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A novel visual analysis interface enables integrative analyses of cancer transcriptomics data and identifies potential markers of immunotherapy response via machine learning.

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Abstract:

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) initiative has been essential for revealing key mechanisms in human cancer leading to the development of novel therapeutics. Analysis of the cancer transcriptomics data in the TCGA and other public repositories require coding skills that are associated with a steep learning curve for most non-specialists. To enable a wider utilization of these data, we introduce The Cancer Genome Explorer (TCGEx), a web-based visual data analysis interface that can perform a number of sophisticated analyses ranging from survival modeling and gene set enrichment analysis to unsupervised clustering and linear regression-based machine learning. In addition to providing access to preprocessed data from TCGA and immune checkpoint inhibition studies on cBioportal and CRI-iAtlas, the TCGEx platform allows users to upload and investigate their own data. Using this tool, we investigated the molecular subsets of human melanoma and identified microRNAs associated with intratumoral interferon signaling. We validated these findings using independent data from clinical trials involving immune checkpoint inhibitors for melanoma and other cancers. Moreover, our analyses unveiled a subset of cytokines predictive of positive responses to diverse immune checkpoint inhibitors prior to treatment initiation. Built on the R/Shiny framework, TCGEx modules offer customizable features to tailor the analysis to different study contexts and help generate publication-ready plots. TCGEx is freely available at https://tcgex.iyte.edu.tr, and it provides an interactive solution to extract meaningful insights from cancer transcriptomics data and guide scientific inquiry.

Keywords: TCGA, transcriptomics, immunotherapy, integrative analysis, interactive data analysis, survival modeling, machine learning, Shiny

Introduction

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) launched in 2006 is among the most ambitious projects to better understand and tackle human cancer (1). As of this writing, more than 11,000 tumor samples and matched healthy tissues have been characterized at the molecular level across 33 different cancer types as part of this initiative. TCGA studies employ a variety of experimental approaches including RNA and microRNA (miRNA) sequencing, whole exome sequencing, and genotyping and methylation arrays to generate 2.5+ petabytes of publicly available data. Landmark studies from the TCGA network described common genetic aberrations in cancer such as TP53 loss (2) as well as other cancer-specific changes including BRCA1/2 mutations in breast and ovarian tumors (3, 4) and APC mutations in colorectal carcinoma (5). Furthermore, transcriptomic profiling has led to the characterization of immune signatures within the tumor microenvironment (TME). Follow-up studies have revealed that the genomic and transcriptomic features of tumors determine whether they will respond to targeted therapies and immunotherapeutics (6–9), suggesting that a better understanding of the heterogeneity within the TME is essential for improved therapeutics and clinical outcomes.

Analyzing genomic data in the TCGA and other public repositories effectively requires programming skills and it is often challenging for the non-specialists. Multiple web-based applications have been developed to facilitate TCGA data analysis including cBioPortal, Web-TCGA, UCSC Xena, and GEPIA2 (10–13). Although these visual analysis interfaces reduced the barriers to data utilization for many investigators in the field, there is still a need for a centralized platform that integrates multiple methods for customized analyses. In particular, no interactive tool to date is equipped with sophisticated functional genomic analysis capabilities that allow examining transcriptomics data from various sources including TCGA, landmark immunotherapy studies, and one's own research. To address this need and democratize the use of high-throughput data in the cancer research field, we introduce The Cancer Genome Explorer (TCGEx), an open-source web-based analysis platform written in R/Shiny that offers several modules for sophisticated custom analyses. Using this novel interface, we investigated the TCGA skin cutaneous melanoma (SKCM) data and identified gene expression patterns and mutational subtypes associated with differential survival. We also examined intratumoral immune signatures using TCGEx machine learning modules and revealed miRNAs associated with elevated interferon-gamma (IFNγ) signaling. We validated these findings on independent data sets from immune checkpoint inhibition (ICI) trials and further identified a cytokine signature associated with positive responses to ICI across multiple types of cancers.

TCGEx features 10 analysis modules that can be flexibly adapted to various study contexts. Integrative analyses by aggregating data from multiple projects are also possible to investigate commonalities

and differences among cancers. TCGEx's comprehensive computational pipeline utilizes pre-processed

data from the TCGA repository that was prepared by combining transcriptomics data with clinical

metadata and intratumoral immune signatures described by the leading studies in the field (14). Addi-

tionally, TCGEx features transcriptomic data from multiple landmark ICI studies (6, 15–26) and it allows

users to upload and analyze their own data sets. We provide step-by-step in-app tutorials to increase

user-friendliness and help researchers implement TCGEx into their workflows and generate publication-

ready plots. TCGEx is publicly available without requiring user registration at https://tcgex.iyte.edu.tr web

server as well as through a docker image to facilitate local execution and open-source program develop-

ment (https://hub.docker.com/r/atakanekiz/tcgex). The source code of TCGEx is accessible at

https://github.com/atakanekiz/TCGEx.

Materials and Methods

Summary of the pipeline

TCGEx was created using the R programming language and Shiny framework and it runs on a publicly

accessible GNU/Linux server. TCGEx is designed to work with pre-processed harmonized data allowing

rapid and interactive analyses of TCGA projects, landmark ICI studies, and custom data sets. Pre-pro-

cessed TCGA data for the pipeline were prepared by integrating RNA sequencing (RNAseq), microRNA

sequencing (miRNAseq) data, and clinical metadata. The latter data type contains dozens of features

ranging from patient demographics to tumor subtypes and genetic aberrations. We further expanded the

sample-level metadata by incorporating intratumoral immune cell signatures described by Thorsson et al

(14). The ICI data sets were downloaded and prepared from cBioPortal and CRI-iAtlas repositories (27,

28). TCGEx analysis starts by selecting one or more cancer projects in the data selection module. After

data selection, relevant data objects are loaded into the session and passed to individual analysis mod-

ules **(Fig.1)**. TCGEx offers the following user-friendly modules with graphical interfaces: i) Kaplan-Meier

survival analysis; ii) Cox proportional hazards survival analysis; iii) feature-to-metadata exploratory gra-

phing; iv) feature-to-feature correlation graphing; v) correlative features analysis; vi) heatmap and hier-

archical clustering; vii) gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA); viii) receiving operating characteristics

(ROC) analysis; ix) principal component analysis (PCA); and x) lasso/ridge/elastic net machine learning

analysis. Each module allows users to examine specific data subsets such as metastatic and/or primary

tumor biopsies as well as healthy control samples. Furthermore, flexible options enable users to tailor

the pipeline to their specific needs and generate informative publication-ready plots. The TCGEx Shiny

app consists of modularized R scripts facilitating troubleshooting and incorporation of the code into other

analysis pipelines. Thus, TCGEx aims to reduce barriers to high-throughput data analysis in cancer re-

search by providing a scalable and user-friendly solution.

Data Selection Module

This module provides the interface for selecting from 33 TCGA and 14 ICI data sets to be analyzed in TCGEx. Upon data selection, pre-processed data objects are loaded, and descriptive statistics are visualized to help users examine the age and gender distribution of the selected patients as well as the tissue origin of the biopsy samples. TCGA data objects were prepared by the sample-level merging of the log(cpm+1) transformed RNAseq/miRNAseq data and clinical metadata. To facilitate downstream analyses, we removed genes that are not expressed in 25% or more of the samples in each TCGA project. ICI studies obtained from CRI-iAtlas repository were quartile-normalized while the data downloaded from cBioPortal were normalized through RPKM, FPKM, or TPM methods. For convenience and more control over the analyses, we added options for normalizing user-uploaded data sets and filtering lowly-expressed genes. Unlike some of the previously available tools for TCGA data analysis (12, 13), TCGEx allows users to select single or multiple data sets for integrative analyses. If multiple TCGA projects are selected, pre-processed data sets are aggregated keeping only the matched genes and clinical metadata variables. In the end, the data selection module creates a tidy data frame containing normalized RNAseq/miRNAseq data and clinical metadata; and feeds it to the other analysis modules.

Survival Analysis Modules

Studying the association between gene expression and survival outcome is important for understanding key mechanisms of cancer progression (29). TCGEx features two distinct survival analysis methods: Kaplan-Meier (KM) and Cox proportional hazards (CoxPH) modeling (30, 31). In both modules, categorical and continuous variables can be examined. Categorical meta-variables can differ between data sets, but it can include tumor grade, mutation types, and patient demographic information, among other features. Continuous variables such as gene expression and intratumoral immune cell signatures (14) can be directly modeled in CoxPH analysis or they can be categorized as "high", "mid", and "low" at user-defined thresholds for KM analysis. If more than one cancer type is selected by the user, gene expression can be categorized across all the projects at a common threshold, or within each cancer type separately. In KM analysis involving categorical variables, the user can further determine data subsets to include in the analysis and further customize the pipeline. Both KM and CoxPH modules allow including covariates in the model to examine the association of multiple variables with the survival outcome simultaneously. Furthermore, the CoxPH module is designed to accept user-defined interaction terms to accommodate arbitrarily complex multivariable study designs. Survival analysis pipelines of TCGEx generate customizable plots and show various statistical details including log-rank p-value for KM and CoxPH, and likelihood ratio test and Wald test p-values along with hazard ratios for CoxPH. Additionally, the proportionality assumption of the CoxPH model is checked using Schoenfeld residuals against time, and the user is

131 prompted a message regarding the validity of the model. Taken together, TCGEx survival analysis mod-
132 ules provide flexible options for customizing analysis to specific needs and studying the relationship be-
133 tween gene expression and survival outcomes in cancer.

Boxplot module

In this module, users can explore the relationship between gene expression and categorical clinical
meta-variables. Categorical variables vary according to tumor type, and they include disease pathological
stage, patient gender and race, tumor molecular subtype (32, 33), genome-wide methylation state (33),
oncogenic signaling (OncoSign) cluster type (34), genetic aberrations (2), genomic instability levels (5),
intratumoral lymphocyte scores (33), and numerous other metadata features **(Supplementary Table-1)**.
This module allows selecting specific categories to generate gene expression plots to emphasize differ-
ences in data subsets. To offer more flexibility in the analyses, we also added an optional faceting variable
which can further break data into sub-categories. This way, for instance, it becomes possible to plot the
expression of a given gene in various mutation subsets in male and female patients separately. To facil-
itate publication-ready plotting, the program allows the user to select journal-specific color palettes, tog-
gle individual data points on/off, and define specific statistical comparisons to highlight. Here, users can
select the t-test or Wilcoxon test for pairwise comparisons between data sub-groups. Thus, this module
helps researchers explore gene expression in clinically meaningful data subsets.

Correlation analysis modules

Examining correlations among genes and continuous metadata features can help study co-regulation
mechanisms (6) and miRNA-mRNA interactions (35). TCGEx offers two modules for correlation analysis
which can generate sample-level scatter plots or correlation matrices and tables. Sample-level plots are
generated by plotting two continuous variables against each other, where each point denotes a patient
sample. Continuous variables for this analysis can include transcript levels from RNAseq and miRNAseq
data and numerical metadata such as mutation load or intratumoral immune cell scores (14). The corre-
lation scatter plot is designed to be responsive, and it can show patient barcode, gender, and race upon
hovering over individual data points. Furthermore, an optional faceting variable can be used to break
data points into various subcategories and generate informative plots, as described in the previous mod-
ules. Users can visualize the best-fitting line and the linear regression equation on the graph to demon-
strate the relationship between variables. In addition to these functionalities, we anticipated that it could
be of interest to examine the top positive and negative correlators of a specific gene and plot a gene-to-
gene correlation matrix. The second correlation analysis module of TCGEx enables these analyses by
calculating pairwise Pearson and Spearman correlation coefficients and creating tabular and graphical

outputs. Therefore, these pipelines facilitate examining the linear relationships between variables and
help investigate potential genetic interactions.

Heatmap and hierarchical clustering module

Heatmaps are commonly used for visualizing high-throughput gene expression data. Especially when
combined with hierarchical clustering, heatmaps can reveal interesting patterns in the data and help
categorize samples with different characteristics (36). We created an interactive heatmap module
equipped with flexible options to facilitate visualization and analysis of transcriptomics data. Here, users
can manually enter genes of interest, or select curated gene sets described in the Molecular Signatures
Database (MSigDB) (37). Extensively utilized in both cancer and non-cancer literature, MSigDB contains
thousands of annotated gene sets that define numerous biological states and processes. We anticipated
that heatmaps created with these pre-defined gene sets could be especially informative when paired with
user-selected sample-level annotations. Thus, we added functionality to show custom annotation bars
above the heatmaps. In these annotation bars, both categorical and continuous features can be specified
to generate complex heatmaps. As described previously, numerous cancer-specific categorical features
are available for selection including tumor stage, mutational subtype, and oncogenic copy number alter-
ations (38). When continuous annotation variables are selected, we designed the pipeline to categorize
the samples at the median value to create two color-coded groups. The pipeline also allows selecting
multiple continuous variables, in which case the categorization is done for each variable separately or
after averaging the variables, thus making it possible to create meta-features on the fly. In the heatmap
module, users can filter out genes with low variance and change the hierarchical clustering parameters
to tailor the analysis to specific needs. Therefore, this module can help researchers create informative
heatmaps to highlight meaningful patterns in gene expression data.

Gene set enrichment analysis module

In transcriptome analysis, expression patterns of genes in specific pathways can be examined to study
the biological states of the samples. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) is a powerful approach for
comparing two groups of samples by focusing on a list of genes that share common biological charac-
teristics (39). We developed an efficient GSEA pipeline that allows comparisons between user-defined
data subsets. Similar to previous modules, users can define these data subsets by selecting specific
values for categorical variables (such as mutation subtypes, tumor stage, and patient gender), or by
binarizing continuous variables (such as gene expression, nonsilent mutation rate, and intratumoral im-
mune scores) at custom thresholds. After defining two data subsets, the pipeline ranks genes based on
their expression levels and variance using the previously defined signal-to-noise approach (39). The

GSEA module utilizes thousands of readily available gene sets from the MSigDB repository and facilitates the investigation of various biological pathways in iterative analyses (37). We further added gene signatures predictive of immunotherapy response in numerous studies that are curated in a recent report (40). Importantly, to further increase the usability of this module, we gave the user an option to provide custom gene sets and examine their expression patterns in user-defined data subsets. This module can create enrichment plots for individual gene sets and print a table of leading-edge genes that mostly drive the enrichment scores (39), or it can show the most highly enriched gene sets among others provided to the pipeline. Taken together, the GSEA module provides a flexible and customizable platform for examining functional associations in cancer gene expression data.

Receiving operator characteristics analysis module

Receiving operator characteristics (ROC) analysis is a method for evaluating the discriminatory performance of variables in a binary classification system (41). ROC curves are generated by plotting the true positive rate (i.e. sensitivity) against the false positive rate (i.e. 1-specificity) across all possible thresholds for the variable of interest. The area under the ROC curve (AUC or AUROC) can be examined to assess the power and accuracy of the classifier, a commonly used approach in the field for investigating diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers (42–44). TCGEx features a powerful and flexible module for performing ROC analyses using gene expression data and clinical metadata. Users can binarize features of interest at custom thresholds to create two groups needed for the ROC analysis and specify custom predictor variables to assess their classifier potential. Using this pipeline one can examine, for instance, whether the expression of a specific gene is associated with certain tumor characteristics such as mutation rate, and intratumoral immune signatures. As in the previously described modules, users can work with both categorical variables and numerical variables through flexible input options and tailor the analysis to specific needs. We also provided an option to add ROC curves to the graph generated using MSigDB gene sets. This design facilitates comparing user-selected custom predictors and other functionally annotated predictors. Thus, we anticipate that the ROC module can be conveniently used in various study contexts to assess novel predictors in cancer data.

Principal component analysis module

Dimensionality reduction techniques such as principal component analysis (PCA) are commonly employed in transcriptomics (45). PCA involves constructing a new coordinate system for the data using linear combinations of its variables (i.e., genes in RNAseq). The axes of this new coordinate system, called principal components, represent the variation in the experiment, and they help visualize multidimensional data sets on a 2D graph. TCGEx program features a user-friendly PCA module with flexible

inputs to be utilized in various study contexts. Similar to other modules, one can specify sample types and select a custom list of genes to prepare the gene expression matrix for PCA. Here, the module conveniently allows selecting all genes in the RNAseq/miRNAseq data or specifying genes from MSigDB pathways. Furthermore, convenient options allow selecting miRNAs or lncRNAs exclusively to tailor analyses to specific contexts. Although PCA accounts for both highly and lowly variable genes, we provided a pre-filtering option to speed up the analysis by removing genes with low variance. In PCA plots, it is usually helpful to annotate individual points based on specific characteristics. For instance, one may want to see whether samples with certain genetic features form a separate cluster in the PCA space (46). To address this need, this module allows color-coding data points based on categorical or continuous variables, the latter of which is categorized at the median value to form "high" and "low" groups. PCA module generates customizable and interactive graphics and allows exporting publication-ready plots.

Machine learning module

Machine learning (ML) refers to a range of applications and algorithms that aim to extract relevant and useful information from data. In the context of bioinformatics, ML is utilized to perform classification, prediction, and feature selection from biological data (47, 48). Regularized regression, a type of supervised machine learning technique, is a derivative of linear regression that allows one to simultaneously create a model and perform feature selection in high dimensional data. It is optimized to minimize the sum of squared residuals while penalizing the generated model coefficient estimates. The penalty term is applied to the model equation to reduce model complexity and make the prediction with the limited mean squared error. Ridge, lasso, and elastic net regression are all types of regularized regression methods with varying strengths depending on the underlying structure of the data. Ridge regression shrinks the estimated coefficients without making them zero and assigns correlating parameters with similar coefficients (49). Lasso regression on the other hand can shrink model coefficients to zero and therefore performs feature selection (50). Elastic net regression can refer to a middle ground in between ridge and lasso regression and it is ideal for data sets in which the number of predictor variables significantly exceeds the number of samples and/or there is a high number of correlating variables. The optimal degree of penalization for each approach can be selected using cross-validation across the data set. The ML module in TCGEx provides a user-friendly interface for applying these regularized linear regression methods on the transcriptomics data. Users choose response and predictor variables for the model and specify the ML algorithm by setting the penalization parameter alpha. The response variable (i.e., dependent variable) in these analyses can be constructed from a custom list of genes or MSigDB gene sets by taking the average of the expression values. Alternatively, users can select categorical metadata features as the response variable and binarize data subsets in a custom way to adapt the pipeline to various study

contexts. This module also provides convenient options to specify different types of predictor variables
(i.e. independent variables) including genes belonging to specific biological pathways or encoding miR-
NAs and lncRNAs. This way, one can easily examine, for instance, miRNA/lncRNAs that are most closely
associated with a pathway of interest (51). The ML module can use the entire data to train a model or
split it into training and testing subsets to evaluate the overall model accuracy (48). The findings of the
analyses are displayed through interactive graphs which show penalized coefficients and the mean
squared error of the cross-validated model across various levels of regularization. Taken together, the
ML module provides a customizable platform for sophisticated analysis of the TCGA transcriptomics data.

Results and Discussion:

In this study, we have used the TCGEx pipeline to investigate the transcriptomic landscape of human
melanoma and other cancers with the goal of identifying gene expression patterns associated with anti-
tumor immunity and immunotherapy response. Melanoma is an aggressive form of cancer that develops
in pigment-producing cells of the skin, although it can rarely be observed in other organs including the
eye and gastrointestinal tract as well. More than 320,000 new cutaneous melanoma cases are reported
globally each year and 55,000+ lives are lost because of this disease (52). UV exposure is a significant
risk factor for the development of melanoma, and most cases are diagnosed at an advanced stage where
the cancer cells have already metastasized to nearby lymph nodes or distant organs. Accordingly, the
TCGA-SKCM study is composed of mainly metastatic tumor biopsies, as shown in the TCGEx data se-
lection module **(Fig.2a)**. These samples originated from comparable numbers of male and female pa-
tients in various age groups **(Fig.2b)**. The landmark TCGA paper describing the genetic features of SKCM
classified tumors into subtypes based on mutations in BRAF, NF1, and RAS genes (33). These subtypes
are characterized by distinct sets of accompanying genomic aberrations including PTEN loss in BRAF-
mutant tumors, KIT amplification in triple wild-type (WT) tumors, Akt3 amplification in RAS-mutant and
wild-type tumors which are readily observed in transcriptomics data **(Fig.2c)**. When these graphs are
faceted by patient gender, some of these genes showed sex-dependent differences in their expression
patterns **(Fig.S1a, b)**. Interestingly, BRAF-mutant melanomas expressed higher levels of transferrin (TF)
which was recently shown to protect circulating tumor cells from oxidative stress leading to BRAF inhibitor
resistance **(Fig.S1c)** (53). On the other hand, NF1-mutant melanoma was distinctly marked by the high
expression of hepatocyte-specific transcription factor ONECUT1 which was shown to be associated with
tumor progression **(Fig.S1c)** (54). Our analyses also revealed that ZC3H13, a component of the RNA
methyltransferase complex, is enriched in RAS-mutant melanoma; and triple-WT tumors selectively ex-
pressed FOXF2, a transcription factor that plays a complex role in regulating oncogenic signaling

pathways **(Fig.S1c)** (55). These findings suggest that distinct molecular mechanisms may be responsible
for driving different tumor subtypes in melanoma and indicate possible intervention points.

BRAF-mutant melanoma constitutes about 50% of the cases in the TCGA cohort followed by RAS-
mutant (~30%), NF1-mutant, and triple-WT tumors (~10% each). Of these 4 groups, BRAF-mutant mel-
anoma has the most favorable prognosis **(Fig.2d)**, although this may be confounded by the younger age
of the patients in this group (33). While melanoma incidence is comparable between both sexes, females
were reported to have a reduced risk of mortality (56). Examination of the TCGA-SKCM cohort as a whole
did not show a significant survival difference between the two groups; however, a slightly increased risk
was observed for the males **(Fig.S2a, b)**. Notably, when we examined only BRAF and NRAS-mutant
tumors, males were associated with poorer survival outcomes, especially in the NRAS-mutant subgroup
(Fig.2e). These findings suggest that sex-specific factors may differentially influence the prognosis in
different mutation subtypes.

In addition to defining potential genetic drivers in melanoma, the TCGA-SKCM manuscript also iden-
tified three distinct tumor subsets based on gene expression profiles as immune, keratin, and MITF-low
groups (33). The immune subset was characterized by the higher expression of immune cell-specific
genes **(Fig.3a)**, while the keratin and MITF-low subsets were characterized by the high and low expres-
sion of epithelial genes, respectively, in the absence of a clear immune infiltration signature. Of these
three groups, the immune subset exhibits the most favorable survival outcome **(Fig.3b, S3)**, which is
consistent with the positive role of inflammation in SKCM reported previously (14). IFNγ is a key inflam-
matory cytokine released from T and NK cells to eliminate tumor cells. IFNγ exerts its multifaceted func-
tions within the TME by signaling through IFNγ-receptors (IFNGR) and regulating dozens of downstream
genes in tumor cells and the neighboring immune cells (57). We examined IFNγ response gene expres-
sion signature in SKCM subsets and observed higher levels of most of these transcripts in the immune
subset **(Fig.3c)** (58), and as expected, these trends were paralleled by the elevated IFNγ transcript levels
and CD8+ T cell signatures within the TME. We next wanted to investigate the relationship between the
intratumoral CD8+ T cell score and the T cell receptor (TCR) diversity (14). This is of interest because
multiple studies have suggested that the clonally expanded T cells within melanoma are associated with
a spectrum of dysfunctional phenotypes (59, 60). Increasing CD8+ T cell signature within the TCGA-
SKCM tumors positively correlated with the overall TCR diversity, suggesting a polyclonal T cell infiltrate
and the presence of T cell clones with different antigenic specificities **(Fig.3d)** (61). Notably, the increased
TCR diversity correlated with higher levels of cytotoxic effector molecule perforin (PRF1) and decreasing
genetic signatures of M2 macrophages that are known to exert pro-tumorigenic functions **(Fig.3e)** (14).

Taken together, TCGEx can be utilized to explore multifaceted data types in TCGA including the tumor-specific subtypes and the intratumoral immune landscape.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs), 20-22 nucleotide noncoding RNAs responsible for post-transcriptional modulation, are key regulators of antitumor immunity and tumor immunoevasion (62). Given the importance of IFNγ signaling in cancer, we next focused on TCGA-SKCM miRNAseq data and utilized lasso regression to select top miRNAs associated with the IFNγ response. The patient cohort was divided into training (70%) and test (30%) subsets and the expression of miRNAs (529 genes after low-expression filtering) were modeled as the predictor variables against the average expression of IFNγ signature genes (MSigDB Hallmark IFNγ response gene set) as the response variable. 26 positive and 18 negative coefficients remained in the optimally regularized model (log lambda + 1 standard error) **(Fig.4a, S4a, b)**. 5 miRNAs, miRs-155-5p, -150-3p, -150-5p, -142-3p and -7702 were the last five predictors remaining in the model when the model penalty term lambda (λ) is increased further at the expense of minimized mean-squared error. As expected from prior work, these miRNAs showed a strong positive correlation with T cell effector molecules including IFNγ, PRF1, and granzyme B (GZMB) **(Fig.4b)**. Of note, top positive correlators of miR-155-5p were immune-specific genes such as markers of T cells and costimulatory receptors; and top negative correlators included regulators of nucleotide biosynthesis, metabolism, and signal transduction **(Fig.S4c-e)**. Since a single miRNA can control dozens of targets and miR-155-5p correlates with immunity in SKCM (63), we next examined whether the expression levels of miR-155-5p can distinguish the immune subset of SKCM from the keratin and MITF-low subsets. We performed ROC analysis and found that miR-155-5p predicted the immune-enriched SKCM subset with an AUC of 0.819, although the average expression of IFNγ response genes was a slightly better predictor with the AUC of 0.891 **(Fig.4c)**. However, we noted that the predictive power of the averaged expression of 5 miRNAs that remained in the highly regularized lasso model was a better predictor of the immune subset of SKCM **(Fig.4d)**. To further examine gene expression patterns in miR-155-5p-high melanoma, we performed GSEA using annotated Hallmark gene sets from the MSigDB database (58) and noted that the expression of genes associated with adaptive immunity was enriched in the miR-155-5p-high subset **(Fig.4e, f)**. Lastly, we performed dimensionality reduction using 685 genes belonging to the "adaptive immune response" gene ontology class and color-coded the individual samples based on miR-155-5p expression to see whether miR-155 levels can differentially mark samples in the PCA space. Interestingly, the first principal component distinguished a portion of the samples suggesting that miR-155 is a marker of adaptive immunity signature within the TME which is supported by the work from our group and others **(Fig.4g)** (63–66).

Next, we wanted to validate the associations between miRNAs and intratumoral IFNγ signature in
independent data sets obtained from melanoma biopsies prior to ICI therapy (6, 15–17, 21). No miRNA
sequencing has been done in these clinical trials yet, but the miRNA host gene expression is available
in the RNAseq data. We observed that the expression of the mature miRNAs and their host genes show
a strong positive correlation in the TCGA data **(Fig.S5)**, and thus we focused on the miRNA host genes
in the ICI data sets as a surrogate for mature miRNA expression. Using quartile-normalized integrated
data from 5 different melanoma ICI studies (313 total samples prior to treatment with anti-CTLA4 or anti-
PD1), we constructed lasso regression against the averaged IFNγ signature genes as the response var-
iable and 45 miRNA genes that are expressed in at least 25% of the samples as the predictor variables
(Fig.5a). This model predicted 11 miRNAs with positive coefficients, including MIR155HG, and 2 miRNAs
with negative coefficients at the maximum penalization within 1 standard error of the minimum cross-
validation error **(Fig.5b, c)**. We showed that MIR155HG expression is positively correlated with the cyto-
toxic lymphocyte markers CD8A, IFNG, and PRF1 across melanoma ICI data sets **(Fig.5d)**. As expected,
the GSEA analysis revealed an enrichment of IFNγ signaling in MIR155HG-high samples **(Fig.5e)**. After
validating MIR155HG's association with intratumoral immunity in melanoma ICI data, we performed sim-
ilar analyses on pre-treatment Pan-ICI data prepared by integrating 10 quartile-normalized ICI studies (5
melanoma, 3 kidney, 1 stomach, and 1 bladder cancer studies adding up to 938 samples prior to treat-
ment with anti-CTLA4, anti-PD1 or anti-PD-L1 inhibitors) (6, 15–17, 20, 22, 24–26, 67). Lasso modeling
against averaged IFNγ-responsive genes revealed 15 (including MIR155HG), and 7 miRNA genes with
positive and negative coefficients, respectively **(Fig.5f-h)** which were mostly consistent with the mela-
noma-specific analyses. When the genome-wide expression patterns of the pan-ICI pre-treatment data
were examined, we noted that MIR155HG-high subset was associated with an enrichment of IFNγ-re-
sponsive gene set **(Fig.5i)** as well as other pathways associated with the immune response **(Fig.5j)**.
Taken together, machine learning-based analysis of melanoma and other tumor biopsies revealed the
miRNAs associated with antitumor immunity and further supported the connection between intratumoral
IFNγ signaling and MIR155HG. As these data originate from bulk methods, it is not possible to ascertain
the gene expression to specific cell types within the TME, however there is literature supporting the im-
munoregulatory roles of MIR155HG in both tumor cells, and the infiltrating immune cells (68, 69).

Pre-existing immune infiltration and particularly IFNγ signaling have been linked to better clinical out-
comes in cancer and improved responses to immunotherapies (6, 8). After observing the association of
MIR155HG with immune parameters within the TME, we next asked whether MIR155HG expression
prior to ICI could stratify melanoma survival and therapy response. We separately categorized patients
at the median MIR155HG for each of the 5 melanoma ICI data sets and, similar to what was observed
for TCGA-SKCM, noted MIR155HG-high tumors showed an improved overall survival **(Fig.6a)**. When

the patients were also segregated by immunotherapy response, we noted that the higher MIR155HG still marked better prognosis in non-responding patients, but not in the responding cohort **(Fig.S6a)**. We next wanted to examine the baseline differences at MIR155HG levels between responding and non-responding patients and noted that MIR155HG expression was elevated in one of the 5 melanoma ICI data sets prior to treatment with anti-PD1 or a combination of anti-CTLA4/anti-PD1 ICI **(Fig.6b)** (15). Interestingly, ICI-responsive tumors tended to express higher levels of MIR155HG in this data set both prior to and during the immunotherapy although this was not statistically significant **(Fig.S6b)**. To understand whether miRNA expression can predict positive responses to ICI, we binarized therapy response (complete and partial responders vs progressive disease cases) and utilized binomial lasso regression in the pre-treatment combined melanoma data set. Our modeling revealed 11 and 17 miRNAs with positive and negative coefficients, respectively at the highest penalization level within 1 standard error of the maximum model AUC **(Fig.S6c-e)**. Interestingly, some of the miRNAs associated with ICI-response in this analysis (including MIR155HG, MIR23AHG and MIR181A1HG) were also observed when using lasso regression against IFNγ response as the response variable. We then expanded the scope of the lasso regression and utilized the aggregated Pan-ICI data set as described above to investigate miRNAs as potential predictors of ICI response. This analysis returned only two miRNA genes with negative coefficients at the maximal penalization level (value of lambda within 1 standard deviation for the maximum cross-validated area under the roc curve [AUC]), however, relaxing the penalization level (value of lambda at the maximum cross-validated AUC) resulted in a total of 12 non-zero coefficients in the model **(Fig.6c-e)**. MIR155HG was among the 3 miRNAs with positive coefficients in the model, although the overall model performance was not too high when only using miRNAs as predictors. Although MIR155HG was not found to be a powerful predictor of response in these analyses, it was consistently expressed across many data sets examined for this study. Thus, we used a recently reported online portal, Immuno-Oncology Signatures Explorer (IOSig) (40), to assess the association of MIR155HG with ICI responsiveness in a larger cohort of ICI studies in comparison to other previously published response signatures **(Table-S2,3)**. We noted that the single-gene MIR155HG signature was variably associated with ICI response, although an AUC between 0.7-0.8 was seen for 8 out of 30 pre-ICI treatment data sets where MIR155HG expression was detected **(Fig.6f, Table-S4)**. Notably, these studies involved various cancer types including melanoma, kidney, breast, and gastrointestinal cancers. We validated IOSig platform's findings using Gide et al. data set in the ROC module of TCGEx and showed that MIR155HG expression could distinguish responders (complete and partial response) from non-responders (stable or progressive disease), albeit more poorly compared to a previously published 6-gene IFNγ response signature shown to predict immunotherapy response **(Fig.6g)** (8). Of note, MIR155HG expression performed better in distinguishing responders to the anti-PD1/anti-CTLA4 combination therapy in this data suggesting differences in

molecular pathways that are involved in the mechanisms of ICI therapeutics. Thus, our results suggest that, while MIR155HG rises among other miRNAs to differentiate some ICI responders, it does not constitute a strong signature to be generalized across data sets.

Finally, we set out to identify a gene signature that can perform well across a broader range of ICI studies using the TCGEx analysis pipeline. As cytokine signaling is a core determinant of the immunological outcome in cancer, we utilized the 238-gene KEGG cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction gene set curated in the MSigDB repository (37). We binarized ICI response as described above and constructed a binomial elastic net regression model (with elastic mixing parameter of alpha=0.5) using the Pan-ICI pre-treatment data set described above. Out of the 238 genes, the calculated model retained 5 cytokines with positive coefficients, IFNG, CXCL9, CXCL13, IL21, and CCL5, at the highest regularization level **(Fig.7a-c)**. We next used IOSig platform to assess the association of this signature (Cytokine-5) with the immunotherapy response across a diverse set of cancer types and treatments. In these analyses, Cytokine-5 signature attained a higher overall AUC value compared to the previously published response signatures including 6- or 18-gene IFNγ response signature (8) and Impres signature (9), however, a degree of variation existed among datasets **(Fig.7d, S7a-b, Table-S5)**. Out of 34 pre-treatment data sets expressing all 5 genes of the signature, 4 showed AUC values of 0.9 or more and, interestingly, these studies were conducted on 4 different cancer types (thymic, colorectal, non-small cell lung cancer and melanoma) and involved different treatment agents (anti-PD1, anti-CTLA4, or combination). Additionally, the Cytokine-5 signature corresponded to an AUC between 0.7-0.8 in 8 other data sets, and an AUC between 0.6-0-7 for yet another 8 data sets across cancer types and treatment modalities. Our analyses revealed that, among the published signatures available in the IOSig, Cytokine-5 has the highest average AUC score for the smallest number of genes in the signature for predicting immunotherapy responsiveness **(Fig.7e)**. Notably, the 6-gene IFNg signature previously reported to predict anti-PD-1 response (8) showed positive correlation with the Cytokine-5 signature, although the Cytokine-5 score performed better in predicting responses in multiple cancer types **(Fig.7f, S7b)**. It is important to note that a previously reported 12-gene chemokine signature (marked as Chemokines in the heatmap) containing CCL5 and CXCL9 had a lower albeit comparable overall performance in predicting ICI response. Similarly, the 6- or 18-gene IFNγ signature described by Ayers et al. (8) (IFNG6 or IFNG18) demonstrated a strong positive correlation with the Cytokine-5 signature, but it had a lower prediction power overall. Two genes from Cytokine-5 signature, IFNG and CXCL9, overlapped with IFNG6 gene set, while CCL5 and CXC13 genes were common with IFNG18, suggesting that the unique composition of the Cytokine-5 signature may provide a higher prediction performance across a broader range of ICI studies. To validate these findings, we next examined the average expression of Cytokine-5 signature in the pre-ICI datasets available on the TCGEx platform. As expected, the Cytokine-5 signature was found significantly

higher in responders at baseline across melanoma, kidney, stomach, and bladder cancers **(Fig.7g, S7c)**.
Interestingly, the higher levels of this signature in therapy-responsive melanoma samples were evident
both prior to and on ICI treatment **(Fig.7h)**. We also noted that the expression of this signature increased
during ICI treatment regardless of the response classification suggesting that the Cytokine-5 signature is
induced upon immunotherapy, albeit more strongly in responding tumors. Lastly, we examined how Cy-
tokine-5 signature performs in specific cancers and treatment types. Although the number of studies was
limiting for some cancers, Cytokine-5 score corresponded to an AUC of >0.75 for multiple cancer types
including thymic, colorectal, pancreatic, gastrointestinal, and non-small cell lung cancers **(Fig S8a)**.
When we categorized studies based on treatment type, we observed that Cytokine-5 signature has an
AUC of >0.6 for single agent anti-CTLA4 or anti-PD1 as well as their combinations, although these pat-
terns may be confounded by cancer type **(FigS8b)**. Collectively, these results highlight the utility of the
TCGEx web server to investigate cancer transcriptomics data and identify clinically relevant predictors
such as the Cytokine-5 signature in the context of immunotherapy.

TGCEx platform provides a user-friendly solution for high throughput data analysis and can benefit
researchers beyond the scope of this work. Although we developed this tool with RNAseq/miRNAseq in
mind and not tested elsewhere, the TCGEx modules are also compatible with other data types, such as
microarray, Nanostring, and CHIP-seq data. While this platform allows users to upload and explore their
own data through flexible interfaces, it is important to consider the effects of data normalization and
filtering on the analyses. We provide convenient input options to help with data processing, but more
customized data manipulations may be needed in specific study contexts. We openly provide the TCGEx
source code to help researchers who wish to further control the analysis pipeline and tailor the code to
their needs.

Conclusions:

Taken together, TCGEx provides a powerful and flexible interface for analyzing cancer transcriptomics
data originating from various sources. The TCGEx pipeline can be adapted to study various aspects of
cancer including oncogenic drivers, immune associations, prognostic markers in specific subtypes,
among others. Furthermore, TCGEx allows integrative analyses of multiple data sets to study the molec-
ular underpinnings of human cancer and enable users to interact with their own data. Visual analysis
interfaces increase the accessibility and reusability of high throughput data and facilitate research by
serving as a bridge between scientific disciplines. TCGEx, publicly and freely accessible on the web, not
only reduces barriers to data analysis for researchers with no programming experience but also can be
implemented into larger analysis pipelines to facilitate hypothesis-driven research.

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Author Contributions:

M.E.K. prepared the input data, developed the code connecting different modules of TCGEx, partici-
pated in developing the ML module, and performed app deployment and maintenance. C.S. developed
survival analysis and heatmap modules. E.K. developed the ROC and heatmap modules. A. Askin de-
veloped the PCA, correlation, and GSEA modules. M.M.O developed the ML module and participated in
preparing and cleaning up the input data. G.K. contributed to the correlation modules and website ana-
lytics. A. Aksit was instrumental in setting up the Shiny server within the institutional infrastructure. R.O.C.
provided critical insight during the development of the TCGEx app. H.A.E. developed the initial prototype
for most of the modules, oversaw the TCGEx app development, and set up the web-accessible server.
All authors contributed to preparing and reviewing the manuscript.

Data availability:

The TCGEx webserver is accessible at https://www.tcgex.iyte.edu.tr. All code for the TCGEx app, data
download, and pre-processing is publicly accessible at https://github.com/atakanekiz/TCGEx. To facili-
tate local execution and code development, TCGEx docker image can be accessed at
https://hub.docker.com/repository/docker/atakanekiz/tcgex/. The data sets used in TCGEx were derived
from the TCGA data repository in the public domain (https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/). Processed data files
and TCGEx source code are accessible on Figshare (doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.23912532)
(https://figshare.com/s/22f21b780acd57fb5dfb).

Conflict of interest:

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Figure-1

Figure 1. TCGEx workflow overview. TCGEx pipeline begins with the user selection of pre-pro-
cessed transcriptomics data from a single TCGA project or multiple projects for integrated analyses. The
data selection module shows descriptive statistics including the sample types, gender, and age distribu-
tion of the patients in the selected project(s). The data is subsequently passed onto 10 distinct modules
for specialized analyses including survival modeling, gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), principal
component analysis (PCA), correlation calculation, and exploratory graphing in the form of scatter plots,
boxplots, and heatmaps. In each module, the user can further focus on specific sample types such as
primary and/or metastatic tumor samples, and some modules allow further subsetting in the analyses.
Algorithmic and graphical parameters are easily changed through visual and responsive user interfaces.
TCGEx modules are supported by interactive tutorials and provide options to export analysis results and
graphical outputs for publication purposes. TCGEx is freely available on the web as well as through a
docker image. All the subsequent figures in this manuscript are generated using the TCGEx modules.

 Figure-2

Figure 2. Analysis of mutational subsets in skin cutaneous melanoma. A. The TCGA-SKCM pro-

ject consists of mostly metastatic samples. Analyses described herein are performed on both metastatic

and primary tumors. **B.** Comparable numbers of male and female individuals from a range of age groups

are included in the SKCM patient cohort. **C.** Expression profiles of PTEN, ITGB8, AKT3, and KIT can

distinguish mutational subtypes of SKCM, suggesting different molecular signaling landscapes exist in

disease subsets (33). Statistical comparisons are performed using the t-test although users have the

option to select non-parametric Wilcoxon test as well. The p-values are adjusted for multiple comparisons

($p<0.0001$, "****"; $p<0.001$, "***"; $p<0.01$, "**"; $p<0.05$, "*"; $p>0.05$, "ns") **D.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis

revealed that BRAF-mutant SKCM has the most favorable clinical outcome. 10-year survival curves are

shown where dashed lines indicate the median survival time points in each group. The risk table provided

below the survival curve denotes the number of surviving patients (i.e. at-risk patients) at different follow-

up times. The log-rank p-value shown on the graph tests the null hypothesis that none of the groups are

different from one another. **E.** Survival modeling using only BRAF- and RAS-mutant melanoma patients

suggests that males in the RAS-mutant group have poorer survival outcomes compared to BRAF-mutant

males and females in general. TCGEx provides users with flexible options to change the color scheme

and the range of time axis in the graphs.

Figure-3

Figure 3. Analysis of the melanoma intratumoral immune landscape. A. The immune-enriched
melanoma subset previously defined based on multi-gene expression profiles (33) is characterized by
higher levels of PTPRC (CD45, a pan-leukocyte marker) and CD3E (a T cell marker) transcripts. T-test
p-values are adjusted for multiple comparisons ($p < 0.0001$, "****"; $p < 0.001$, "***"; $p < 0.01$, "**"; $p < 0.05$, "*";
$p > 0.05$, "ns"). **B.** Immune subset of the SKCM is associated with an improved survival outcome compared
to keratin and MITF-low subsets. **C.** Heatmap visualization of the top 25% variably expressed genes from
the MSigDB Hallmark IFNγ response gene set (58) in primary and metastatic melanoma is shown (50
out of 200 genes are plotted). The annotation rows on top of the heatmap were prepared by categorizing
IFNγ transcript level and CIBERSORT CD8+ T cell score (70) at their median values. Melanoma subsets
defined previously based on genome-wide expression patterns are also shown. CPM-normalized and
log-transformed transcript counts are scaled by row to better show expression differences in data sub-
sets. The default TCGEx parameters were used for hierarchical clustering (Euclidean distance and
Ward.D2 clustering algorithm for both genes and samples). **D.** Increasing intratumoral CD8+ T cell sig-
nature is associated with a higher TCR diversity suggesting a polyclonal T cell infiltrate. **E.** The higher
TCR diversity in melanoma tumors correlates with increased levels of T cell effector genes including
perforin (PRF1) and IFNγ and decreased pro-tumorigenic M2 macrophage signatures (14).

Figure-4

Figure 4. Machine-learning analysis of the associations between miRNAs and antitumor im-
munity in TCGA-SKCM data. A. Lasso regression was performed by selecting IFNγ response score as
the response variable and mature miRNA transcripts as predictor variables. 529 miRNA predictors in the
pre-processed SKCM data entered the lasso model after splitting the data set into training (70%) and
test (30%) subsets for cross-validation. The graph shows the coefficient regularization paths for individual
predictors at increasing levels of penalty term lambda (λ). Vertical lines indicate the cutoffs where the
cross-validation (CV) error was at its minimum value and within one standard error. 5 miRNAs that con-
tinued to have non-zero coefficients at arbitrarily high levels of regularization are shown. **B.** 5 miRNAs
highlighted in panel (A) show positive correlations with each other and immune effector transcripts IFNγ,
PRF1, and GZMB. **C.** ROC analysis with miR-155-5p and averaged Hallmark IFNγ response gene set
was performed to test their power in predicting the immune subset of SKCM (binarized as 1 for correct
grouping) over keratin and MITF-low groups (both binarized as 0 for incorrect grouping). AUC values
indicate both predictors are strongly associated with the immune subset, although the IFNγ response
gene set performed better compared to miR-155-5p. **D.** ROC analysis was performed as described in
(C), with the averaged expression of 5 miRNAs (and IFNγ response) as predictors. In this analysis, the
5 miRNA-expression signature performed slightly better than the IFNγ response score for predicting the
immune subset in melanoma. **E.** Gene set enrichment analysis was performed between miR-155-5p-
high and -low subsets of melanoma (categorized at the median expression value) using genome-wide
signal-to-noise ranked (39) transcripts and the KEGG gene sets (37). The top 10 positively and negatively
enriched gene sets are shown in the table where NES>0 indicates enrichment in the miR-155-5p-high
subset, and "padj" shows the Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value to account for multiple comparisons
across the gene set. **F.** Enrichment plot showing the most significantly enriched KEGG gene set in the
miR-155-5p-high melanoma samples where leading-edge genes contributing strongly to the score are
also shown. **G.** Principal component analysis of melanoma samples was performed using 685 genes
associated with the adaptive immune response GO annotation. Samples are categorized at the median
expression of miR-155-5p and color-coded to demonstrate miR-155-5p-high and -low samples in the
PCA space.

 Figure-5

Figure 5. Investigating the associations between miRNAs and immunity markers in cancer im-
munotherapy studies. A-C. Lasso regression was performed using the average expression of MSigDB
Hallmark IFNg response gene set as the response variable and miRNA host genes as predictors in mel-
anoma biopsies prior to immunotherapy. The penalized coefficients (A) and the mean-squared cross-
validation error of penalized models are shown (B). miRNA predictors with positive and negative coeffi-
cients at the lambda value corresponding to within 1 standard error of the minimum cross-validation error
are listed (C). **D.** Scatter plots show the relationship between MIR155HG and cytotoxic T lymphocyte-
specific gene expression in melanoma ICI clinical trial data sets (6, 16, 17, 67). **E.** Gene set enrichment
analysis reveals higher expression of IFNγ-responsive genes in MIR155HG-high melanoma biopsies
prior to ICI therapy. **F-H.** Lasso regression was performed using miRNA host genes as predictors and
the average expression of MSigDB Hallmark IFNγ responsive genes as response variable across pan-
ICI data prepared by integrating 10 different ICI studies comprising of 938 samples prior to treatment.
Feature coefficients (F), mean squared error of the penalized models (G) and the genes with non-zero
coefficients (at minimum lambda + 1 standard error) are shown. **I.** MIR155HG-high biopsies demonstrate
a significant enrichment of IFNγ-response gene signature in the pan-ICI dataset. **J.** The top differentially
enriched pathways are shown for the MIR155HG-high and MIR155HG-low biopsies prior to ICI treatment.

Figure-6

Figure 6. Investigating the associations between miRNAs and immunotherapy response.
A. The higher MIR155HG expression in tumors prior to immune checkpoint inhibition (ICI) corresponds to improved survival in metastatic melanoma. **B.** Boxplot shows MIR155HG expression in tumors responding or refractive to ICI agents. MIR155HG expression is higher in responders in some but not all studies examined. **C-E.** Binomial lasso regression was applied to pre-treatment SKCM immunotherapy studies. In these analyses, a positive response (partial or complete response) is binarized to "1" and no response (progressive disease) is binarized to "0" as the response variable, and miRNA host gene transcripts in the RNAseq data were used as predictors. Regularized coefficients at various levels of lambda (C) and the AUC of the model (D) are shown. Non-zero coefficients were extracted at the lambda value with the highest cross-validated AUC (E). **F.** Performance of MIR155HG and various other gene signatures for predicting ICI response is assessed by the IOSig platform and summarized via the heatmap. The color-coded AUC estimates between 0 and 1 from 12 different cancer clinical trials are shown. **G.** The ROC module of TCGEx was used to assess the potential of MIR155HG and 6-gene IFNγ signatures in predicting response to immunotherapy (complete/partial response vs progressive disease) in data set generated by Gide et al.

 Figure-7

Figure 7. TCGEx identifies a new cytokine signature predicting immunotherapy response in a broad range of cancers. A-C. Binomial elastic net regression (alpha=0.5) was performed using the Pan-ICI data consisting of 938 samples across 10 clinical trials and 4 different tumor types. In these analyses binarized ICI response (CR/PR vs PD) was used as the independent variable, and 238 transcripts associated with cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction (KEGG) were used as independent (i.e. predictor) variables. Regularized coefficients (A), and the AUC of the cross-validated model (B) are shown. Predictors with non-zero coefficients at the smallest value of lambda within the 1 standard error of the maximum AUC of the cross validated model are listed (C). "Cytokine-5" signature is derived from the transcripts with positive coefficients. **D.** The IOSig platform was used to assess the potential of Cytokine-5 and other previously published signatures for predicting immunotherapy response. AUC values ranging between 0 and 1 from various studies are depicted with the color gradient. **E.** The average AUC of the top and bottom signatures are summarized in the graph where the numbers in the circles indicate the number of genes in the signature. **F.** The AUC values of Cytokine-5 and IFNG6 signatures in individual clinical trials are shown across various cancer types. Each point indicates a distinct data set (data were obtained from the IOSig platform). **G.** Boxplot module of TCGEx was used to plot the average expression of Cytokine-5 signature in tumors responding or refractory to ICI agents. Individual samples collected prior to ICI treatment are depicted by points. **H.** Boxplots using the data from melanoma ICI studies demonstrate responder tumors express higher levels of Cytokine-5 signature prior to and during the treatment.

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Figure S1. Expression profiles of subtype-selective genes in melanoma (related to Fig.2). A-B.
Expression of previously reported genes distinguishing melanoma mutational subtypes may show sex-
specific expression patterns. **C.** Other transcripts selectively expressed in mutational subtypes of mela-
noma are shown. T-test p-values are adjusted for multiple comparisons (p<0.0001, "****"; p<0.001, "***";
p<0.01, "**"; p<0.05, "*"; p>0.05, "ns")

Figure S2. Modeling the effects of patient gender on melanoma survival (related to Fig.2). A.
Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of gender groups in SKCM shows non-significant differences, although
male patients tended to have decreased survival in longer follow-up. **B.** Cox proportional hazards survival
analysis of gender effects in SKCM reveals no significant differences between the two groups. However,
the male group has a slightly higher risk of death as seen in the forest plot.

Figure S3. Survival modeling of transcriptomic subsets of melanoma (related to Fig.3). The forest plot shows the hazard ratios of keratin, MITF-low, and unannotated groups in comparison to the immune subset appointed as the reference group. The keratin subset is associated with a statistically significant poor outcome in melanoma compared to the immune subset. MITF-low group tended to have poorer outcomes compared to the immune subset, although this difference was not statistically significant.

Figure S4. Lasso analysis of miRNAs against IFNγ signaling in melanoma (related to Fig.4). A.

Mean-squared cross-validation (CV) error as a factor of increasing model penalty is shown. **B.** miRNA

predictors with positive and negative coefficients at the lambda value corresponding to minimum CV error

+ 1 standard error are shown. **C.** Transcripts with the top positive and negative correlations with miR-

155-5p are shown. **D-E.** TCGEx scatterplot module was used to visualize top correlators of miR-155-5p.

Figure S5. Comparison of the expression levels of mature miRNAs and their host genes (re-

lated to Fig.5). Scatterplots show the strong positive correlation between the host gene transcripts

(RNAseq data) and the mature miRNA levels (miRNAseq data) in tumor biopsies.

Figure S6. Investigating the relationship between immunotherapy response and MIR155HG and other miRNA host genes (related to Fig.6). A. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis demonstrates that higher MIR155HG levels (categorized at median) prior to treatment correspond to improved survival in melanoma patients; however, this trend was more emphasized in non-responders. **B.** Boxplots show the MIR155HG transcript levels in responders and non-responders during or prior to ICI treatment. **C-E.** Binomial lasso was performed using binarized response (CR/PR vs PD) as response variable and 45 miRNA host genes as predictors after low-expression filtering. Regularized coefficients (C), the cross-validated AUC of the penalized model (D), and non-zero coefficients at the minimum value of lambda within 1 standard error of the highest AUC (E) are shown.

Figure S7. Examination of the Cytokine-5 signature as a new marker for immunotherapy response (related to Fig.7). A. The pairwise correlations between various signatures predicting immunotherapy response are depicted in a heatmap (source: IOSig platform). The Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated by using the AUROC values across the studies in the IOSig database. **B.** Pairwise correlations between the Cytokine-5 and IFNG6, IFN18 and Chemokine signatures are plotted. The best fitting line (black) and its equation is shown along with the y=x diagonal line (red) indicating equality. **C.** The boxplots illustrate the average Cytokine-5 signature expression in immunotherapy responders and non-responders across different cancer types.

A

B

Figure S8. Examination of the Cytokine-5 signature across different cancers and immuno-therapy modalities (related to Fig.7). A. The mean AUC values of Cytokine-5 signature was summa-rized for different cancer types (source: IOSig). The number of individual data sets for each cancer type is shown in circles. **B.** The mean AUC values of Cytokine-5 signature was summarized across different treatment modalities (source: IOSig). The numbers indicate the available data sets on the IOSig plat-form as in (A).