumors. Tumor microenvironment is "cold", characterized by low levels of tumor infiltrating immune cells, M2 polarization of TAM and dysfunctional APC. Cancer cells are MHC-II low and patients have worse survival outcomes.

Figure S1. Single-cell RNA-seq analysis.

A, UMAP projection of all cells in single-cell RNA-seq undergoing unsupervised clustering. **B,**

Heatmap of signature genes of each cluster in A. **C,** Proportion of each cluster in KP and KPP. **D,**

Comparison of clusters between KP and KPP. For these results, a Wilcoxon rank-sum test was

used. **E,** Representative genes used for supervised clustering of major immune cell populations in

Fig. 1A. ***, FDR < 0.001.

616 **Figure S2. Single-cell RNA-seq analysis of T cell populations.**

617 **A,** Representative genes used for supervised clustering of T cell populations. **B,** UMAP projection

618 of T cell populations based on features genes in A. **C,** Comparison of T cell populations denoted

619 in B between KP and KPP (n=3). **D,** Proportion of T cell populations in KP and KPP. *, $p < 0.05$.

620 **, $p < 0.01$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

635   **Figure S3. GSEA results of immune cell populations.**

636   Significant up and down regulated pathways (KPP vs KP, FDR < 0.1) in major immune cell

637   populations except macrophages are shown. NES, normalized enrichment score.

654 **Figure S4. RNA-seq analysis of KP and KPP cells.**

655 **A,** STRING analysis of functional genes associated with CXCL2 in human and mice. **B,** GSEA

656 table of two potential pathways regulating CXCL2 secretion in KPP cells, identified by our

657 previously published RNA-seq data (GSE206644, KPP vs KP). FDR < 0.05 indicates a

658 significance.

Figure S5. Coculture experiments of dendritic cells.

A, Flow cytometry analysis of indicated genes in dendritic cells cocultured with KP or KPP at the

indicated ratio for 48h. **B,** Quantification of A (n=3). **C,** Flow cytometry analysis of dendritic cells

cocultured with conditioned medium from KP or KPP for 48h, with or without recombinant Cxcl2

(2ug/ml) or CXCR1/CXCR2 inhibitor SX-682 (1μM) treatment. **D,** Quantification of C (n=3). **E,**

Flow cytometry analysis of dendritic cells cocultured with conditioned medium from KP or KPP,

with or without anti-Cxcl2 neutralization antibodies (5ug/ml) treatment. **F,** Quantification of E

(n=3). *, $p < 0.05$. **, $p < 0.01$. ***, $p < 0.001$.

693   **Figure S6. Correlation analysis of PLK1 and MHC-II genes.**

694   Patients' data are collected from TCGA-LUAD. Data (RSEM) of PLK1 and MHC-II genes are

695   Log2-transformed. r_s, spearman coefficient.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

A

B

GSEA of RNA-seq: GSE206644 (KPP vs KP)		
	HALLMARK_ IL6_JAK_STAT3_SIGNALING	HALLMARK_ TNFA_SIGNALING_VIA_NFKB
NES	1.56	1.52
FDR	0.023	0.028

Figure S5

Figure S6