Fibroblast Stromal Support Model for Predicting Human Papillomavirus-Associated

Cancer Drug Responses.

Claire D. James[a], Rachel L. Lewis[a], Alexis L. Fakunmoju[a], Austin J. Witt[a], Aya H.

Youssef[a], Xu Wang[a], Nabiha M. Rais[a], Apurva Tadimari Prabhakar[a], Raymonde Otoa[a],

Molly L. Bristol [a,b,#]

[a] Philips Institute for Oral Health Research, School of Dentistry, Virginia Commonwealth

University (VCU), Richmond, Virginia, USA

[b] VCU Massey Comprehensive Cancer Center, Richmond, Virginia, USA

Running Title: Stroma Translational Model for HPV+ Cancer Responses

#Address correspondence to Molly L. Bristol, mlbristol@vcu.edu.

Abstract

Currently, there are no specific antiviral therapeutic approaches targeting Human

papillomaviruses (HPVs), which cause around 5% of all human cancers. Specific antiviral

reagents are particularly needed for HPV-related oropharyngeal cancers (HPV[+]OPCs)

whose incidence is increasing and for which there are no early diagnostic tools available.

We and others have demonstrated that the estrogen receptor alpha (ERα) is overexpressed

in HPV[+]OPCs, compared to HPV-negative cancers in this region, and that these elevated

levels are associated with an improved disease outcome. Utilizing this HPV[+] specific

overexpression profile, we previously demonstrated that estrogen attenuates the growth

and cell viability of HPV$^+$ keratinocytes and HPV$^+$ cancer cells *in vitro*. Expansion of this

work *in vivo* failed to replicate this sensitization. The role of stromal support from the

tumor microenvironment (TME) has previously been tied to both the HPV lifecycle and *in*

vivo therapeutic responses. Our investigations revealed that *in vitro* co-culture with

fibroblasts attenuated HPV$^+$ specific estrogen growth responses. Continuing to monopolize

on the HPV$^+$ specific overexpression of ERα, our co-culture models then assessed the

suitability of the selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), raloxifene and

tamoxifen, and showed growth attenuation in a variety of our models to one or both of

these drugs *in vitro.* Utilization of these SERMs *in vivo* closely resembled the sensitization

predicted by our co-culture models. Therefore, the *in vitro* fibroblast co-culture model

better predicts *in vivo* responses. We propose that utilization of our co-culture *in vitro*

model can accelerate cancer therapeutic drug discovery.

Importance

Human papillomavirus-related cancers (HPV$^+$ cancers) remain a significant public health

concern, and specific clinical approaches are desperately needed. In translating drug

response data from *in vitro* to *in vivo*, the fibroblasts of the adjacent stromal support

network play a key role. Our study presents the utilization of a fibroblast 2D co-culture

system to better predict translational drug assessments for HPV$^+$ cancers. We also suggest

that this co-culture system should be considered for other translational approaches.

Predicting even a portion of treatment paradigms that may fail *in vivo* with a co-culture

model will yield significant time, effort, resource, and cost efficiencies.

Keywords

Estrogen, ERα, stroma, HPV, human papillomavirus, oropharyngeal cancer, Raloxifene,

Tamoxifen, therapeutics

Introduction

Human papillomaviruses (HPVs) are small, double-stranded DNA viruses, and

high-risk HPVs are known carcinogens[1–7]. HPV is the most common sexually transmitted

infection in the United States (U.S.), and estimated to infect more than 80% of the

population at least once in their lifetime[1–3,8–12]. HPV16 is the most prevalent genotype,

accounting for at least 50% of cervical cancers and approximately 90% of HPV[+]

oropharyngeal cancers (HPV[+]OPCs)[9,13,14]. While prophylactic HPV vaccines have already

begun to show remarkable efficacy in preventing infection and related diseases, HPV

continues to account for ~5% of worldwide cancer, and disproportionately affects

marginalized populations both in the U.S. and around the world[1–3,8–12,15–17]. As such, the

lack of specific antiviral therapeutics available for combatting HPV-related cancers is of

significant concern.

While many cancers are on the decline, the last two decades has shown a sharp

increase in HPV[+]OPCs, for which there are no early diagnostic tools available[4–6,18,19].

HPV[+]OPCs are found at 4-fold higher levels in men than in women, suggesting there are

sex-related differences in the development of these cancers[4,18]. Using data from The Cancer

Genome Atlas (TCGA), we and others have shown that the estrogen receptor alpha (ERα)

is overexpressed in HPV[+]HNC (head and neck cancers including OPCs) and that these

elevated levels are associated with an improved disease outcome[18,20–26].

We have also previously demonstrated that 17-β estradiol (estrogen) attenuates the

growth and cell viability of HPV[+] keratinocytes and HPV^{+} cancer cells *in vitro*, but not

HPV negative (HPV⁻) keratinocytes or HPV⁻ cancer cells[26]. Sensitization occurs via

numerous mechanisms: 1) at the level of viral transcription 2) via interactions with E6 and

E7 3) through manipulation of cell survival and cell death pathways[26]. Here, we report that

the expansion of estrogen treatment into *in vivo NOD-scid IL2Rg^null* (NSG) mice revealed

a lack of response to estrogen alone or in combination with radiotherapy (IR).

Previously, estrogen has been shown to promote HPV-induced cervical disease in

immunocompetent mice, yet this enhancement was lost in NSGs[27–32]. HPV oncogenes, in

conjunction with estrogen, were shown to fundamentally reprogram the tumor

microenvironment (TME)[27,28,33]. We therefore sought to determine if the TME, specifically

the stromal support provided by fibroblasts, alters the estrogenic effects in our model

systems[33–42]. *In vitro* co-culture studies revealed that stromal interactions markedly change

cell growth and viability in response to estrogen in our HPV⁺ models.

While our estrogen studies did not prove effective *in vivo*, ERα remains

overexpressed in HPV⁺OPC and HPV⁺ cervical cancers[24–27,29,31–33,43]. Selective estrogen

receptor modulators (SERMs) have proven to provide a multitude of therapeutic

applications[44–50]. Analysis of K14E6/E7 transgenic mice models have previously shown

the possible utility of raloxifene on reduction of recurrence of cervical neoplastic disease,

and earlier literature suggested the utility of tamoxifen to lengthen latent period for cervical

dysplasia and carcinoma in carcinogen-induced models[45,51]. We utilized our co-culture

system to assess the efficacy of raloxifene and tamoxifen and showed significant growth

repression to one or both SERMs in a number of cancer cell lines. Our preliminary

assessment of these SERMs in an *in vivo* HPV⁺HNC cell line correlated with our *in vitro*

observations and suggests that these drugs may be useful adjuvant approaches for further

investigation. To our knowledge, our analysis is the first to provide evidence on the utility

of SERMs for HPV[+]OPCs.

Overall, this report further expands upon the analysis of utilizing estrogen related

signaling in the quest for HPV-specific antiviral approaches[25]. While estrogen presented

compelling evidence *in vitro*, this report demonstrates that estrogen treatment did not

translate to *in vivo* models[26]. The development of co-culture models utilizing fibroblast

"feeder" cells demonstrated that these supporting fibroblasts altered the response to

estrogen *in vitro*, modeling what was observed *in vivo*. Analysis of SERMs with this co-

culture model demonstrated the utility of altering estrogen-related signaling both *in vitro*

and *in vivo*. Therefore, co-culture with fibroblasts offers a simple and more physiologically

relevant environment by stimulating more of the cellular interactions present in solid

tumors. This co-culture model may serve to better predict drug responses in other

translational paradigms, not limited to HPV[+] cancers.   Co-culture allows for an

examination of the complex cellular responses to drug effects *in vivo*, thereby enhancing

the accuracy of *in vitro* therapeutic evaluations for more successful translational

approaches.

Results

Estrogen sensitization is not observed *in vivo*

We have previously reported that estrogen attenuates the growth of epithelial cells

in an HPV[+] dependent manner *in vitro*[26]. We found that this occurred via both a repression

of transcription from the HPV16 long control region and through interactions with the viral

oncogenes, E6 and E7[26]. Furthermore, estrogen treatment enhanced irradiation-induced

cell death in an HPV[+] dependent manner[26]. A logical progression was to assess the response

of HPV[+] cancers to estrogen *in vivo*. Previously, our laboratory as well as others have

demonstrated that HeLa cells are highly responsive to estrogen treatment[26,52,53].

Consequently, experiments were designed to assess the combination of estrogen and

radiation treatment on HeLa xenografts in female NSG mice. Contrary to our *in vitro* data,

Figure 1A shows that estrogen alone, or in combination with radiation, had no impact on

tumor response in mice. Of note, animal weights remained consistent throughout the study

with all treatments (Figure 1B).

Previously, we had observed HPV[+] dependent cell death following estrogen

treatment regardless of sex, tissue of origin, or viral genome integration status[26]. To

determine if any of these factors played a role *in vivo*, we decided to expand our analysis

to include the male, episomal, HPV16^{+} oropharyngeal cancer cell line UMSCC104[54]. In

addition, we added "early" estrogen supplementation that began the same day as xenografts

were injected, to determine if a temporal relationship was essential to the estrogen

treatment response. As our previous radiation treatment using 10 Gy had some off-target

effects in our NSGs, radiation was reduced to 5 Gy in these studies. As observed in Figure

1C (animal weight Figure 1D), estrogen again had no impact on tumor response in any of

these conditions. These results complement the previous observations by the Lambert

laboratory utilizing MmuPV1[27]. The Lambert observations demonstrated that estrogenic

effects *in vivo* are reliant, at least in part, on estrogen's suppression of the host immune

system in immunocompetent mice; whereas estrogenic alterations in disease progression

were not observed in immunodeficient NSG mice[27].

Stroma alters HPV-specific estrogen growth response in keratinocyte models

There are numerous differences when moving from *in vitro* to *in vivo* models. An

increasingly recognized component of *in vivo* responses is the adjacent stromal support

network, or "tumor microenvironment" (TME)[33,55,56]. In regard to HPV, evidence also

supports a significant role for stroma during the viral lifecycle and HPV-induced disease

[33,39,41,42]. Fibroblasts are a key component of this stromal support and can significantly alter

cancer resistance and therapeutic responses[33–42]. We already utilize feeder layers of

mitomycin C (MMC) growth-arrested murine 3T3-J2 fibroblasts (referred to as J2s moving

forward) in the immortalization and maintenance of our primary keratinocyte derived

HPV$^+$ epithelial cultures. Thus, we applied the same approach to investigate whether this

co-culture system affects the response to estrogen. MMC inactivation is a supported

approach to arrest the proliferation of fibroblasts, allowing for the establishment of a

supportive feeder layer that maintains its ability to synthesize RNA and protein and provide

stromal regulation of neighboring cells of interest[57]. This approach is widely accepted as

necessary for maintenance of the HPV genome, as well as a necessary component of 3D

models for HPV lifecycle analysis[58–64]. N/Tert-1 cells (telomerase immortalized foreskin

keratinocytes, HPV negative), as well as HFK+E6E7 (foreskin keratinocytes immortalized

by the viral oncogenes only), and HFK$^+$HPV16 (foreskin keratinocytes immortalized by

the entire HPV16 genome, replicating as an episome), were cultured in the presence or

absence of J2 cells, and treated with 15µM estrogen, or vehicle control[26]. Compared to

untreated, non-cocultured N/Tert-1 cells, no significant alterations in growth rate were

observed following estrogen treatment or co-culture with J2s (Figure 2A). Conversely,

estrogen significantly repressed the growth of both the E6E7 and HPV16 immortalized cell

lines in the absence of stromal support (Figure 2B and 2C, respectively). The presence of

stromal support fibroblasts significantly rescued this growth suppression (Figure 2B and

2C); coculture with fibroblasts mitigates the growth suppressive effects of estrogen, *in*

vitro. This implies that the presence of stromal support is responsible for the differences in

response to estrogen treatment that we observed between our *in vitro* and *in vivo* models

(Figure 1)[26].

Stroma alters HPV-specific estrogen growth response in cancer models

We sought to expand our co-culture investigations to include cancer lines. A

hallmark of transformation in many cancer cell lines is anchorage independent growth and

loss of adherence in cell culture[65]. To improve our cancer cell count analysis, we developed

a novel, quantifiable co-culture system. Using the Nuclight lentivirus system (Sartorius),

we transduced our cells of interest with nuclear mKate2-red and developed stable cell lines;

this system enabled automated cell counting and could distinguish between our cells of

interest and the non-labeled J2s. An additional advantage of this system was the ability to

monitor cellular morphology and observe any co-culture influences upon colony formation

and cellular distribution. We sought to determine whether J2s alter cancer cell line

responses to estrogen, as observed in our keratinocyte models (Figure 2). We utilized four

cancer cell lines in our co-culture experiments: HN30 – an HPV[-] head and neck cancer

(p53wt), HeLa – an HPV18^{+} integrated cervical cancer (p53wt), UMSCC47 – an HPV16^{+}

integrated head and neck cancer (p53wt), and UMSCC104 – an HPV16^{+} episomal head

and neck cancer (p53wt). As HeLa cells are highly sensitive to estrogen, 1.5μM estrogen

was utilized in experiments with these cells; all other cell lines were treated with 15μM as

previously described[26,52]. As previously shown, estrogen treatment significantly repressed

cell growth in an HPV[+] dependent manner (Figures 3A-D)[26]. Conversely, estrogenic

sensitivity was no longer observed in HPV^{+} cancer cells grown with feeder cells (Figures

3E-H). This was similar to the loss of estrogenic sensitivity in our HPV[+] keratinocytes

(Figure 2), and in our mouse studies (Figure 1A, and 1C). Again, demonstrating that

stromal support alters estrogenic sensitivity of HPV[+] cancer models.

Stroma alters HPV long control region (LCR) transcriptional regulation

We previously published that estrogen represses transcription of the HPV16 long

control region (LCR) both in our N/Tert-1 and C33a transcription models[26]. This

transcriptional repression of the LCR, in turn, downregulated the expression of early viral

genes in our numerous HPV[+] keratinocyte and HPV[+] cancer models[26]. Expanding upon

these previous observations, we further wanted to determine the impact of stromal support

on estrogenic HPV16-LCR transcriptional regulation. N/Tert-1 cells grown in the presence

of stromal support had significantly enhanced levels of HPV16-LCR transcription and this

transcriptional regulation was no longer significantly repressed by estrogen (Figure 4A);

this may be one of the many contributing factors involved in the loss of estrogen sensitivity.

ERα was also assessed, and stroma did not appear to alter protein expression in N/Tert-1

cells (Figure 4B). These results suggest that stroma is highly supportive of HPV16-LCR

transcriptional regulation.

Selective estrogen receptor modulators reduce growth rates *in vitro* and *in vivo*

While estrogen had no impact on the tumor response in mice, alone or in

combination with radiation (Figure 1), we expanded our analysis to assess if the selective

estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) raloxifene or tamoxifen would be a useful approach

to continue to take advantage of the HPV[+] specific overexpression of ERα. It should be

noted that SERMs can be agonists or antagonists of the ERα, and these responses are

dependent on region, cell type, and the localization and availability of estrogen response

elements (EREs)[44,46,47,66]. There is some preclinical data on the value of SERMs for

cervical cancer, but these effects have yet to be evaluated in HPV⁺OPC[47,66].

HeLa, UMSCC47, and UMSCC104 HPV⁺ cancer cells grown without fibroblast

support exhibited significant growth repression to both SERMs (Figures 5A-C). While

fibroblast support did not alter the response to SERMs in all the cell lines, rescued growth

was observed in HeLa cells treated with tamoxifen while remaining responsive to

raloxifene (Figures 5D-F). It is worth noting that previous *in vivo* and clinical analysis have

predicted the utility of raloxifene in HPV⁺ cervical cancer response, whereas tamoxifen is

not recommended[45–47,51,66]. We therefore sought to analyze SERM responsiveness in an

HPV⁺HNC *in vivo* model. Expansion of SERM treatment *in vivo* was therefore conducted

in UMSCC104 cells alone or in combination with IR to assess their utility as well as

determine if our co-culture model could be useful in future translational approaches. For

this study, 4 Gy IR was chosen to further reduce the off-target issues relating to radiation

use in NSGs[67]. As observed in Figure 6A, radiation alone significantly reduced tumor

volume starting on Day 14, while raloxifene (Figure 6A) and tamoxifen alone (Figure 6B)

were able to significantly reduce tumor volume starting on Day 32. Furthermore, in

comparison to radiation (IR) alone, tamoxifen+IR significantly reduced tumor volume

starting on Day 42 (Figure 6B). Kaplan-Meier survival analysis demonstrated 50% survival

for tamoxifen+IR on day 70 in comparison to 10% survival at the same time point for IR

alone or raloxifene+IR at our chosen endpoint (Figure 6C). With all treatments, animal

weights remained consistent throughout the study (Figure 6D). Our *in vitro* co-culture

system modeled our *in vivo* responses, as well as those previously observed, to both

estrogen and SERMs in HPV[+] cervical *in vivo* models (Figure 1,3,5) [27,32,43,45–47,51,66]. Co-

culture also predicted the responsiveness of SERMs in an HPV[+]HNC *in vivo* model (Figure

5,6) and suggests that the utility of SERMs for the treatment of HPV[+]OPC are worth further

investigation. Altogether, we suggest that the predictiveness of this co-culture system

should be considered in more translational approaches. Current studies are investigating

the molecular mechanisms behind the alterations observed when cells are grown in

fibroblast co-culture. These mechanistic approaches may further expand the predictive

utility of our co-culture model.

Discussion

We previously established that estrogen attenuates the growth of HPV[+]

keratinocyte and cancer cell lines in both an LCR and E6E7 dependent manner[25,26]. Of

note, when these studies were conducted, we did not supplement fibroblast support during

drug treatment[26]. Conversely, when estrogen was utilized to treat HPV[+] xenografts in NSG

mice, responsiveness was no longer observed (Figure 1). This data is supportive of previous

observations by the Lambert laboratory[27]. As NSG mice possess a significantly

compromised immune system, we then sought to investigate the role that stromal support

may play in the altered responsiveness to estrogen when moving from *in vitro* to *in vivo*

models. In doing so, we found that there is an HPV-specific change in response to estrogen

when comparing co-culture to non-fibroblast conditions (Figure 2,3). We find that this

response is, at least in part, HPV16 LCR dependent; however, there are likely other

mechanisms at play (Figure 4). The mechanisms behind these stromal alterations are

currently under investigation in our laboratory and will be the subject of future reports.

From a viral point of view, anecdotally, the HPV field has known that J2s are

crucial to the culture of primary keratinocytes for the maintenance of viral genome

stability[68–70]. Expanding the accepted fibroblast co-culture system for HPV[+] primary

keratinocytes, our data demonstrates that this model promotes translational utility. When

keratinocytes or cancer cells were grown in this co-culture system, *in vivo* results were

more predictable. These models allowed for us to translate our estrogen results into

estrogen pathway targeting drugs. Previous studies have highlighted the potential utility of

SERMs in HPV[+] cervical cancers[45,46,48,66]. We have expanded SERM analysis from

cervical cancer to oropharyngeal cancer. We now demonstrate that SERMs may present

clinical applicability as adjuvant approaches in HPV[+]OPC and future investigations are

warranted. While our observations apply both to primary keratinocytes and cancer models

of HPV, we are currently in collaboration to expand analysis in other cancer treatment

models. Nevertheless, stroma is recognized to contribute to the response to therapeutics

and the development of resistance, and we conclude that it should be more often considered

in future translational approaches[33,35,39,40,71].

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture

HN30 (generous gift from Hisashi Harada, VCU Philips Institute), UMSCC47 (Millipore;

Burlington, MA, USA), and HeLa (generous gift from Alison McBride, NIAID) cells were

grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA, USA)

supplemented with 10% charcoal/dextran stripped fetal bovine serum (Gemini Bio-

products; West Sacramento, CA, USA). UMSCC104 (Millipore) cells were grown in

Eagle's minimum essential medium (EMEM) (Invitrogen) supplemented with nonessential

amino acids (NEAA) (Gibco) and 20% charcoal/dextran stripped fetal bovine serum.

N/Tert-1 cells and all derived cell lines have been described previously and were

maintained in keratinocyte-serum free medium (K-SFM; Invitrogen), supplemented with a

1% (vol/vol) PenStrep (Gibco) and previously described antibiotics[20–22,72–77]. HFK+HPV16

have been previously described and were grown in Dermalife-K complete media (Lifeline

Technology), and maintained on inactivated fibroblast feeder cells (described below)[78].

HFK+E6/E7 were grown in Dermalife-K complete media (Lifeline Technology), and

maintained on inactivated fibroblast feeder cells (described below); the immortalization

process is described below. For all cells not directly purchased from companies, the cell

type was confirmed by Johns Hopkins or MD Anderson cell line authentication services,

and the cells were maintained at 37°C in a 5% CO_2–95% air atmosphere, passaged every

3 or 4 days, and routinely monitored for mycoplasma (Sigma, MP0035).

Flank xenografts for *in vivo* drug trials

HeLa and UMSCC104 cells were stably transduced with a lentiviral vector for pLX304

Luciferase-V5 blast (generous gift from Renfeng Li, originally obtained from Kevin Janes,

Addgene plasmid # 98580)[79]. Cell lines were selected with 10µg/ml blasticidin. Expression

was verified with bioluminescent imaging, further outlined and defined in transcriptional

activity analysis method detailed below.

Xenografting was performed using previously described methodology, in collaboration

with the Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) Cancer Mouse Models Core

Laboratory (CMMC)[80,81]. All experiments were conducted in accordance with animal

protocol AD10002330 approved by VCU Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

NOD-SCID-IL2γ receptor null (NSG) mice (6-8 weeks old) were injected with 1×10^6 cells

suspended in PBS and Cultrex™ basement membrane extracts (BME) (Bio-techne/R&D

Systems) into the right flank. HeLa studies were conducted in female mice; UMSCC104

studies were conducted in male mice (chosen to mimic sex from human donors). Days 1-

3 post-xenograft and at varying times throughout the studies, bioluminescence imaging

was performed using a Xenogen IVIS-100 system (Calipers Life Sciences, Hopkinton,

MA) to verify xenograft establishment, growth, and possible metastasis based on

previously established protocols[82]. Tumor volume was also measured on noted dates and

calculated as V =AB2 (π/6), where A is the longest dimension of the tumor, and B is the

dimension of the tumor perpendicular to A. Data points presented on the graph are

representative for each condition while more than 70% of the animals remained in each

group. HeLa cells were palpable on day 10, UMSCC104 cells were palpable on day 7. It

should be noted that UMSCC104 xenografts are prone to ulceration. Animals were

humanely euthanized when ulcerations were observed.

NSG estrogen delivery

A combinational approach for estrogen delivery was based on modified protocols designed

in collaboration with the source of our obtained control and estrogen beeswax pellets

(0.4mg estrogen, Huntsman Cancer Institute, University of Utah)[83,84]. Estrogen was also

delivered in drinking water using a protocol kindly shared online by the Wicha lab[85].

Briefly, a 2.7 mg/mL stock of 17-estradiol (Sigma # E2758) in ethanol was diluted to a

final concentration of 8 μg/mL in sterile drinking water. Pellets (control or estrogen) were

implanted after tumors were palpable. Drinking water supplementation also began at this

time point. "Early estrogen" in UMSCC104 denotes that water estrogen supplementation

began the same day as xenograft injections (pellets were still implanted when tumors

became palpable on day 7).

NSG SERM delivery

Treatment of mice with Raloxifene was performed as previously described by the Lambert

Laboratory[45,66]. The human formulation of raloxifene hydrochloride (60mg tablets;

EVISTA; Eli Lilly) were purchased from Virginia Commonwealth University Health

System Pharmacy. Tablets were resuspended in PBS for a final concentration of 10 mg/ml.

Mice were administered a 150 µl drug suspension (equivalent to 1.5 mg) via i.p. injection.

Treatment of Tamoxifen was performed as previously described[86]. Tamoxifen (Sigma, T-

5648) was resuspended in corn oil (Sigma C-8267) at 37°C for a final concentration of 10

mg/ml. Mice were administered 100 µl drug suspension (equivalent to 1.0 mg) via i.p.

injection. SERM treatments began after tumors were palpable. Mice received treatment 5

days a week for 4 weeks, for a total of 20 injections.

Small Animal Radiation Research Platform (SARRP) ionizing radiation delivery

1 day following pellet implantation to allow for mouse recovery, targeted ionizing radiation

(IR) was delivered utilizing the Xstrahal SARRP. HeLa studies utilized 10 Gy. Due to the

radiation sensitivity of NSG mice, UMSCC104 studies reduced IR dose to 5 Gy, and finally

to 4 Gy.

Culture and mitomycin C (MMC) inactivation of 3T3-J2 mouse feeder cells

3T3-J2 immortalized mouse fibroblasts (J2) were grown in DMEM and supplemented with

10% FBS. 80-90% confluent plates were supplemented with 4µg/ml of MMC in DMSO

(Cell Signaling Technology) for 4-6 hours at 37°C. MMC-supplemented medium was

removed and cells were washed with 1xPBS. Cells were trypsinized, spun down at 500 rcf

for 5 mins, washed once with 1xPBS, spun again, and resuspended. Quality control of

inactivation (lack of proliferation) was monitored for each new batch of mitomycin-C. 100-

mm plate conditions were supplemented with 1×10^6 J2 and 6-well plate conditions were

supplemented with 1×10^5 every 2-3 days; for longer term cultures, any remaining J2s were

washed off with 1x PBS and new J2 were continually supplemented every 2-3 days.

Generation of E6E7-immortalized keratinocytes

Primary keratinocytes from single donors were obtained from LifeLine Cell

Technologies[78]. Cells were cultured on collagen-coated plates for lentiviral delivery of

HPV16 E6E7, using the pLXSN16E6E7 plasmid (Addgene plasmid # 52394, a gift from

Denise Galloway)[87]. Following selection with G418 (72mM), cells were cultured on

mitomycin-C inactivated 3T3-J2 fibroblasts. HFKs were cultured in DermaLife-K

Complete media (LifeLine Cell Technologies) and E6E7 expression was confirmed by

qRTPCR. Of note, these cells were generated at the same time and utilizing the same

donors as the previously described HFK-HPV16[78].

Co-culture of keratinocytes in the presence or absence of inactivated fibroblasts

N/Tert-1, HFK E6E7, or HFK HPV16 cells were seeded at 5×10^5 in 100-mm plates in the

presence or absence of previously seeded J2s (at least 6 hours prior). Twenty-four hours

later, noted cells were supplemented with 15 µM 17β-estradiol (estrogen). Forty-eight

hours after estrogen supplementation, plates were washed to remove residual J2 and cells

were trypsinized and counted. Pellets from these experiments were utilized for subsequent

immunoblotting analysis detailed below.

Generation of stable nuclear labeled cells with Incucyte® Nuclight Lentivirus

mKate2 Incucyte® Nuclight Lentivirus (puro) cells were generated according to the

Sartorius product guide protocol (Sartorius cat# 4476), using a MOI of 3 or 6, depending

on cell type. Cells generated were maintained in 1µg/ml puromycin supplemented media.

Fluorescence was routinely monitored by BZ-X TexasRed filter via the Keyence BZ-X800

inverted fluorescence microscope.

Co-culture of nuclear-labeled cancer cell lines in the presence or absence of

inactivated fibroblasts

Stable mKate2-puro HeLa, UMSCC47, UMSCC104, or HN30 cells were seeded in

triplicate at $1x10^4$ per well in 6-well plates in the presence or absence of previously seeded

J2 cells (at least 6 hours prior). Twenty-four hours after seeding, day 0 images were

captured in brightfield and TexasRed with the Keyence BZ-X800 Image Cytometer. Noted

drugs were supplemented immediately after this initial imaging: 1.5µM (HeLa) or 15 µM

17β-estradiol (Sigma), 10µM Tamoxifen (MP Biomedicals), or 10µM Raloxifene

(Cayman Chemical Company). Cytometry images were again captured on day 1 and day

3. UMSCC104 were washed on day 3 after imaging, new J2 and drug were supplemented,

and additional images were captured on day 5 and 7. Ten fields of view were randomized

per well for all conditions. Cell count image cytometry batch analysis was performed using

the Keyence BZ-X800 Image Analyzer software. All conditions utilized set analysis

conditions from a single randomized control image and applied to all data points

automatically to reduce variability and bias. Data is presented as fold of control from day

0. Representative images are presented as Supplemental Figure 1.

Immunoblotting

Specified cells were washed with 1X PBS and trypsinized. Pellets were washed with 1X

PBS and resuspended in 5X packed cell volume of NP40 buffer (50mM Tris-HCl Ph 7.5,

150mM NaCl, 1%NP-40, 5mM EDTA) supplemented with Roche cOmplete protease

inhibitor and Roche PhosSTOP phosphatase inhibitor. Cell-lysis buffer suspension was

incubated on ice for 30 min with occasional agitation, then centrifuged for 15 min at 14,000

rcf at 4 °C. Supernatant protein concentration was measured via the Bio-Rad protein

estimation assay according to manufacturer's instructions. 100 μg protein samples were

heated at 95 °C in 4x Laemmli sample buffer (Bio-Rad) for 5 min. Noted samples were run

down a Novex 4–12% Tris-glycine gel (Invitrogen) and transferred onto a nitrocellulose

membrane (Bio-Rad) at 30V overnight, or 100V for 1 hour using the wet-blot transfer

method. Membranes were blocked with Odyssey (PBS) blocking buffer (diluted 1:1 with

1X PBS) at room temperature for 1 hour and probed with indicated primary antibody

diluted in Odyssey blocking buffer. Membranes were washed with PBS supplemented with

0.1% Tween (PBS-Tween) and probed with the indicated Odyssey secondary antibody

1:10,000 (goat anti-mouse IRdye 800CW or goat anti-rabbit IRdye 680CW) diluted in

Odyssey blocking buffer. Membranes were washed three times with PBS-Tween and an

additional wash with 1X PBS. Infrared imaging of the blot was performed using the

Odyssey CLx Li-Cor imaging system. Immunoblots were quantified using ImageJ

utilizing GAPDH as the internal loading control. The following primary antibodies were

used for immunoblotting in this study at 1:1000: ERα (Abcam, ab32063), GAPDH

1:10,000 (Santa Cruz, sc-47724)

Transfection and transcriptional activity analysis.

N/Tert-1 cells were plated at a density of 5×10^5 in 100-mm dishes. The following day, the

previously described plasmids for pGL3 basic, pGL3 control, or pHPV16-LCR-Luc were

transfected Lipofectamine 2000 (according to the manufacturer's instructions,

ThermoFisher Scientific). Twenty-four hours after transfection, cells were washed, and

noted cells were supplemented with 15 µM 17β-estradiol; J2s were also supplemented at

this time point for noted conditions to reduce likelihood of altered transfection efficiency.

Forty-eight hours after transfection, cells were harvested utilizing Promega reporter lysis

buffer and analyzed for luciferase using the Promega luciferase assay system.

Concentrations were normalized to protein levels, as measured by the Bio-Rad protein

assay dye. Relative fluorescence units (RFU) were measured using the BioTek Synergy H1

hybrid reader.

Reproducibility, research integrity, and statistical analysis

All *in vitro* experiments were carried out at least in triplicate in all of the cell lines indicated.

All cell lines were bought directly from sources indicated, or typed via cell line

authentication services. All images shown are representatives from triplicate experiments.

In vivo experiments were designed in collaboration with the VCU Massey Cancer Center

animal core and biostats core for sample size justification and statistical power analysis.

Quantification is presented as mean +/- standard error (SE). Student's t-test was used to

determine significance: * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the VCU Philips Institute for Oral Health Research, the

National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research/NIH/DHHS R03 DE029548, and

the National Cancer Institute-designated Massey Cancer Center grant P30 CA016059.

Mouse services and products in support of the research project were generated by the

Virginia Commonwealth University Cancer Mouse Models Core Laboratory, supported, in

part, with funding from NIH-NCI Cancer Center Support Grant P30 CA016059.

434 References

1.   Brianti, P., De Flammineis, E. & Mercuri, S. R. Review of HPV-related diseases

and cancers. *New Microbiol.* **40**, 80–85 (2017).

2.   de Martel, C., Plummer, M., Vignat, J. & Franceschi, S. Worldwide burden of

cancer attributable to HPV by site, country and HPV type. *Int. J. Cancer* **141**, 664–

670 (2017).

3.   McBride, A. A. & Münger, K. Expert Views on HPV Infection. *Viruses* **10**, 94

(2018).

4.   Marur, S., D'Souza, G., Westra, W. H. & Forastiere, A. A. HPV-associated head

and neck cancer: a virus-related cancer epidemic. *Lancet Oncol.* **11**, 781–789

(2010).

5.   Lowy, D. R. & Munger, K. Prognostic implications of HPV in oropharyngeal

cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **363**, 82–84 (2010).

6.   Sheedy, T. & Heaton, C. HPV-associated oropharyngeal cancer. *Jaapa* **32**, 26–31

(2019).

7.   Porter, V. L. & Marra, M. A. The Drivers, Mechanisms, and Consequences of

Genome Instability in HPV-Driven Cancers. *Cancers* **14**, 4623 (2022).

8.   Chesson, H. W., Dunne, E. F., Hariri, S. & Markowitz, L. E. The estimated lifetime

probability of acquiring human papillomavirus in the United States. *Sex. Transm.*

Dis. **41**, 660–664 (2014).

9.   Kang, S. D. *et al.* Effect of Productive Human Papillomavirus 16 Infection on

Global Gene Expression in Cervical Epithelium. *J. Virol.* **92**, e01261-18 (2018).

10.   McLaughlin-Drubin, M. E. & Meyers, C. Evidence for the coexistence of two

genital HPV types within the same host cell in vitro. *Virology* **321**, 173–180 (2004).

11.   McLaughlin-Drubin, M. E. & Münger, K. Oncogenic activities of human

papillomaviruses. *Virus Res.* **143**, 195–208 (2009).

12.   McLaughlin-Drubin, M. E., Meyers, J. & Munger, K. Cancer associated human

papillomaviruses. *Curr. Opin. Virol.* **2**, 459–466 (2012).

13.   zur Hausen, H. Papillomaviruses in the causation of human cancers - a brief

historical account. *Virology* **384**, 260–265 (2009).

14.   Psyrri, A. & DiMaio, D. Human papillomavirus in cervical and head-and-neck

cancer. *Nat. Clin. Pract. Oncol.* **5**, 24–31 (2008).

15.   Huh, W. K. *et al.* Final efficacy, immunogenicity, and safety analyses of a nine-

valent human papillomavirus vaccine in women aged 16–26 years: a randomised,

double-blind trial. *The Lancet* **390**, 2143–2159 (2017).

16.   Kavanagh, K. *et al.* Changes in the prevalence of human papillomavirus following a

national bivalent human papillomavirus vaccination programme in Scotland: a 7-

year cross-sectional study. *Lancet Infect. Dis.* **17**, 1293–1302 (2017).

17.   Meeting, I. W. G. on the E. of C. R. to H. & Cancer, I. A. for R. on. *Human

Papillomaviruses*. (World Health Organization, 2007).

18.   Sung, H. *et al.* Global Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence

and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 185 Countries. *CA. Cancer J. Clin.* **71**,

209–249 (2021).

19. Roman, B. R. & Aragones, A. Epidemiology and incidence of HPV-related cancers

of the head and neck. *J. Surg. Oncol.* **124**, 920–922 (2021).

20. Nulton, T. J., Olex, A. L., Dozmorov, M., Morgan, I. M. & Windle, B. Analysis of

The Cancer Genome Atlas sequencing data reveals novel properties of the human

papillomavirus 16 genome in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Oncotarget*

8, 17684–17699 (2017).

21. Evans, M. R. *et al.* An oral keratinocyte life cycle model identifies novel host

genome regulation by human papillomavirus 16 relevant to HPV positive head and

neck cancer. *Oncotarget* **8**, 81892–81909 (2017).

22. Evans, M. R. *et al.* Human Papillomavirus 16 E2 Regulates Keratinocyte Gene

Expression Relevant to Cancer and the Viral Life Cycle. *J. Virol.* **93**, e01941-18

(2019).

23. Nulton, T. J., Kim, N.-K., DiNardo, L. J., Morgan, I. M. & Windle, B. Patients with

integrated HPV16 in head and neck cancer show poor survival. *Oral Oncol.* **80**, 52–

55 (2018).

24. Kano, M. *et al.* Expression of estrogen receptor alpha is associated with

pathogenesis and prognosis of human papillomavirus-positive oropharyngeal

cancer. *Int. J. Cancer* **145**, 1547–1557 (2019).

25. James, C. D., Morgan, I. M. & Bristol, M. L. The Relationship between Estrogen-

Related Signaling and Human Papillomavirus Positive Cancers. *Pathog. Basel*

Switz. **9**, 403 (2020).

26. Bristol, M. L., James, C. D., Wang, X., Fontan, C. T. & Morgan, I. M. Estrogen

Attenuates the Growth of Human Papillomavirus-Positive Epithelial Cells. *mSphere*

5, e00049-20 (2020).

27. Wang, W. *et al.* Stress keratin 17 and estrogen support viral persistence and

modulate the immune environment during cervicovaginal murine papillomavirus

infection. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **120**, e2214225120 (2023).

28. Spurgeon, M. E. *et al.* Human papillomavirus oncogenes reprogram the cervical

cancer microenvironment independently of and synergistically with estrogen. *Proc.*

Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. **114**, E9076–E9085 (2017).

29. Chung, S.-H., Wiedmeyer, K., Shai, A., Korach, K. S. & Lambert, P. F.

Requirement for estrogen receptor alpha in a mouse model for human

papillomavirus-associated cervical cancer. *Cancer Res.* **68**, 9928–9934 (2008).

30. Jabbar, S. F., Abrams, L., Glick, A. & Lambert, P. F. Persistence of high-grade

cervical dysplasia and cervical cancer requires the continuous expression of the

human papillomavirus type 16 E7 oncogene. *Cancer Res.* **69**, 4407–4414 (2009).

31. Son, J., Park, J. W., Lambert, P. F. & Chung, S.-H. Requirement of estrogen

receptor alpha DNA-binding domain for HPV oncogene-induced cervical

carcinogenesis in mice. *Carcinogenesis* **35**, 489–496 (2014).

32. Chung, S.-H., Franceschi, S. & Lambert, P. F. Estrogen and ERalpha: culprits in

cervical cancer? *Trends Endocrinol. Metab. TEM* **21**, 504–511 (2010).

33. Spurgeon, M. E. & Lambert, P. F. Human Papillomavirus and the Stroma:

Bidirectional Crosstalk during the Virus Life Cycle and Carcinogenesis. *Viruses* **9**,

219 (2017).

34. Jensen, C. & Teng, Y. Is It Time to Start Transitioning From 2D to 3D Cell Culture?

Front. Mol. Biosci. **7**, (2020).

35. Alkasalias, T., Moyano-Galceran, L., Arsenian-Henriksson, M. & Lehti, K.

Fibroblasts in the Tumor Microenvironment: Shield or Spear? *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **19**,

1532 (2018).

36. Truffi, M., Sorrentino, L. & Corsi, F. Fibroblasts in the Tumor Microenvironment.

Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. **1234**, 15–29 (2020).

37. Monteran, L. & Erez, N. The Dark Side of Fibroblasts: Cancer-Associated

Fibroblasts as Mediators of Immunosuppression in the Tumor Microenvironment.

Front. Immunol. **10**, (2019).

38. Mao, X. *et al.* Crosstalk between cancer-associated fibroblasts and immune cells in

the tumor microenvironment: new findings and future perspectives. *Mol. Cancer* **20**,

131 (2021).

39. De Nola, R., Loizzi, V., Cicinelli, E. & Cormio, G. Dynamic crosstalk within the

tumor microenvironment of uterine cervical carcinoma: baseline network, iatrogenic

alterations, and translational implications. *Crit. Rev. Oncol. Hematol.* **162**, 103343

(2021).

40. Han, L. *et al.* Senescent Stromal Cells Promote Cancer Resistance through SIRT1

Loss-Potentiated Overproduction of Small Extracellular Vesicles. *Cancer Res.* **80**,

3383–3398 (2020).

41. Barros, M. R. *et al.* Activities of stromal and immune cells in HPV-related cancers.

J. Exp. Clin. Cancer Res. **37**, 137 (2018).

42. Raikhy, G. *et al.* Suppression of Stromal Interferon Signaling by Human

Papillomavirus 16. *J. Virol.* **93**, 10.1128/jvi.00458-19 (2019).

43. Chung, S.-H., Shin, M. K., Korach, K. S. & Lambert, P. F. Requirement for Stromal

Estrogen Receptor Alpha in Cervical Neoplasia. *Horm. Cancer* **4**, 50–59 (2013).

44. Martinkovich, S., Shah, D., Planey, S. L. & Arnott, J. A. Selective estrogen receptor

modulators: tissue specificity and clinical utility. *Clin. Interv. Aging* **9**, 1437–1452

(2014).

45. Spurgeon, M. E., Chung, S.-H. & Lambert, P. F. Recurrence of cervical cancer in

mice after selective estrogen receptor modulator therapy. *Am. J. Pathol.* **184**, 530–

540 (2014).

46. Munger, K. Are selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) a therapeutic

option for HPV-associated cervical lesions and cancers? *Am. J. Pathol.* **184**, 358–

361 (2014).

47. Castle, P. E. Do Selective Estrogen Receptor Modulators Treat Cervical Precancer

and Cancer? Time to Pool Data from Relevant Trials. *Int. J. Cancer J. Int. Cancer*

128, 997–998 (2011).

48. Patel, H. K. & Bihani, T. Selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) and

selective estrogen receptor degraders (SERDs) in cancer treatment. *Pharmacol.*

Ther. **186**, 1–24 (2018).

49. Johnston, S. R. Endocrine manipulation in advanced breast cancer: recent advances

with SERM therapies. *Clin. Cancer Res. Off. J. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* **7**, 4376s–

4387s; discussion 4411s-4412s (2001).

50. Moshi, M. R. *et al.* The Clinical Effectiveness of Denosumab (Prolia®) for the

Treatment of Osteoporosis in Postmenopausal Women, Compared to

Bisphosphonates, Selective Estrogen Receptor Modulators (SERM), and Placebo: A

Systematic Review and Network Meta-Analysis. *Calcif. Tissue Int.* **112**, 631–646

(2023).

51. Sengupta, A., Dutta, S. & Mallick, R. Modulation of Cervical Carcinogenesis by

Tamoxifen in a Mouse Model System. *Oncology* **48**, 258–261 (2009).

52. Li, D. *et al.* Estrogen-Related Hormones Induce Apoptosis by Stabilizing Schlafen-

12 Protein Turnover. *Mol. Cell* **75**, 1103-1116.e9 (2019).

53. Liu, Y., Tian, L.-B., Yang, H.-Y. & Zhang, H.-P. Effects of estradiol and

progesterone on the growth of HeLa cervical cancer cells. *Eur. Rev. Med.*

Pharmacol. Sci. **21**, 3959–3965 (2017).

54. Tang, A. L. *et al.* UM-SCC-104: a new human papillomavirus-16 containing head

and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell line. *Head Neck* **34**, 1480–1491 (2012).

55. Bożyk, A., Wojas-Krawczyk, K., Krawczyk, P. & Milanowski, J. Tumor

Microenvironment—A Short Review of Cellular and Interaction Diversity. *Biology*

11, 929 (2022).

56. Jin, M.-Z. & Jin, W.-L. The updated landscape of tumor microenvironment and drug

repurposing. *Signal Transduct. Target. Ther.* **5**, 1–16 (2020).

57. Doorbar, J. *et al.* The biology and life-cycle of human papillomaviruses. *Vaccine* **30**

Suppl 5, F55-70 (2012).

58. Psyrri, A. & DiMaio, D. Human papillomavirus in cervical and head-and-neck

cancer. *Nat. Clin. Pract. Oncol.* **5**, 24–31 (2008).

59. Huh, W. K. *et al.* Final efficacy, immunogenicity, and safety analyses of a nine-
valent human papillomavirus vaccine in women aged 16–26 years: a randomised,
double-blind trial. *The Lancet* **390**, 2143–2159 (2017).

60. Kavanagh, K. *et al.* Changes in the prevalence of human papillomavirus following a
national bivalent human papillomavirus vaccination programme in Scotland: a 7-
year cross-sectional study. *Lancet Infect. Dis.* **17**, 1293–1302 (2017).

61. Meeting, I. W. G. on the E. of C. R. to H. & Cancer, I. A. for R. on. *Human*
Papillomaviruses. (World Health Organization, 2007).

62. Vats, A., Trejo-Cerro, O., Thomas, M. & Banks, L. Human papillomavirus E6 and
E7: What remains? *Tumour Virus Res.* **11**, 200213 (2021).

63. The Expression of HPV E6/E7 mRNA In Situ Hybridization in HP... : International
Journal of Gynecological Pathology.
https://journals.lww.com/intjgynpathology/Fulltext/2023/01000/The_Expression_of
_HPV_E6_E7_mRNA_In_Situ.2.aspx.

64. Basukala, O. & Banks, L. The Not-So-Good, the Bad and the Ugly: HPV E5, E6
and E7 Oncoproteins in the Orchestration of Carcinogenesis. *Viruses* **13**, 1892
(2021).

65. Comprehensive understanding of anchorage-independent survival and its
implication in cancer metastasis | Cell Death & Disease.
https://www.nature.com/articles/s41419-021-03890-7.

66. Chung, S.-H. & Lambert, P. F. Prevention and treatment of cervical cancer in mice
using estrogen receptor antagonists. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **106**, 19467–
19472 (2009).

67. Shultz, L. D. *et al.* Human Lymphoid and Myeloid Cell Development in NOD/LtSz-

scid IL2Rγnull Mice Engrafted with Mobilized Human Hemopoietic Stem Cells 12.

J. Immunol. **174**, 6477–6489 (2005).

68. McBride, A. A. & Warburton, A. The role of integration in oncogenic progression

of HPV-associated cancers. *PLoS Pathog.* **13**, e1006211 (2017).

69. Warburton, A., Markowitz, T. E., Katz, J. P., Pipas, J. M. & McBride, A. A.

Recurrent integration of human papillomavirus genomes at transcriptional

regulatory hubs. *NPJ Genomic Med.* **6**, 101 (2021).

70. Chapman, S., Liu, X., Meyers, C., Schlegel, R. & McBride, A. A. Human

keratinocytes are efficiently immortalized by a Rho kinase inhibitor. *J. Clin. Invest.*

120, 2619–2626 (2010).

71. Sahebali, S. *et al.* Stromal issues in cervical cancer: a review of the role and

function of basement membrane, stroma, immune response and angiogenesis in

cervical cancer development. *Eur. J. Cancer Prev.* **19**, 204–215 (2010).

72. Bristol, M. L. *et al.* DNA Damage Reduces the Quality, but Not the Quantity of

Human Papillomavirus 16 E1 and E2 DNA Replication. *Viruses* **8**, 175 (2016).

73. James, C. D. *et al.* Human Papillomavirus 16 E6 and E7 Synergistically Repress

Innate Immune Gene Transcription. *mSphere* **5**, e00828-19 (2020).

74. James, C. D. *et al.* Restoring the DREAM Complex Inhibits the Proliferation of

High-Risk HPV Positive Human Cells. *Cancers* **13**, 489 (2021).

75. James, C. D. *et al.* SAMHD1 Regulates Human Papillomavirus 16-Induced Cell

Proliferation and Viral Replication during Differentiation of Keratinocytes. *mSphere*

4, e00448-19 (2019).

76. Gauson, E. J. *et al.* Failure to interact with Brd4 alters the ability of HPV16 E2 to

regulate host genome expression and cellular movement. *Virus Res.* **211**, 1–8

(2016).

77. Gauson, E. J. *et al.* Regulation of human genome expression and RNA splicing by

human papillomavirus 16 E2 protein. *Virology* **468–470**, 10–18 (2014).

78. Fontan, C. T. *et al.* A Critical Role for p53 during the HPV16 Life Cycle.

Microbiol. Spectr. **10**, e0068122 (2022).

79. Bajikar, S. S. *et al.* Tumor-Suppressor Inactivation of GDF11 Occurs by Precursor

Sequestration in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. *Dev. Cell* **43**, 418-435.e13 (2017).

80. Nagatani, M. *et al.* Comparison of biological features between severely immuno-

deficient NOD/Shi-*scid Il2rg^{null}* and NOD/LtSz-*scid Il2rg^{null}* mice. *Exp. Anim.* **68**,

471–482 (2019).

81. Sannigrahi, M. K. *et al.* HPV E6 regulates therapy responses in oropharyngeal

cancer by repressing the PGC-1α/ERRα axis. *JCI Insight* **7**, e159600.

82. Turk, A. N., Byer, S. J., Zinn, K. R. & Carroll, S. L. Orthotopic xenografting of

human luciferase-tagged malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor cells for in vivo

testing of candidate therapeutic agents. *J. Vis. Exp. JoVE* 2558 (2011)

doi:10.3791/2558.

83. DeRose, Y. S. *et al.* Patient-derived models of human breast cancer: protocols for in

vitro and in vivo applications in tumor biology and translational medicine. *Curr.*

Protoc. Pharmacol. **Chapter 14**, Unit14.23 (2013).

84. Guillen, K. P. *et al.* A breast cancer patient-derived xenograft and organoid platform

for drug discovery and precision oncology. 2021.02.28.433268 Preprint at

https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.02.28.433268 (2021).

85. Animal Procedures and Information | Lab Manual and Procedures | Wicha Lab.

https://www.med.umich.edu/wicha-lab/labmanual6.html.

86. Whitfield, J., Littlewood, T. & Soucek, L. Tamoxifen Administration to Mice. *Cold*

Spring Harb. Protoc. **2015**, 269–271 (2015).

87. Halbert, C. L., Demers, G. W. & Galloway, D. A. The E7 gene of human

papillomavirus type 16 is sufficient for immortalization of human epithelial cells. *J.*

Virol. **65**, 473–478 (1991).

666
667
Figure Legends

Figure 1: Estrogen fails to sensitize *in vivo*.

1A. HeLa cells are an integrated HPV18+ female cervical cancer cell line, we therefore

chose to utilize female NOD-scid IL2Rgnull (NSG) mice for this treatment paradigm; we

did not choose to ovariectomize these mice. Day 0 marks the date at which cells were

injected for xenografts. Tumors were palpable on day 10, mice were randomized.

Estrogen alone (E=0.4mg pellet + 8 µg/ml water supplementation *ad libitum*), radiation

alone (IR=10 Gy), as well as the combinational approach (E+IR) were monitored for

effects on tumor volume by calipers. 1B. Mice were monitored for weight throughout the

study. 1C. UMSCC104 cells are an episomal HPV16+ male oropharyngeal line, we

therefore chose to utilize male NSG mice for this treatment paradigm. Day 0 marks the

date at which cells were injected for xenografts; early estrogen water supplementation

began on this day, pellets were later added when tumors were palpable (8 µg/ml water

supplementation *ad libitum*). Tumors were palpable on day 7. Estrogen alone (0.4mg

pellet + 8 µg/ml water supplementation ad libitum), radiation alone (5 Gy), as well as the

combinational approach were monitored for effects on tumor volume by calipers. 1D.

Mice were monitored for weight throughout the study.

Figure 2: Fibroblasts significantly reduce HPV-specific estrogenic sensitization in

keratinocytes. (A) N/Tert-1, (B) HFK+E6E7, and (C) HFK+HPV16 cells were seeded

on day 0 and grown in the presence or absence of J2s that had been seeded at least 6

hours prior. Cells were washed to remove J2s in noted conditions, trypsinized, and

counted on day 3. *, $p < 0.05$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 3: Fibroblasts significantly reduce HPV-specific cancer estrogenic

sensitization. J2s were seeded in the morning and noted nuclear-labeled cancer cells

were seeded at least 6 hours after: HeLa (A,E), UMSCC47 (B,F), UMSCC104 (C,G),

HN30 (D,H). Co-culture images for quantitation were taken the following morning and

are set at day 0, estrogen (E) was added immediately after initial imaging on day 0. Cells

were again imaged at day 1 and day 3. UMSCC104 cells were grown for an additional

time point; these were replenished with new J2s and estrogen on day 3 (post-imaging)

and day 5 and imaged again on day 7. Within same graphs *$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.001$. J2s

altered growth rates for some of the cell lines and graphs are presented as separate for

visual simplicity, but experiments were run concurrently; comparing top and bottom

graphs $p<0.05 J2 increased growth, &p<0.05 J2 decreased growth.

Figure 4: Estrogenic transcriptional regulation lost with stroma. (A) N/Tert-1 cells

were transfected with 1 μg of pgl3 basic backbone, 1 μg of pgl3 control (positive control),

or 1 μg LCR and grown in the presence or absence of 15 μM estrogen and/or J2s that had

previously been seeded. Forty-eight hours after transfection, a luciferase-based assay was

utilized to monitor levels of LCR transcription. Data are presented as relative

fluorescence units (RFU), normalized to total protein concentration as monitored by a

standard bovine serum albumin (BSA) assay. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$

(B) N/Tert-1 cells were grown in the presence or absence of J2s. Cells were washed to

remove J2, then lysed and analyzed via western blotting for ERα. GAPDH was used as a

loading control.

Figure 5: Fibroblast co-culture demonstrates SERMs are worth assessing in an

HPV+ *in vivo* model. J2s were seeded in the morning and noted nuclear-labeled cancer

cells were seeded at least 6 hours after: HeLa (A,D), UMSCC47 (B,E), UMSCC104

(C,F). Co-culture images for quantitation were taken the following morning and are set at

day 0, 10 μg raloxifene (R) or 10 μg tamoxifen (T) were added immediately after initial

imaging on day 0. Cells were again imaged at day 1 and day 3. UMSCC104 cells were

grown for an additional time point; these were replenished with new J2s and drugs on day

3 (post-imaging) and day 5 and imaged again on day 7. Within same graphs *p<0.05,

***p<0.001. J2s altered growth rates for some of the cell lines and graphs are presented

as separate for visual simplicity, but experiments were run concurrently.

Figure 6: Fibroblast *in vitro* co-culture SERM assessment in UMSCC104 cells

predicted the utility *in vivo*. As described in Figure 1, UMSCC104 cells were injected

for xenografts in male NOD-scid IL2Rgnull (NSG) mice. Day 0 marks the date at which

cells were injected for xenografts. (A,B) Tumors were palpable on day 7. 1-Control, 2-

Raloxifene alone (1.5 mg), 3-Tamoxifen alone (1.0 mg), 4-radiation alone (4 Gy) (IR), as

well as the combinational approaches (5-Raloxifene+IR, 6-Tamoxifen+IR) were

monitored for effects on tumor volume by calipers. These experiments were run

concurrently but presented on separate graphs for visual clarity (groups have been

numbered for this clarity). Data points shown for Mean Tumor Volume are representative

of conditions with at least 70% of animals remaining. (C) Kaplan-Meier Survival plots

the survival curve of the animals treated. This data includes any mice that needed to be

sacrificed due to tumor ulceration. (D) Mice were monitored for weight throughout the

study. *p<0.05, **p<0.01 ***p<0.001 from control, $p<0.05 from IR alone, colors of *

or $ are matched to colors of corresponding conditions that are significant from control or

radiation alone, respectively.

Supplemental Figure 1. Representative cell culture images quantified via Keyence.

Images presented are day 5 of UMSCC104 cell cultures in the presence or absence of J2s.

Images were captured at 10x in brightfield and TexasRed. All cell lines at all time points

745 were counted utilizing the same control-established automated parameters to ensure

746 reproducibility.

A.

HeLa
Mean Tumor Volume ± SEM

B.

HeLa
Mean Body Weight ± SEM

C.

UMSCC104
Mean Tumor Volume-right ± SEM

D.

UMSCC104
Mean Body Weight ± SEM

A.

B.

C.

A.

N/Tert-1

B.