TIGIT expression dictates the immunosuppressive reprogramming of myeloid

cells in glioblastoma.

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Running title: TIGIT drives immunosuppression in glioblastoma

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Abstract

Glioblastoma (GBM) is a deadly brain cancer with near-universal recurrence despite

maximal treatment for which new innovations are sorely needed. Immunotherapy has

yet to make significant gains in GBM treatment despite revolutionizing other cancer

therapies, due in part to GBM-mediated immune suppression. This immune

derangement proceeds through several mechanisms, but increasing evidence points to

critical roles for tumor-derived extracellular vesicles (EVs) and immunosuppressive

myeloid cells as key factors in this process. In the present study, we demonstrate broad

expression of TIGIT across myeloid cell populations in the GBM microenvironment, a

finding recapitulated by conditioning healthy monocytes with GBM-derived EVs. Further,

knockdown of TIGIT expression reduced the immunosuppressive polarization of

monocytes, resulting in improvement in T cell function. This finding proceeded in an

NLRP3-dependent manner, with substantial co-localization of TIGIT and NLRP3

expression prior to knockdown. These findings point to a novel role for TIGIT expression

in diverse myeloid cells in the GBM microenvironment as a marker of

immunosuppressive activity and further indicate a hierarchy of immunomodulatory

protein activity in these myeloid cells, with TIGIT knockdown unmasking the pro-

inflammatory activity of NLRP3. This study bolsters understanding of the

immunosuppressive complexities of myeloid cells in the GBM microenvironment, while

lending further support to prevention or attenuation of immunosuppressive myeloid cell

activity as a means of restoring immune function in GBM.

TEVs

GBM

Immune suppressive cytokines

TIGIT

MDSC

TIGIT Si RNA

Pro-inflammatory response

48   Graphical abstract (Created in BioRender. Asad, M. (2025) https://BioRender.com/euiljoq

Keywords

glioblastoma, TIGIT, extracellular vesicles, immunotherapy, myeloid cell, NLRP3

Key Points

1. TIGIT is broadly expressed in myeloid cells within the GBM microenvironment and can be induced by GBM-derived extracellular vesicles.

2. Knockdown of TIGIT reduces immunosuppressive polarization of monocytes and enhances T cell activity via NLRP3 signaling.

3. This study advocates immunomodulatory hierarchy in GBM, positioning TIGIT as a potential therapeutic target to reverse immune suppression.

Importance of the Study

Glioblastoma (GBM) remains a formidable clinical challenge, with poor prognosis and limited response to current immunotherapies. This study uncovers a novel immunosuppressive axis involving TIGIT expression in myeloid cells, which are key players in the GBM tumor microenvironment. By demonstrating GBM-derived extracellular vesicles induce TIGIT in healthy monocytes and TIGIT knockdown diminishes immunosuppressive polarization via an NLRP3-dependent pathway, the study highlights TIGIT as both a marker and modulator of immune dysfunction in GBM. These findings introduce a functional hierarchy of immunoregulatory proteins in tumor-associated myeloid cells, positioning TIGIT as a potential checkpoint target. Restoring immune activity by disrupting this axis could enhance the efficacy of immunotherapy in GBM. Thus, this research not only advances our understanding of tumor-induced immune suppression but also opens a promising therapeutic avenue to reinvigorate

anti-tumor immunity in a cancer type historically resistant to immunotherapeutic

approaches.

Introduction

Glioblastoma (GBM) is the most common and deadly intrinsic brain tumor in adults.

Current standard of care consists of maximal safe surgical resection followed by

radiation and temozolomide chemotherapy, in a protocol essentially unchanged for two

decades (*1*). Some recent innovations, such as tumor treating fields, have shown

modest promise but have not led to increased median overall survival beyond 15

months in population-based studies (*2*). Immunotherapy, including immune checkpoint

blockade, has been transformative in cancer care in recent years, but has failed to

improve outcomes in GBM (*3-6*). The profound immunosuppression found in GBM

patients plays a critical role in these failures, but its underlying mechanisms remain

poorly understood (*6, 7*).

Increasing evidence points to a crucial role for myeloid cells, which can comprise the

bulk of the tumor immune infiltrate, as mediators of immune suppression, preventing the

antitumor effects of T cells (*7, 8*). These myeloid cells are heterogenous with and

include a number of distinct populations, including myeloid-derived suppressor cells

(MDSCs) and non-classical monocytes (NCM) (*8-12*). These diverse populations are

united by the common trait of facilitating immune suppression, whether by release of

immunosuppressive cytokines or expression of surface ligands that facilitate exhaustion

of effector cells, including T cells (*7, 13*).

The mechanisms by which GBM induces immunosuppression are multiple and an active

field of study, but an increasing body of work points to a central role of tumor-derived

extracellular vesicles (EVs) (*7, 10, 14, 15*). These complex, multimodal signaling

molecules, are shed by all cells and play a critical role in cancer signaling, particularly in

immune evasion (*16*). In GBM, work by our group and others has pointed to a

potentially pivotal role of EVs in tumor-mediated immune suppression, including the

induction of immunosuppressive myeloid cells (*10, 14, 17*). Thus, the means by which

GBM induces the immunosuppressive polarization of myeloid cells represents a

potentially potent therapeutic axis for mitigation of GBM-mediated immune suppression.

In the present study, we examine the immune phenotype of myeloid cells in the GBM

tumor microenvironment at the time of surgical resection using ultrasonic aspirate

processed directly from the operating room to identify immunomodulatory markers

expressed across diverse myeloid cell populations that may represent therapeutically

significant targets across diverse cell populations. Interestingly, we found high rates of

TIGIT (T cell immunoreceptor with immunoglobulin and ITIM domain). TIGIT is increasingly

recognized as playing a critical role in limiting adaptive and innate immunity and is

canonically understood as a marker for T cell exhaustion. Recent data demonstrates

TIGIT expression across an array of myeloid cells in the *in- situ* GBM microenvironment

(*18-20*). These findings were recapitulated using our *in vitro* system of

immunosuppressive monocyte induction, whereupon healthy monocytes are subjected

to GBM-EVs collected from patient-derived cell lines. Upon knockdown of TIGIT

expression in monocytes, we found cells underwent a more pro-inflammatory immune

polarization in response to EV conditioning. TIGIT knockdown unmasked high levels of

co-expressed NLRP3 and increased levels of IL-13 expression. This resulted in a

rescue of T cell proliferation upon subsequent co-culture, indicating a level of functional

restoration of immune function. These results illustrate the potentially crucial role of an

immunomodulatory hierarchy in myeloid cells in the tumor microenvironment, the

understanding of which may prove critical for reversal of tumor-mediated immune

suppression.

Results

Immunophenotyping of myeloid cells in the GBM microenvironment reveals

broad TIGIT expression

GBM is an intrinsic infiltrative tumor, with the radiographic tumor bulk comprised of

heterogenous tumor cells, immune infiltrate, and normal brain cells. Surgical resection

of GBM entails removing as much of the lesion as safely possible with a range of

surgical techniques, frequently including liberal use of an ultrasonic aspirator, which

breaks up the bulk tumor and allows for resection without excess trauma due to heat or

retraction on the surrounding brain. The ultrasonic aspirate from this approach thus

consists of all of the constituent cells of the bulk tumor and is thus a valuable source of

material for study of the *in situ* tumor microenvironment, as well as tumor cells for

primary cell culture and establishment of patient-derived cell lines. Ultrasonic aspirate

from 13 GBM patients was collected and the immune cell infiltrate profiled via high

dimensional flow cytometry (Cytek Aurora, full panel and gating strategy available in

Table S1 and Fig. 1). Analysis of a number of key immunomodulatory proteins were

assessed across several known immunosuppressive monocyte populations, including

monocytic myeloid-derived suppressor cells (mMDSCs,

Fig. 1

Figure 1: Expression of immune modulatory molecules by suppressive monocytes of GBM patients. For surveying the tumor-immune microenvironment in samples of ultrasonic aspirates collected

during surgery, samples were processed for flow cytometric studies and the single cell suspensions,

stained with various flow antibodies were run on Cytek aurora spectral flow cytometer. (**A**) UMAP analysis

of CD45+ cells from GBM patients show various infiltrating immune cells. (**B**) Showing the cellular

expression of immune modulatory molecules (TIGIT, PDL1, NLRP3, BTLA, CTLA4, ARG1) by infiltrating

immune suppressive monocyte subsets, monocytic Myeloid Derived Suppressor Cells, mMDSCs

(CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$HLA-DR^{Lo}CD14 cells) and nonclassical monocytes (NCM, CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$HLA-

DR$^+$CD14$^-$PD1$^+$CD16 cells). (**C**) Histograms and a corresponding summary bar graph depicting the

immune modulatory molecules expressing cell population in mMDSCs and NCM. (**D**) Box plot obtained

from TCGA database illustrates the expression of TIGIT in normal and primary tumor samples obtained

from GBM patients. (**E**) Kaplan-Meier curve of TCGA and GTEx datasets of human GBM, demonstrating

the effect of TIGIT expression on patient survival in GBM. Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. and were

analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons.

CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$CD14$^+$HLA-DR$^{lo/-}$) and non-classical monocytes (NCM, CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$

CD16$^+$HLA-DR$^+$PD-1$^+$), that have been previously described as major populations of

immunosuppressive myeloid cells in the GBM microenvironment (**Fig. 1A**) (*10, 14, 21*).

Among the infiltrating immune cells, T cells constituted the largest population, followed

by immunosuppressive monocytes and B cells. Subsequent analysis of

immunomodulatory proteins in mMDSC and NCM populations revealed enriched

expression of a few key immune modulatory proteins, such as VISTA, PD-L1 and B7-H3

(**Fig. 1B, C**). Interestingly, we found that TIGIT, typically thought of as a T cell

exhaustion marker, was significantly elevated in elevated in immunosuppressive

myeloid cell populations relative to other immunomodulatory markers. Despite the

significant presence of PD-L1 (29.75±5.83%) and B7-H3 (50.34±9.093%) expressing

cells in NCM, TIGIT$^+$ cells predominated among the myeloid cell populations within the

various suppressive monocytic subsets (64.27±7.99% and 39.8±4.366% in mMDSCs

and NCM respectively). Analysis of The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) data

demonstrated enrichment of TIGIT expression across several GBM samples. Further,

TCGA and GTEx datasets of human GBM was analyzed using Gene Expression

Profiling Interactive Analysis. The TIGIT high group (top 20%, N= 128) indicated in red

showed a significant worse overall survival than the TIGIT low group (the rest 80%, N=

130) in blue, p = 0.036 (**Fig. 1 D, E**). Thus, it appears that elevated TIGIT mRNA

expression is associated with poor survival in human GBM patients.

GBM-EVs recapitulate myeloid cell immunosuppressive polarization *in vitro*

We next sought to validate these findings outside of the highly heterogenous context of

the tumor microenvironment. Work by our group and others has pointed to a major role

for GBM-derived extracellular vesicles (EVs) in the formation of immunosuppressive

monocytes (*10*). We previously demonstrated that EVs collected from patient-derived

GBM cell cultures can induce the formation of immunosuppressive monocytes, including

mMDSCs and NCMs, when used to condition monocytes collected from healthy human

blood donors. Using these techniques, we collected GBM-EVs from three patient-

derived GBM cell lines (dBT114, dBT116, and dBT120). In order to collect EVs, GBM

cells were cultured in serum-free conditions for 72hr and subjected to staged

centrifugation as described above. Presence and sizing of EVs was confirmed by use of

the NanoSight Nanotracker system (ZetaView, Particle Matrix, Germany) as well as the

presence of the EV markers CD9 and CD63 via western blot (**Fig. 2A-C**). EV

quantification was performed by BCA assay to quantify total protein. To induce the

formation of immunosuppressive monocytes, 20ug of EVs was added to monocytes

Fig. 2

Figure 2: Isolation and characterization of tumor-derived extracellular vesicles (TEVs) and

induction of immune suppressive monocytes. Extra cellular vesicles from human GBM primary cells

lines were obtained by ultracentrifugation and characterized by Nano-sight and western blots. (**A**) Size

distribution analysis of tumor-derived extracellular vesicles (TEVs) isolated from conditioned medium post

ultracentrifugation. (**B**) Representative image depicting the shape and relative size of the heterogeneous

TEVs, obtained from Nano-sight. (**C**) Western blot analysis of TEVs and whole cell lysate (WCL) for the

presence of CD63, and CD9 as TEVs markers. (**D**) CD11b$^+$ cells, isolated from healthy PBMCs and

induced with control or different TEVs isolated from primary GBM cell lines (dBT114, dBT116 and

dBT120) under hypoxic condition in serum free medium. After 72 hours, cells were collected and

processed for flow cytometry and stained with various fluorochorm tagged antibodies. Flow cytometric

analysis of monocytic Myeloid Derived Suppressor Cells (mMDSCs, CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$HLA-DR^{Lo}CD14

cells and nonclassical monocytes (NCM, CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$CD15$^-$HLA-DR$^+$CD14$^-$PD1$^+$CD16 cells) isolated

from healthy PBMCs and induced with control or different TEVs isolated from primary GBM cell lines.

Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. and were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with

Tukey's multiple comparisons.

isolated from anonymous healthy blood donors (obtained from the New York Blood

Bank). Monocytes were conditioned with EVs for 72h in hypoxic (1% O2) conditions

prior to collection for flow cytometry analysis (panel included in **S2**). Consistent with our

previously published results, EVs derived from dBT114, dBT116, and dBT120 all

significantly induced the formation of both mMDSCs and NCM in this model system

(**Fig. 2D**), which produce anti-inflammatory cytokines including IL-4 (**Fig. S2**).

Using this model, we next employed a high-dimensional flow cytometry approach as

employed for the ultrasonic aspirate samples to define the expression pattern of

immunomodulatory proteins in this model. We found substantial similarities in

immunomodulatory protein expression following EV-conditioning of monocytes,

including consistent increases in TIGIT and NLRP3 expression (**Fig. 3A**, **B**). TIGIT

expression was increased in both mMDSCs (73.53±6.27%, 68.33±8.66% and

63.99±8.11% respectively for the mentioned cell lines EVs, compared to unstimulated

control, 4.68±2.83%) and NCM (85.17±3.91%, 79.26±9.17% and 60.68±10.52%

respectively, compared to control, 11.3±3.3%) following treatment with EVs derived from

Fig. 3

Figure 3: Expression of immune modulatory molecules on TEVs induced peripheral monocytic Myeloid Derived Suppressor Cells (mMDSC) & non-classical monocytes (NCM). CD11b+ cells,

isolated from healthy peripheral blood and under hypoxic condition in a serum free medium, co-cultured

for 72 hours with TEVs obtained from mentioned GBM cell lines. (**A**) TEVs induced CD11b^{+} monocytes

were studied for the expression of various immune modulatory markers, TIGIT, PDL1, NLRP3, BTLA,

CTLA4 & ARG1 on suppressive monocyte subsets (mMDSCs and NCMs). (**B**) Histograms depicting the

expression levels of immune modulatory molecules on mMDSC and NCM populations cultured with

control or different TEVs (dBT114, dBT116 and dBT120). The percentage of cells expressing each

molecule within each subset is also shown correspondingly as a chart. (**C**) Immunofluorescence staining

of TIGIT in suppressive monocytes treated with control or TEVs. (**D**) Western blot analysis of GBM whole

cell lysate (WCL) for the presence of TIGIT. Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. and were analyzed by

one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons.

all three GBM cell lines. We confirmed that TIGT expression in this model was present

in monocytes and not from co-localized EVs via western blot demonstrating TIGIT

expression in GBM whole cell lysate (WCL), but not in EVs (**Fig. 3C**). Further,

immunofluorescent staining following EV-monocyte co-culture for 72h demonstrated

robust TIGIT expression in monocytes conditioned with EVs, but not in untreated

controls, demonstrating that hypoxic culture conditions, which have previously been

shown to aid in MDSC induction, were insufficient to induce TIGIT expression (**Fig. 3D**).

TIGIT and key immunomodulatory proteins are co-expressed in EV-induced

immunosuppressive monocyte populations

While there is some recent work describing TIGIT expression in myeloid cells (*20*),

typically TIGIT has been viewed as a T cell exhaustion marker, and so it is not

necessarily intuitive that high levels of TIGIT expression on immunomodulatory myeloid

cells corresponds to downstream immunosuppressive functionality in myeloid cells. We,

therefore next interrogated the immunomodulatory proteins and cytokines co-expressed

on TIGIT+ immunosuppressive monocytes. Several other immune-checkpoint markers,

including PD-L1 and VISTA, demonstrated high levels of co-expression on TIGIT

positive mMDSCs and NCM following GBM-EV treatment (**Fig. 4A, B,** representative

dot plots for co-localization included in **Fig. S3**). Interestingly, NLRP3, typically

understood as a strong marker of pro-inflammatory activity important in the

inflammasome pathway, demonstrated the strongest amount of co-expression. It is

noteworthy that among all $CD45^+$ cells, $TIGIT^+$ cells showed a significantly higher

expression of $NLRP3^+$ cells (86.64±5.52%) compared to other immunomodulatory

molecules, including Arg1 (0.45±0.14%), BTLA (2.2±0.94%), CTLA-4 (27.34±11.12%),

and PD-L1 (48.09±4.41%) (Fig. S3c). This elevated NLRP3 expression was

accompanied by a significant increase in IL-1β-producing cells (55.88±5%), an

inflammatory cytokine associated with NLRP3, as well as IL-13-producing cells

(98.78±.3%). These levels were notably higher than those of the proinflammatory

cytokines IFNγ (7.3±2.65%) and IL-17 (1.63±0.63%), and the immunosuppressive

cytokines IL-4 (5.9±1.3%), IL-5 (16.98±5%), and IL-10 (12.49±2.35%) (**Fig. S3**). In

interrogating a panel of key cytokines, we found that the TH2 cytokine, IL-13 was co-

expressed with TIGIT expression on immunosuppressive monocytes (**Fig. 4C, D)**.

Taken together, these findings suggest that an immunosuppressive phenotype prevails

in the presence of co-expressed pro-inflammatory markers in EV-induced

immunosuppressive monocytes, suggestive of an

Fig. 4

Figure 4: Immune response by TIGIT⁺ suppressive monocytes. Isolated peripheral blood CD11b⁺

monocytes were induced with TEVs in hypoxia chamber in serum free medium. After 72 hours of

induction, cells were processed for flow cytometric studies. Single viable CD45⁺TIGIT cells were selected

for the analysis. (**A**) UMAP analysis of mMDSCs and NCM treated with control or different TEV

preparations (dBT114, dBT116, dBT120), highlighting the co-expression of various immune modulatory

molecules (VISTA, PDL1, NLRP3, CTLA4, BTLA and ARG1) within TIGIT⁺ cell population. (**B**) Dotplot

depicting the percentage of cells as a factor of size of the dot expressing different immune modulatory

molecules within the TIGIT pockets of mMDSCs and NCMs treated with control or different EV

preparations. Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) shown corresponding to the color intensity of the dots for

each analyte. (**C**) UMAP analysis of mMDSCs and NCM treated with control or different TEVs,

highlighting the expression of various cytokines (IL17, IL13, IL10, IL5, IL4, IL18, IFNγ). (**D**) Dotplot

depicting the percentage and MFI of TIGIT⁺ cells co-expressing different cytokines in mMDSCs and NCM

treated with control or different EV preparations.

immunomodulatory protein hierarchy that may be leveraged to repolarize towards an

anti-tumor immune response.

TIGIT knockdown in EV-conditioned monocytes results in a pro-inflammatory

phenotype

To test if the TIGIT driven immunomodulatory hierarchy regulates the NLRP3-mediated

protective immune response against GBM, we next sought to determine if prevention of

TIGIT expression on monocytes was sufficient to 'unmask' a pro-inflammatory

phenotype in EV-induced immunosuppressive monocytes. Prior to EV conditioning,

monocytes isolated from PBMCs were treated with TIGIT-directed siRNA to knock down

TIGT expression. GBM-EVs were subsequently added for 72h of hypoxic co-culture as

described above. TIGIT knockdown demonstrated immunomodulatory reprogramming in

Fig. 5

Figure 5. Immune modulatory molecules expressing Immune suppressive monocytes post TIGIT

knockdown. Isolated CD11b$^+$ Monocytic cells from healthy peripheral blood were knockdown by

scramble or NLRP3-specific or TIGIT-specific siRNA and processed for flow cytometry post TEVs

treatment for 72 hours under hypoxia in serum free condition. (**A and B**) Uniform Manifold Approximation

and Projection (UMAP) plots showing the expression patterns of immune checkpoint molecules (Arg1,

B7H3, BTLA, CTLA4, PD-L1, NLRP3, TIGIT, and VISTA) across different clusters by mMDSC population

post TIGIT specific siRNA- (b) or scramble siRNA- (a) treated cells. Red color represents high expression,

whereas gray indicates the total cellular population of mMDSCs. Violin plots depicting the percentage of

mMDSCs expressing various immune modulatory molecules in TIGIT siRNA-treated and scramble

siRNA-treated peripheral monocytes. (**C and D**) UMAP showing the expression of the same molecules by

non-classical monocytes (NCM), after TIGIT siRNA-treated (d) and scramble siRNA-treated (c) peripheral

monocytes. Violin plots depicting the percentage of NCMs expressing various immune modulatory

molecules in TIGIT siRNA-treated and scramble siRNA-treated cells. Data are presented as

mean ± s.e.m. and were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple

comparisons.

both mMDSC and NCM immunosuppressive monocyte populations (**Fig. 5**). While

TIGIT knockdown in mMDSCs resulted in reduced expression of other key

immunomodulatory markers including B7-H3 (11.6±3.39), PD-L1 (11.04±6.59), VISTA

(12.3±2.05), and CTLA-4 (2.19±1.18, **Fig. 5B**) relative to scramble treated controls

(32.73±6, 20.52±9.4, 29.46±5.6 and 18.12±8.1 respectively, **Fig. 5A**), this effect in

NCMs did not reach a significant difference in any of the above mentioned immune

regulatory proteins (B7-H3 15.72±8.09, PD-L1 16.49±4.37, VISTA 34.82±9.7 and CTLA-

4 12.38±3.12, respectively) compared to scramble controls (41.55±5.19,37.04±10.35,

39.20±6.7 and 33.66±8.35, **Fig. 5C, D, Fig. S4**). Meanwhile, NLRP3 expressing cells

remained significantly elevated following TIGIT knockdown in both populations

(72.58±5.78 and 48.75±8.19 respectively compared to respective scrambles, 31.2±7.65

and 25.61 $p < 0.05$, **Fig. 5B, D**).

Fig. 6

Figure 6. Immune modulatory milieu by immune suppressive monocytes post-TIGIT knockdown.

CD11b$^+$ cells isolated from healthy peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were knockdown by

TIGIT-specific or scramble siRNA under hypoxic condition in serum free medium. These healthy

monocytes were co-cultured with TEVs for 72 hours and processed for flow cytometry. (**A and B**) UMAP

plots showing the cellular distribution of mMDSCs based on their expression of various cytokines (IL17,

IL13, IL10, IL5, IL4, IL1β, and IFNγ) producing cells in scramble-treated (a) and TIGIT-knockdown

monocytes (b). Red color represents high expression, whereas gray indicates the total cellular population

of mMDSC. Violin plots comparing the percentage of mMDSCs expressing these cytokines between the

scramble-treated and TIGIT-knockdown groups. (**C and D**) UMAP showing the expression of the same

cytokines producing cells, (IL17, IL13, IL10, IL5, IL4, IL1β, and IFNγ) among non-classical monocytes

(NCM), in scramble-treated and TIGIT-knockdown groups. Violin plots comparing the percentage of

NCMs expressing various given cytokines between the scramble-treated and TIGIT-knockdown groups.

Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. and were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with

Tukey's multiple comparisons.

We next examined the effect of TIGIT knockdown on cytokine expression in these

immunosuppressive monocyte populations. This revealed a marked increase in IL17-

expressing cells relative to scramble controls in both mMDSC and NCM populations

(**Fig. 6B, D**). However, this enhanced IL17 expression was significantly higher in

mMDSCs. Interestingly, increased IL17 expression was coupled with an attenuation of

IL13 expression, in TIGIT downregulated monocyte subsets, which as mentioned above

(**Fig. 4**) previously co-localized heavily with TIGIT$^+$ immunosuppressive monocytes (**Fig.**

6 A, C, Fig. S5). Interestingly, IL13 expressing cells were observed to co-expressed

with NLRP3$^+$ cells within the mMDSCs and NCMs (**Fig. 5** and **6**). Furthermore, IL1β

expressing cells also exhibited co-expression with NLRP3 in the NCM (**Fig. 5D** and **6D**).

Collectively, these data indicate that TIGIT-dependent IL13 may play a role in regulating

NLRP3-mediated inflammation.

TIGIT knockdown in EV-conditioned monocytes rescues T cell proliferation in an

NLRP3-dependent manner

To assess the impact of TIGIT knockdown on the immunosuppressive function of immunomodulatory monocytes, we co-cultured donor-matched T cells with EV-conditioned monocytes with or without siRNA-mediated TIGIT knockdown as described above. Our previous work has demonstrated that EV-induced immunosuppressive monocytes readily suppress T cell proliferation (*7, 10, 14*). In the present study, we found that TIGIT knockdown prior to EV conditioning rescued T cell proliferation to levels comparable to monocytes treated with scramble controls (p<0.0265, **Fig. 7A**). This also resulted in reduction of the number of IL4$^+$ CD4$^+$ T cells following co-culture (p<0.025, **Fig. 7D**).

Based on our earlier results demonstrating high level of NLRP3 co-expressed with TIGIT cells, we wished to interrogate if this apparent rescue of TH1-type immune function was dependent on NLRP3 expression. By treating PBMC-derived monocytes with siRNA targeting NLRP3 and subsequently both TIGIT and NLRP3, we found that NLRP3 knockdown was sufficient to eliminate the rescue of T cell proliferation observed following TIGIT knockdown (**Fig. 7A**). NLRP3 and TIGIT double knockdown also eliminated the increase in CD4$^+$ T cells observed following TIGIT knockdown (**Fig. 7B**) as well as the reduction in IL-4+ CD4+ T cells observed with TIGIT knockdown alone. Although there was not much effect on IFNγ level (**Fig. 7C**), however, the ratio of IFNγ/IL-4+ T cells increased significantly with TIGIT knockdown in monocytes alone (**Fig. 7E**), an effect that was eliminated with NLRP3 knockdown.

Fig. 7

A

Inactive | Only T | Scramble | TIGIT | NLRP3 | T&N

3.71 | 83.5 | 53.6 | 60.2 | 44.4 | 57.9

cells

CellTrace Yellow

%Proliferation

0.0089
0.0265

Inactive, Only T, Scramble Si, TIGIT Si, NLRP3 Si, T&N Si

B

Gated on CD45$^+$CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ cells

Scramble | TIGIT(T) | NLRP3(N) | T&N

8.74 | 0.050 | 0 | 0 | 12.4 | 0.79 | 11.8 | 0.49

91.0 | 0.23 | 52.6 | 47.4 | 85.1 | 1.75 | 84.8 | 2.92

IL-4

IFNγ

C

CD4$^+$IFNγ cells

CD4$^+$IFNγ of CD4 cells

Scramble Si, TIGIT (T) Si, NLRP3 (N) Si, T & N Si

D

CD4$^+$IL-4$^+$ Cells

CD4$^+$IL4 cells of CD4 cells

0.0250

Scramble Si, TIGIT (T) Si, NLRP3 (N) Si, T & N Si

E

IFNγ/IL-4 cell ratio

IFNγ/IL-4 cells ratio

0.0037

Scramble Si, TIGIT (T) Si, NLRP3 (N) Si, T & N Si

Figure 7. Effect of TIGIT knockdown on T Cell Proliferation in the Presence of TEV-Induced

MDSCs.

CD11b+ and CD3+ cells were isolated from healthy volunteer peripheral blood monocytes. CD11b cells

were conditioned with TIGIT and NLRP3-specific siRNA in serum-free medium followed by priming with

TEVs for under hypoxic conditions (1%) for 72 hours. Then, CD11b and T cells (T cells stained with cell

trace yellow dye) were co-cultured for another 72 hours in RPMI-1640 medium with 10% serum at 37°C in

5% CO_2. Finally, cells were processed for flow cytometry. (**A**) Representative flow cytometry plots and

corresponding bar graphs showing CD3$^+$ T cell proliferation (Cell Trace Yellow) in the absence of T cell

activator, CD3/CD28 Dynbeads (inactive group), when T cells were cultured without conditioned

monocytes Only T cell group), scramble treated group, TIGIT specific siRNA treated group (TIGIT),

NLRP3 specific siRNA treated group (NLRP3) and both TIGIT along with NLRP3 siRNA treated group

(T&N). (**B**) Representative flow cytometry plots showing IFNγ and IL-4 producing CD4+ T cells in CD3$^+$ T

cells and CD11b$^+$ monocytes co-culture conditions, post scramble, TIGIT and/or NLRP3 knockdown. (**C**)

IFNγ producing CD4+ T cells in the above-mentioned co-culture conditions in the given treatment groups.

(**D**) IL-4 producing CD4+ T cells in CD3$^+$ T cells and CD11b$^+$ monocytes co-culture conditions, post

scramble, TIGIT and/or NLRP3 knockdown. (**E**) Ratio of IFNγ producing CD4$^+$ T cells and IL-4 producing

CD4$^+$ T cells in the given co-culture conditions. Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. and were analyzed

by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons.

Discussion

Anti-cancer immunotherapy, including immune checkpoint blockade, has revolutionized

the treatment of several solid tumors in recent years (*22, 23*). Metastatic melanoma,

which once carried a prognosis comparable to GBM, has seen a revolution in outcomes

with immune checkpoint therapy (*3, 24*). Several clinical trials have explored these

treatments in GBM, but the results have been disappointing (*5, 25, 26*). Several

mechanisms for these failures have been implicated, including the mutational burden of

GBM, the immune specialization of the central nervous system, but the profound

immune derangement found in GBM patients is a long-described and under explored

phenomena (*7, 27-29*). The mechanisms of systemic immune suppression generated by

a localized disease such as GBM remains an area of active study, but induction of distal

effector signals, including EVs and immunosuppressive myeloid cells, are potent

avenues by which such effects could be achieved.

Work by our group and others has contributed to a growing body of evidence that

myeloid cells in the GBM microenvironment are major intermediaries of tumor-mediated

immune suppression, and that GBM-EVs are an effective means of inducing the

formation of immunosuppressive myeloid cells (*10, 17, 30*). These myeloid cells are a

highly heterogenous milieu, comprised of as many as 14 subtypes of cells as recently

described (*8*), and the relative import of different immunosuppressive myeloid cell

populations to the overall milieu is an open question. In our study, we focused on

mMDSCs and NCMs as exemplar immunosuppressive monocyte populations, as our *in*

situ tumor microenvironment data demonstrates a robust presence in the GBM

microenvironment and previous work has demonstrated that these populations are

modifiable by GBM-EVs (*10, 14, 30*). A central question to unlocking the complexity of

the tumor-immune microenvironment is understanding the relative import and/or

functional redundancy of these immunosuppressive cell populations, in order to define

the critical therapeutic targets in order to effectively repolarize the tumor

microenvironment to allow for anti-tumor immunity.

In the present study, we were surprised to find broad TIGIT expression across a large

swath of cells in the GBM microenvironment, including immunosuppressive myeloid

cells such as MDSCs and NCMs. Further, TCGA data indicated an association of TIGIT

expression with reduced patient survival, indicating a potential role for TIGIT expression

in disease severity. TIGIT has been classically described as a T cell exhaustion marker

(*31, 32*), but some reports do describe a role for TIGIT expression in myeloid cells (*33-*

35), including a study that indicated a correlation with prognosis in GBM patients (*20*).

Anti-TIGIT antibodies have had some success in clinical trials as an anti-cancer

immunotherapy (*36*), but have yet to show benefit in GBM treatment (*37*).

We found in our study that TIGIT expression correlated with several pro-inflammatory

markers in otherwise phenotypically immunosuppressive myeloid cells, with particularly

strong co-expression of TIGIT and NLRP3. NLRP3 is typically associated with the

inflammasome and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1B (*38-40*).

The role of NLRP3 in cancer is more controversial, with many studies pointing to an

immunosuppressive role, while others suggest a beneficial role (*41, 42*). The larger

tumor-immune context may well provide an explanation for these mixed findings.

Indeed, we found that knockdown of TIGIT resulted in a pro-inflammatory polarization of

mMDSCs and NCMs, and that this effect was lost upon concomitant knockdown of

NLRP3. These results are suggestive of a hierarchical arrangement of

immunomodulatory signals in myeloid cells in the GBM tumor microenvironment.

Inhibition of a specific immune checkpoint may be insufficient to eliminate the

immunosuppressive effects of these cells given the presence of redundant signals, but

prevention certain of these signals may signify a globally immunosuppressive

phenotype. Prevention of the expression of certain hierarchically important signals, such

as TIGIT in the present study, may be sufficient to repolarize these cells to a pro-

inflammatory phenotype, which could have major implications for reversal of tumor-

mediated immune suppression.

Materials and methods

Study design

To identify potential therapeutic targets within the glioblastoma (GBM) tumor microenvironment, we analyzed the immune phenotype of myeloid cells obtained from surgical resection specimens using ultrasonic aspirates. This direct approach allowed for the identification of immunomodulatory markers across diverse myeloid cell populations. These findings were then validated using an *in vitro* model of immunosuppressive monocyte induction, where healthy monocytes were exposed to GBM-derived extracellular vesicles (EVs) from patient-derived cell lines. TIGIT knockdown studies were then performed to interrogate its import on the immunosuppressive polarization of myeloid cells. Subsequent donor-matched T cell proliferation studies were then performed as a functional measure of immunosuppressive activity.

Patient cohort and sample processing

Patients with glioblastoma (GBM) were diagnosed via standard magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the brain. Written informed consent was obtained from all surgical candidates prior to surgery, in accordance with the protocol approved by the Institutional Review Board of Montefiore Medical Center (IRB# 2022-14518). Study patients (n= 14) underwent surgery with the goal of maximum, safe resection. The diagnosis of GBM was confirmed through histological review by a trained neuropahtoligst, and by subsequent genetic testing. Patients received standard oncological treatment with temozolamide and fractioned radiotherapy and close clinical follow-up according to national guidelines at Montefiore Medical Center, Bronx, NY.

During surgery, tumor specimens were collected, and ultrasonic aspirates were

immediately placed on ice for processing. Fresh tumor tissue was mechanically

dissociated using a scalpel and then enzymatically digested with TrypLE Express

(Gibco, 12605010) at 37°C for 10 minutes. The resulting cell suspension was filtered

through 40 μm nylon mesh, treated with red blood cell lysis buffer (BioLegend, 420301),

and washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Single-cell suspensions were then

prepared for flow cytometry analysis.

Cell Culture

Primary glioblastoma (GBM) cell lines, designated dBT114, dBT116, and dBT120, were

initially established as brain tumor stem cell neurospheres in serum-free, HEPES-

modified DMEM/F12 medium supplemented with EGF, FGF, and N2, as previously

described (*43*). Subsequently, these cell lines were adapted to grow as adherent

monolayers in HEPES-modified EmbryoMax DMEM/F12 medium (DF-042-B, Millipore,

Burlington, MA) containing 1% penicillin/streptomycin and 10% fetal calf serum. Cells

were maintained in T75 flasks at 37°C with 5% CO2 in a humidified incubator, as

previously described (*10*). The cells were grown as an adherent monolayer and

passaged when confluency was around 90%. Early passages within 10 or lower were

used for the study.

EV Isolation and protein estimation

For isolation of EVs, dBT114, dBT116 and dBT120 cells were transferred to serum-free

neurosphere culture, DMEM: F12 medium containing EGF and FGF growth factors in

5% CO_2 incubator. After 72 hrs, as described earlier (*43*), cultured supernatants were

collected in 50 ml centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 1900 *g* for 10 min at room

temperature. Then supernatants were transferred to 14 ml propylene Ultracentrifuge

tubes, 14 X 95 mm (Cat# 331374, Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA) and centrifuged at

24000 rpm for 16 hrs at 4°C on Optima XE-90 ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, Brea,

CA). After centrifugation, a small, thin transparent pellet deposited at the bottom of the

tube were carefully resuspended in the 200 µl of the same neurosphere medium.

Resuspended EVs were collected in a cryovial, and protein concentration was

calculated by modified Pierce Rapid Gold BCA Protein Assay Kit (A53226, Thermo

Fisher, Waltham, MA) according to manufacturer's method and the reading was

acquired by Infinite 200Pro plate reader (Tecan, Mannedorf, Switzerland) using software

Tecan I-Control (version 2.0). The isolated EVs were stored at -80°C freezer until used.

EV characterization

EVs were characterized using the NanoSight Nanotracker system (ZetaView, Particle

Metrix GmbH). Freshly isolated EVs were diluted 1000-fold with filtered (40 nm syringe

filter) phosphate-buffered saline to achieve a particle concentration suitable for analysis

and to remove larger particles or aggregates. One µL of the diluted EV solution was

loaded into the capillary system of the ZetaView, where a laser illuminated individual

EVs, and their Brownian motion was tracked by a camera. The ZetaView software

calculated the size of each EV using the Stokes-Einstein equation and generated a

histogram and images showing the shape, size distribution and concentration of EVs in

the sample.

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) Isolation

Human blood samples were obtained from the New York Blood Center from healthy

donors (n=10). Either heparin or EDTA was used as an anticoagulant. Blood samples

were delivered at room temperature (~24°C) and processed immediately after the

delivery. All subsequent steps were performed at room temperature. PBMCs were

isolated from whole blood using standard density gradient centrifugation with Ficoll-

Paque PLUS (17-5442-03, density 1.077 ± 0.001 g/ml, GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL) as

described earlier (*30*). Briefly blood was diluted 1:1 with 1X PBS and mixed gently.

Ficoll-Paque™ Premium was added to the bottom of a sterile 50 ml centrifuge tube. The

diluted blood was carefully layered on top of the Ficoll-Paque, maintaining a clear

interface between the two layers. The tube was centrifuged at 500g for 30 minutes

without brake. PBMCs were collected from the interface between the plasma and Ficoll

layers using a sterile transfer pipette. The collected PBMCs were washed with PBS to

remove any residual Ficoll or other contaminants and resuspended in PBS + 2% FBS.

Cells were counted using the trypan blue exclusion method on Countess 3 (Invitrogen,

Waltham, MA).

Isolation of monocytes

Monocytes were positively selected from healthy donor PBMCs, using CD11b

MicroBeads (130-049-601, Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany). Briefly, 5 µL

of CD11b MicroBeads were added per 10^7 total cells, and the mixture was incubated for

30 minutes at room temperature. Cells were then washed twice with PBS + 2% FBS

and resuspended in PBS + 2% FBS. The cell suspension was applied to an LS column

placed in a magnetic field of a MACS Separator. Unlabeled cells were collected as the

flow-through fraction. The column was then removed from the magnetic field, and

labeled monocytes were eluted by flushing the column with PBS + 2% FBS. The purity

of the isolated monocytes was assessed by flow cytometry using anti-CD45 and anti-

CD11b antibodies.

Monocyte Culture and EV Treatment

Purified human monocytes were cultured in L-glutamine and HEPES-modified DMEM

medium supplemented with 1% penicillin/streptomycin under hypoxic conditions (1%

O_2). Cells were seeded at a density of 1 million cells per well in a 96-well plate.

Monocytes were treated with purified extracellular vesicles (EVs) (20 µg/well) isolated

from various glioblastoma cell lines (dBT114, dBT116 and dBT120). Cells were cultured

for 72 hours under hypoxic conditions.

Cell Preparation and Staining for flow cytometry

Cultured and EV-stimulated monocytes were washed twice with PBS only and

resuspended in 50 µl of PBS and processed for flow cytometric study as described

earlier (Asad et al. Front Immunol, 2019). Briefly, cells were stained with LIVE/DEAD

Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 30 minutes at room

temperature in the dark. Following staining, cells were washed twice with FACS buffer

(containing 2% human serum) and resuspended in 50 µl of FACS buffer. To block non-

specific binding, cells were incubated with Fc blocking solution for 20 minutes at room

temperature. Subsequently, cells were washed twice with FACS buffer and resuspended

in 50 µl of staining buffer containing a cocktail of fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies

specific for surface markers of interest. Cells were incubated for 60 minutes at 4°C in

the dark. Following surface staining, cells were washed twice with FACS buffer and

resuspended in 50 µl of FACS buffer containing 2% human serum. Cells were fixed and

permeabilized using Cytofix/Cytoperm solution (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) for 20

minutes at 4°C. Cells were then washed twice with permeabilization buffer and

incubated with 50 µl cocktail of fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies specific for

intracellular markers of interest for overnight (12-14 hrs) at 4°C in the dark. After

incubation, cells were washed twice with permeabilization buffer, resuspended in 200 µl

of FACS buffer, and filtered through a 70-micron nylon mesh to remove cell clumps.

Finally, samples were acquired on a Cytek Aurora 5 laser flow cytometer and analyzed

using FlowJo software.

Isolation of CD3+ T cells and T cell proliferation assay

PBMCs were isolated from healthy human donors using standard density gradient

centrifugation, as described above. CD3+ T cells were then purified from PBMCs via

magnetic cell sorting using a commercially available kit (130-050-101, Miltenyi Biotec,

Bergisch Gladbach, Germany), following a similar procedure to the previously described

CD11b isolation. Isolated CD3+ T cells were cultured at a density of 1 x 10^7 cells/ml in

RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 1% penicillin-streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine

serum for 3 days at 37°C in 5% CO_2. CD3+ T cells were labeled with CellTrace Yellow

according to the manufacturer's instructions. CD11b+ monocytes were conditioned with

extracellular vesicles (EVs) derived from primed CD11b+ monocytes. Donor-matched

autologous labeled CD3+ T cells were co-cultured with EV-conditioned CD11b+

monocytes at a 1:1 ratio (1 x 10^6 cells each) in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with

1% penicillin-streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine serum in the presence of aCD3/aCD28

DynaBeads (11131D Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA) for 5 days at 37°C in 5% CO_2. After

5 days of co-culture, cells were harvested and processed for flow cytometry analysis. A

subset of conditioned cells was used for cellular proliferation assays. Cells were labeled

with CFSE or Yellow Fluorescent Dye and analyzed by flow cytometry using a Cytek

Aurora flow cytometer. Another subset of conditioned cells was used for flow cytometry

analysis using a Cytek Aurora flow cytometer to assess changes in cell surface markers

or intracellular signaling pathways.

T Cell Suppression/Proliferation Assay

PBMCs were isolated from healthy human donors, and CD3+ T cells and CD11b+

monocytes were purified using magnetic sorting, as described above. CD3+ T cells

were cultured at a density of 10^7 cells/mL in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Genesee, El Cajon, CA) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin.

Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2 for 5 days prior to

co-culture with extracellular vesicle (EV)-primed CD11b+ monocytes.

CD11b+ Monocyte Conditioning and EV Stimulation

Purified CD11b+ monocytes (10^6 cells/well) were plated in a 96-well plate in 100 µL of

serum-free medium (Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO) containing 1% penicillin-streptomycin

and transfected with Accell small interfering RNA (siRNA; Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO) at

a final concentration of 1 µM. Cells were incubated under normoxic conditions (37°C,

5% CO_2) for 48 hours. Following incubation, CD11b+ monocytes were stimulated with

20 µg of tumor-derived extracellular vesicles (TEVs) and cultured for an additional 72

hours under hypoxic conditions (1% O_2, 5% CO_2, 37°C).

T Cell Labeling and Co-Culture

Following the 72-hour incubation, CD3+ T cells were washed with phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS) and labeled with CellTrace Yellow (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Labeled CD3+ T cells (10^6 cells) were co-

cultured at a 1:1 ratio with EV-primed CD11b+ monocytes in RPMI-1640 medium

supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Cells were stimulated

using pre-washed αCD3/αCD28 DynaBeads (11131D, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA) at a concentration of 20 μL beads per million cells and incubated under

normoxic conditions (5% CO_2, 37°C) for 3 days.

Flow Cytometry and Proliferation Assay

Following a 3-day co-culture period, cells were harvested from the 96-well U-bottom

plates and prepared for flow cytometry staining using an optimized laboratory protocol.

Unbound DynaBeads were removed by placing the culture tube on a magnet for 2

minutes, after which the supernatant containing cells was transferred to a fresh tube. T

cell proliferation was assessed via CellTrace Yellow dilution, and additional

multiparametric immunophenotypic analyses were performed using flow cytometry.

Immunofluorescence Staining of Monocytes

Human monocytes were cultured in an 8-well chamber slide at a density of 1×10^6 cells

per well and allowed to adhere under standard conditions (37°C, 5% CO_2). After

adherence, the culture medium was aspirated, and cells were gently rinsed with

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Fixation was performed using 4% paraformaldehyde

(PFA) in PBS for 15 minutes at room temperature (RT), followed by three washes with

PBS (5 minutes each). Cells were permeabilized using 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 10

minutes at RT and washed three times with PBS. To block non-specific binding, cells

were incubated in blocking buffer (5% bovine serum albumin [BSA] in PBS) for 1 hour at

RT in a humidified chamber. Cells were incubated with the primary antibody diluted in

blocking buffer at the recommended concentration overnight at 4°C in a humidified

chamber. After incubation, cells were washed three times with PBS (5 minutes each). A

fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibody was diluted in blocking buffer and applied to

the cells for 1 hour at RT in the dark. Unbound antibody was removed by washing three

times with PBS (5 minutes each). Cells were incubated with 1 µg/mL DAPI in PBS for 5

minutes at RT and subsequently washed three times with PBS. The chamber walls were

carefully removed, and a drop of mounting medium was applied to each well. Coverslips

were placed gently to avoid bubble formation. Slides were allowed to set for at least 30

minutes at RT in the dark before imaging. Immunofluorescence was visualized using a

fluorescence microscope equipped with appropriate filter sets.

Western blotting

Monocytes, cultured with or without EVs stimulation were harvested and washed with

ice cold PBS twice. Cells were then lysed in RIPA buffer supplemented with protease

and phosphatase inhibitors and incubated on ice for 30 min with intermittent vortexing.

Lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 × g for 7 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was

collected. Protein concentration was determined using a Pierce Rapid Gold BCA Protein

Assay Kit (A53226, Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA) according to manufacturer's

instructions and the reading was acquired by Infinite 200Pro plate reader (Tecan,

Mannedorf, Switzerland) using software Tecan I-Control (version 2.0). Equal amounts of

protein (20–40 µg) were resolved on a 10–12% SDS-PAGE gel at 100 V until the dye

front reached the bottom. Proteins were transferred to a PVDF or nitrocellulose

membrane using iBLOT3 (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA), a dry transfer system. Membranes

were blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) or 5% nonfat milk in Tris-buffered

saline with Tween 20 (TBST) for 1 hour at room temperature. The membranes were

incubated overnight at 4°C with anti-TIGIT primary antibody PA5-121546, Invitrogen,

Waltham, MA) followed by three washes with TBST (5 min each). Antibodies against

HSP90 (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA) were used as control housekeeping gene. HRP-

conjugated secondary antibody was applied for 1 hour at RT, followed by three

additional washes with TBST. Proteins were detected using an enhanced

chemiluminescence (ECL) reagent, and signals were visualized using the

chemiluminescence imaging system.

Statistics

For statistical analysis, GraphPad Prism V.10.0 software (La Jolla, CA) was used to

graph the data and perform necessary calculations. Statistical comparisons were

primarily conducted using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple

comparisons. Data are presented as mean ± S.E.M. and a p value threshold of <0.05

was set for determining statistical significance across all experiments. In the summary

dot plots or violin plots, each dot represent individual human value. The p values and

S.E.M are indicated on these plots through error bars.

Supplementary Materials

The PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S5

Tables S1 to S2

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