Platelets drive immune suppression and glioblastoma growth in a sex-dependent manner via PAR4 signaling

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Abstract:

Sex differences in cancer outcomes, including glioblastoma (GBM), are shaped by biological, hormonal, and immune factors, influencing disease progression, treatment responses, survival, and the tumor microenvironment (TME). Platelets, as key regulators of immune responses and tumor progression, may contribute to these sex-based differences by influencing the dynamics of the TME, however, the precise molecular mechanisms remain unclear. Here, we show that GBM patients exhibit heightened platelet reactivity driven by protease-activated receptor 4 (PAR4) signaling. In murine GBM models, targeting PAR4 with BMS986120 prolongs survival in females but not males. This survival advantage is estrogen-dependent and TME-specific, driven by enhanced CD8+ T cell infiltration within the tumor. Inhibiting platelet PAR4 signaling decreases platelet alpha-granule secretion in female tumor-bearing mice while enriching alternative exocytosis pathways, thereby influencing CD8+ T cell activity. PAR4-activated platelets within the TME suppress CD8+ T cell function and CD8+ T cell depletion eliminates the tumor induced platelet reactivity and survival benefit when PAR4 is inhibited. These findings establish platelet-mediated PAR4 signaling as a critical driver of tumor progression and identify sex-specific immune responses as key to therapeutic efficacy.

Introduction

Sex differences in cancer strongly underlie and influence risk, progression, and treatment outcomes. For example, men are more likely to develop several cancer types, including glioblastoma (GBM), while women often exhibit better survival rates. Despite these appreciated epidemiological differences, treatment paradigms remain uniform, highlighting the opportunity for sex-specific therapies shaped by hormonal, genetic, and immune differences. Sex differences in cancer also involves the tumor microenvironment (TME) — a complex network of cells and anatomical structures, including blood vessels, that interact with tumors. Among the components of the TME, platelets play a major role in maintaining vascular integrity and modulating immune responses, offering key insights into the relationship between sex differences and cancer progression. While platelets are present in the TME and known to influence immune cells, their role in cancer, particularly in thrombotic events and sex differences via thrombin-PAR4 signaling, remains underexplored[1-4]. In a recent study, the antiplatelet drug aspirin, which inhibits cyclooxygenase-1, enhanced the protective mechanism of T cells and therefore inhibited metastasis in murine models of malignancy, further suggesting that platelets play a role in mediating cancer progression[5].

In glioblastoma (GBM), the most common primary malignant brain tumor in adults, immune cells in the TME suppress anti-tumor responses. Myeloid cells drive immune suppression in GBM, while lymphocytes, such as CD8+ T cells, are reduced[6-8]. Moreover, GBM has a striking difference in incidence, with men 1.6 times more likely to develop the disease and exhibiting shorter survival[9, 10]. Both intrinsic factors and immune cells such as microglia, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), and CD8+ T cells contribute to these differences[6, 8], with myeloid-derived cells having enhanced proliferation in males and male CD8+ T cells showing a greater propensity for exhaustion. Although platelet-derived factors promote tumor growth, their underlying mechanisms and role in sex-based differences in GBM are unclear[2, 11]. Thrombotic events, such as deep vein thrombosis (DVT) and pulmonary embolism (PE), are common in cancer patients and a leading cause of morbidity and mortality, despite the cause of death not being attributed to intravascular thrombosis[12, 13]. GBM patients face a 15-24% risk of thrombotic events, and patients with thrombotic events have worse outcomes, suggesting that a pro-thrombotic state drives cancer progression[14-17]. Therefore, given the sex differences in the incidence and aggressiveness of GBM that is driven by an immunosuppressive microenvironment more pronounced in males,

we sought to determine whether sex-dependent platelet effects contribute to the immunosuppressive TME in

GBM.

Results

GBM patients have hyperactive platelets via PAR4 signaling

The GBM TME shapes the trajectory of tumor growth and response to therapies. A variety of mechanisms

underlie TME-tumor interactions[18]; however, the role of the platelet is underappreciated. We and others have

previously reported that high platelet counts are temporally related to worsened clinical outcomes in patients with

any malignancy, including GBM[2, 19, 20]. By carefully evaluating the platelet transcriptome in the context of large-

scale datasets, we found that high platelet gene signatures are associated with poor overall survival in GBM

patients (**Figure 1A, Figure S1A**) and negatively correlated with several anti-tumor immune cell populations

including T cells, dendritic cells (DCs), and B cells (**Figure S1B**). This indicates that platelets are a negative

prognostic and immunosuppressive factor in GBM patients.

Next, we asked whether GBM patients have altered platelet physiology when compared to age- and sex

-matched control subjects. We measured platelet reactivity from peripheral blood using assays that measure

degranulation of platelet contents in GBM patients and control subjects. GBM patient platelets had increased

agonist-induced reactivity due to protease-activated receptor 4 (PAR4) signaling (**Figure S1B**). However,

agonist-induced platelet reactivity via protease-activated receptor 1 (PAR1), thromboxane receptor (TXA2), and

purinergic receptor P2Y12 were similar between GBM and control subjects (**Figure S2A-D**). Thrombin is a potent

human platelet agonist that acts via the PAR1 and PAR4 receptors and is quantified by measuring plasma levels

of the thrombin-antithrombin (TAT) complex in GBM patients. We found that GBM patients had significantly

higher levels of TAT relative to healthy age-matched control subjects (**Figure S1C**). Consistently, *in vivo* studies

utilizing murine GBM models demonstrated that tumor-bearing mice had increased platelet reactivity compared

to their baseline pre-tumor state (**Figure S1D, E**). Likewise, across patients with GBM, Mendelian randomization

analysis determined PAR4 expression to be predictive of GBM diagnosis, whereas other platelet receptor

expression was non-predictive (**Figure S3A-C**). This observation is consistent with previous reports indicating

agonist-induced platelet activation and spontaneous platelet activation were both increased in patients with late-

stage metastatic cancer[21] and further suggest that tumor-induced platelet reactivity is mediated by PAR4.

Targeting the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis prolongs survival in a female-specific manner

To investigate the role of platelets in GBM tumor progression, C57BL/6 mice were intracranially transplanted with murine GBM models followed by subsequent depletion of platelets through intravenous administration of an anti-glycoprotein 1b (GP1b) antibody and survival analysis. These proof-of-concept studies demonstrated that platelet depletion prolongs survival in female tumor-bearing mice. Inhibition of platelets had no effect in male mice in both tumor models (**Figure 2A-B, Figure S4A-B**) despite similar levels of platelet depletion (**Figure 2C, Figure S4C**). These results indicate that platelets drive tumor growth in a sex-biased manner, prompting us to question whether targeting the enhanced PAR4-mediated platelet reactivity may also show a sex difference in survival benefit.

We again transplanted C57BL/6 mice with murine GBM models and pharmacologically targeted the major platelet PAR receptor in mice (PAR4) with daily treatment of the PAR4 antagonist BMS986120 via oral gavage. Targeting PAR4 in tumor-bearing mice prolonged survival in a sex-dependent manner, with marked survival in females and no impact in males in all three murine GBM models (**Figure 2D-G**, **Figure 5A, B**). To determine whether these effects were due to higher PAR4 expression in females, we examined intratumoral PAR4 (F2RL3) expression in GBM patient samples (TCGA) and found no difference in expression between tumors from males and those from females (**Figure S5C**). These studies suggest that targeting PAR4 results in prolonged survival in a sex-dependent manner. To ascertain whether effects observed were specific to PAR4 and not an off-target effect of BMS986120, we transplanted tumor cells into PAR4-P310L transgenic animals, which have a 70% reduction in PAR4 function[22]. Consistently, we observed that female PAR4-P310L mice had a longer survival when compared with wildtype animals, whereas we observed no difference in male PAR4-P310L mice (**Figure 2H, I**).

We next investigated whether the prolonged survival observed in female mice may be due to the impact of sex hormones. Based on the prediction that an estrogen response element is present on the PAR4 promoter, we performed ovariectomies on female mice. One month later, we intracranially implanted GBM cells and administered BMS986120. Estrogen depletion rescued any prior survival benefit observed with BMS986120 administration compared to sham-operation control mice (**Figure 2J**). These findings suggest that the survival benefit of targeting PAR4 signaling in females is, at least in part, driven by estrogen, establishing a novel connection between sex hormones and platelet-mediated tumor progression that underpins therapeutic outcomes.

Targeting thrombin-PAR4 signaling enhances CD8+ T cells in a sex-dependent manner

Next, we sought to determine the mechanism by which targeting the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis prolongs survival in a sex-dependent manner. To determine whether the effect of BMS986120 was tumor cell intrinsic, we assessed proliferation in multiple murine GBM cell models treated with BMS986120 and observed no major differences in *in vitro* proliferation (**Figure S5D-F**), suggesting no significant impact on tumor cell fitness with BMS986120 treatment. These results led us to test whether the survival benefit seen in female tumor-bearing mice requires a fully functioning immune system. We intracranially transplanted NOD *scid* gamma (NSG) mice with murine GBM cells and subsequently targeted PAR4 with BMS986120 administration. Pharmacologically targeting PAR4 with BMS986120 in immune-incompetent mice did not show the survival benefit observed in immune-competent models (**Figure 3A, B, Figure S5G, H**). These findings reveal that the survival advantage seen in females when inhibiting the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis depends on a functional immune system.

Platelets are known to influence immune cell function within the TME and in the systemic circulation[23-27]. While heterologous cell interactions are known to impact GBM, the question of whether platelets have sex-dependent effects is unexplored, and no studies have examined how PAR4 signaling regulates the TME across malignancies. To determine how the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis contributes to the TME, we conducted immune profiling on tumor-infiltrating immune cells. We found that BMS986120-treated female mice had an increased percentage of CD45hi/CD3+ cells, specifically CD45hi/CD8+ tumor-infiltrating T cells (**Figure 3B, C Figure S6**), as well as an increase in cytokine expression upon ex vivo stimulation (**Figure 3D**). There were no differences in other TME immune cell subsets (**Figure S7S-F, Figure S8A-F**).

To further validate that the female survival benefit was CD8+ T cell dependent, we intracranially transplanted GBM cells in Rag1-/- mice, which lack T and B cells, and treated with BMS986120. Removing T cells reverses the survival benefit observed when mice were treated with BMS981260 (**Figure 3E**). To isolate the effect specifically to CD8+ T cells, we intracranially implanted murine GBM cells into C57BL/6 mice and administered anti-CD8 depletion antibody in combination with BMS986120. These experiments revealed that depleting CD8+ T cells in the presence of BMS986120 completely rescued the female survival benefit observed when the thrombin-PAR 4 signaling axis was targeted (**Figure 3F, G**). Taken together, our results suggest that the survival benefit of targeting thrombin-PAR4 signaling in GBM is sex dependent, driven by sex hormones, and

179   mediated through platelet interactions with CD8+ T cells in the TME, highlighting a unique platelet-immune

180   mechanism underlying therapeutic outcome.

Targeting PAR4 enhances platelet secretion and exocytosis in a sex-dependent manner

PAR receptors, including PAR4, are thought to be expressed on endothelial cells and T cells[28], implicating

two potential mechanisms that could occur when PAR4 is targeted: a direct enhancement of CD8+ T cells in

females or the inhibition of PAR4 signaling on platelets, which then indirectly enhances CD8+ T cell activity in

females. To this end, we explored PAR expression in human and mouse T cells by utilizing publicly available

datasets. We found that PAR4 was not expressed on T cells from mouse (**Figure S9A-D)** or human (**Figure**

S10A-D). However, mouse (**Figure S9A-D)** and human (**Figure S10A-D**) T cells did express high levels of PAR1.

These results suggest that the increased tumor-infiltrating CD8+ T cells observed when targeting PAR4 in

females is platelet dependent and that platelet signaling likely regulates tumor-infiltrating CD8+ T cells in a sex-

dependent manner via PAR4.

We next determined how the pharmacological targeting of platelet PAR4 signaling alters platelet function

and signaling in tumor-bearing mice. We intracranially transplanted GBM cells and treated mice with BMS986120

for 14 days. Aggregation assays demonstrated that pharmacologically targeting PAR4 for 14 days had no effect

on aggregation/thrombosis in tumor-bearing mice (**Figure 4A**). However, flow cytometry for CD62P on platelets

showed that female tumor-bearing mice had inhibited regulated alpha granule secretion following a 14-day

treatment with BMS986120 (**Figure 4B, D**), whereas the male mice treated with BMS986120 had no change in

alpha granule secretion (**Figure 4C, E**). Proteomic GO enrichment analysis demonstrated that peripheral

platelets from BMS986120-treated female mice had enriched platelet degranulation and exocytosis signaling

pathways (**Figure 4F**). These results suggest that inhibiting alpha-granule secretion yet stimulating other

exocytosis and secretion mechanisms (i.e., dense granule secretion and Weibel Palade bodies) may regulate

tumor infiltrating CD8+ T cells in a sex-dependent manner.

Bidirectional regulation of functions between platelets and CD8+ T cells

203   This and previous work has demonstrated that high platelet counts associate with poor survival in GBM

204   and multiple other malignancies[2, 29-32]. Platelets also interact with and educate the function of other cells including

205   immune cells that have been identified in the TME and within the circulation[23-27], however the role of platelets in

206   regulating the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment remains poorly understood. When CD8+ T cells

were co-cultured with fresh platelets daily, T cell function as measured by intracellular cytokine expression (**Figure 5A, B**) and cytokine secretion (**Figure 5C, D**), were inhibited. This effect could be reversed with BMS986120 treatment of T cells and platelets isolated from female mice but not males (**Figure 5C, D**). In a *in vivo* setting, GBM tumor-bearing immunocompetent mice have constitutively higher platelet reactivity relative to their baseline. However, platelet hyperreactivity is not observed in tumor-bearing NSG mice which lack T, B, and NK cells (**Figure S10**). To further decipher whether tumor-induced platelet reactivity is T cell specific, GBM tumors were induced in RAG1$^{-/-}$ mice which have no B or T cells. In this case, no increase in platelet reactivity was observed (**Figure 5E**). Consistently, we also tested platelet activity in tumor-bearing mice that were pretreated with an anti-CD8 antibody, wherein no enhanced platelet reactivity was found (**Figure 5F**). These results reveal that tumor-induced platelet reactivity in murine glioblastoma (GBM) models is dependent on the presence of immune cells, particularly CD8+ T cells (**Figure 5G**). GBM models is dependent on the presence of immune cells, particularly CD8+ T cells (**Figure 5G**).

Discussion

Our study identifies, for the first time, a novel connection among platelet signaling, hormonal regulation, and immune activity within the GBM TME. We show that PAR4 inhibition selectively enhances survival in female tumor-bearing mice by modulating platelet-driven immune suppression, with no effect in males. Mechanistic studies revealed that this sex-specific response is linked to platelet secretion and exocytosis pathways influenced by estrogen. Upon tumor formation, platelet reactivity and thrombotic markers highlight a pro-thrombotic state that drives immune suppression and disease progression (**Fig. 5G**). Importantly, the sex-dependent effects of PAR4 inhibition suggest an interplay between thrombosis and hormonal regulation that could shape therapeutic outcomes. We demonstrate that targeting platelet PAR4 signaling enhances immune activation and survival in females. This is achieved through an altered TME-tumor immune function, which has been shown to have a sex bias in immune cell subpopulations such as microglia, MDSCs, and T cells [6-8]. This study highlights cancer-associated thrombosis as a key driver of tumor progression, supporting precision medicine strategies that account for sex as a biological variable.

Cancer patients have a significantly higher risk of developing thrombotic events compared to the general population, with an estimated ninefold increase in VTE risk[12, 13, 33, 34]. Recent studies highlight the role of platelet activation in the TME, influencing immune responses and promoting pro-thrombotic conditions[5]. Our work

expands on this concept by demonstrating that tumor formation heightens platelet reactivity through an additional

platelet receptor, PAR4, which directly contributes to immune suppression in a sex-dependent manner. This

underscores how tumors hijack normal physiological processes to create a microenvironment that supports their

progression and survival. Our findings emphasize the need to target cancer-associated thrombosis and platelet

activation as a therapeutic approach, paving the way for innovative strategies that integrate anticoagulation and

immune modulation in precision oncology to reduce risk of cancer-associated mortality.

Targeting PAR4 offers a therapeutic advantage over targeting PAR1 due to its distinct signaling kinetics,

which reduce bleeding risks while still effectively modulating platelet activity[22, 35, 36]. Unlike PAR1, which responds

rapidly to low thrombin concentrations, PAR4 requires higher thrombin levels for activation, leading to more

highly controlled platelet responses and minimizing excessive bleeding complications. Additionally, PAR4

mediates the prolonged signaling necessary for stable thrombus formation, whereas PAR1 activation results in

a rapid, transient signal. By selectively inhibiting PAR4, therapeutic strategies can limit thrombosis while

preserving essential hemostatic functions, reducing the likelihood of severe bleeding events associated with

PAR1 inhibition[22]. Previous work has demonstrated that inhibiting PAR4 enhances CD4+ T regulatory cells,

contributing to immunosuppression[37]; however, our results show that PAR4 inhibition enhanced CD8+ T cell

function in a sex-dependent manner. This could be due to T cells in brain tumors often exhibit exhaustion,

immunosuppression, and altered metabolism, which weaken their ability to combat the tumor effectively[38].

Compared to other tumor types, T cells in brain tumors face heightened challenges due to the brain's unique

immune-privileged status and the suppressive tumor microenvironment, which includes factors like regulatory T

cells and tumor-associated macrophages[39]. These elements contribute to reduced T cell infiltration and impaired

antitumor responses. These findings highlight PAR4 as a more favorable target for platelet inhibition in cancer-

associated thrombosis and other thrombotic disorders in females.

While our findings establish the role of PAR4-mediated platelet signaling in GBM progression and its sex-

dependent therapeutic implications, several limitations remain. Translating results from murine models to human

patients requires further clinical validation across diverse genetic and tumor backgrounds. Additionally, while

estrogen contributes to the survival benefit of PAR4 inhibition, broader hormonal influences on platelet function

and immune modulation warrant further exploration. The therapeutic potential of BMS986120 is promising, but

the long-term efficacy, safety, and off-target effects must be assessed in preclinical and clinical models.

Based on our findings, future research should investigate alternative platelet secretion mechanisms in

shaping immune responses, with proteomic analyses identifying sex-specific signaling pathways that influence

treatment efficacy. Examining how estrogen affects platelet-driven TME dynamics may yield novel hormone-

modulating strategies to complement PAR4-targeted therapies. Expanding these insights into human studies

and developing biomarkers for platelet activity could better predict patient outcomes. Further investigation into

the combination therapy with platelet and immune modulation and synergy could help refine personalized, sex-

specific therapeutic strategies.

Materials and Methods

Cell models

The syngeneic mouse GBM cell line SB28 and KR158 were generously gifted by Dr. Hideho Okada (University of California San Francisco). The GL261 line was from the Developmental Therapeutics Program, NCI. All cell lines were routinely tested for *Mycoplasma* and were preemptively treated with 1:100 MycoRemoval Agent (MP Biomedicals) upon thawing. All cell lines used in these studies were maintained in complete RPMI 1640 (Media Preparation Core, Cleveland Clinic Lerner Research Institute) supplemented with 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Media Preparation Core, Cleveland Clinic Lerner Research Institute). All cell lines were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator.

Mice

All animal experiments were performed in accordance with IACUC policies and guidelines and approved by the IACUC committee at Cleveland Clinic Lerner Research Institute. C57BL/6 (RRID:IMSR_JAX:0006641), RAG1$^{-/-}$ (B6.129S7-Rag1tm1Mom/J; RRID:IMSR_JAX:002216), and NOD.Cg-*Prkdc^{scid} Il2rg^{tm1Wjl}*/SzJ (NSG; RRID:IMSR_JAX:005557) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory as required. PAR4-P310L were a generous gift from Dr. Marvin Nieman at Case Western Reserve University[22].

Intracranial tumor transplantation and treatments

For intracranial tumor implantation, 4- to 7-week-old mice were intracranially injected with 10,000 to 20,000 cells in 10 µL of RPMI-null media, 3 mm caudal to the coronal structure, 1.8 mm lateral to the sagittal suture at a 90° angle with the skull to a depth of 3.0 mm. Animals were monitored daily for neurological symptoms that include lethargy and hunched posture to qualify signs of tumor burden. In some experiments, male and female mice were treated with 2 mg/kg BMS986120 (MedChemExpress) or vehicle (8% DMSO) via oral gavage, daily, beginning 1-7 days post tumor implantation depending on the tumor latency of the model. In other experiments, to deplete CD8+ T cells, mice were intraperitoneally injected with an anti-CD8 antibody (Bio X Cell, Cat. #0061) or isotype control antibody (Bio X Cell, cat. #BE0090). Animals were administered 200 µg of antibody on day -1, followed by 100 µg every 5 days until humane endpoint was reached as previously described[8]. In other experiments, to deplete platelets, anti-GPIbα (EMFRET, Cat. R300) or anti-igG was administered intraperitoneally 1 day post tumor implantation to avoid hemorrhage at a concentration of 1 µg/g. Subsequent administration was done at a concentration of 0.5 µg/g every 5 days until humane endpoint was reached.

Ovariectomy

For oophorectomy procedures, 4- to 7-week-old female mice were deeply anesthetized, and a

longitudinal incision was made 0.5 cm above where the upper border line of the two hind limbs connect with the

back. The skin incision was pulled approximately 0.5 cm horizontally to the left or the right to visualize two soft,

white, shiny fat masses next to the lower pole of the kidneys. The left and right ovaries of the mouse are found

in the respective fat masses and were bi-laterally ovariectomized by cutting each side of the ovary and excising

with sterile surgical scissors, which results in little to no bleeding. After the muscle layer was closed with sutures

and the skin incision was sutured or stapled, the mice were placed in a heated chamber to recover. Mice in the

sham group also underwent a similar procedure as the ovariectomized group, except the ovaries were left intact

and only some adipose tissue near the ovaries was removed.

Human platelet isolation and stimulation

Human platelet isolation was conducted as previously described[40, 41]. In brief, whole blood was collected from

healthy donors into tubes containing 3.2% sodium citrate (BD Vacutainer) using a 21-gauge butterfly needle to

ensure minimal activation during collection. Platelet-rich plasma (PRP) was obtained by centrifuging the collected

blood at 200 x g for 15 minutes at room temperature, carefully avoiding the buffy coat. PRP was then subjected

to a second centrifugation at 200 x g for 15 minutes to further purify the sample. The resulting supernatant was

discarded, and the PRP was diluted 1:1 with Tyrodes buffer. Prostaglandin I2 (PGI2, 10 nM final concentration)

was added to prevent spontaneous platelet activation during the isolation process. The PRP-Tyrode's mixture

was centrifuged at 1,400 x g for 5 minutes to pellet the platelets, and the supernatant was removed. Washed

platelets were resuspended in Tyrode's buffer and diluted 1:10 to achieve a working platelet suspension. Fifty

million platelets per mL was used immediately for subsequent activation assays.

For platelet activation, aliquots of 100 µL of the platelet suspension were stimulated with increasing

concentrations of agonists targeting the PAR1 receptor (TRAP6), the thromboxane receptor (U46619), the

P2Y12 receptor (ADP), and PAR4 (AY-NH2). Agonist concentrations ranged from 0.01 µM to 20 µM for TRAP6,

U46619, and ADP, and from 0.05 µg/mL to 1 µg/mL for CRP. After a 15-minute stimulation at room temperature,

1 µL of P-selectin antibody (anti-CD62P, clone AK-4, eBioscience) conjugated to PE was added to each sample

and incubated in the dark for 30 minutes to prevent photobleaching.

Following antibody staining, 100 μL of 2% formalin was added to each sample to fix the platelets. Fixed

samples were stored at 4°C for no longer than 16 hours prior to analysis. Flow cytometry was performed on a

BD Accuri C6, and fluorescence was detected using the FL-2 channel (for PE-conjugated antibodies). Platelet

activation was quantified based on the surface expression of CD62P, with data analyzed using FlowJo software.

Mouse platelet isolation and stimulation

Whole blood was collected from C57BL/6 mice via retro-orbital bleeding using heparinized capillary

tubes. Blood was drawn into tubes containing heparin/Tyrode's solution (1000 U/mL heparin in Tyrode's buffer,

1:20 dilution). The collected blood was gently mixed by inverting the tube and processed immediately. PRP was

isolated by centrifuging the whole blood at 1000 RPM for 5 minutes at room temperature. Plasma was carefully

collected, avoiding red blood cells, and subjected to a second centrifugation at 1000 RPM for 5 minutes to

remove remaining blood cells. The PRP was then supplemented with 1 μM PGI2 to prevent platelet activation

during isolation. The platelet pellet was obtained by centrifuging PRP at 2700 RPM for 5 minutes, after which

the supernatant was discarded. Platelets were resuspended in Tyrode's buffer and pooled to achieve a final

concentration suitable for stimulation experiments. Platelets were aliquoted into 96-well plates at a concentration

of 100 μL per well for subsequent activation assays.

For platelet activation, 1 μL of each agonist (thrombin, U46619, ADP, convulxin) was added to the

platelets, with final concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 20 μM, depending on the agonist. Platelet stimulation was

carried out at room temperature for 10 minutes. After stimulation, 1 μL of FITC-conjugated anti-CD62P antibody

(clone RB40.34, BD Biosciences) was added to each sample, and the platelets were incubated in the dark for

an additional 10 minutes to prevent photobleaching.

Following staining, 100 μL of 2% formalin was added to fix the platelets, and samples were either

immediately analyzed by flow cytometry or stored at 4°C for up to 16 hours prior to analysis. Flow cytometry was

performed on a BD Accuri C6 cytometer, and data were collected for 10,000 events per sample. The expression

of P-selectin (CD62P) on the platelet surface was used as an indicator of platelet activation, and data analysis

was carried out using FlowJo software.

Immunophenotyping by flow cytometry

At the designated time points, tumor-bearing left hemispheres were enzymatically digested using

collagenase IV (Sigma) and DNase I (Sigma) to generate a single-cell suspension, a Percoll centrifugation step,

followed by filtration through a 40-μm strainer. Cells were first stained with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Stains (Thermo

Fisher) on ice for 15 minutes, washed with PBS, and resuspended in an Fc receptor blocker (Miltenyi Biotec)

diluted in PBS/2% BSA, followed by incubation on ice for 10 minutes. Surface staining was performed using

fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies diluted in brilliant buffer (BD Biosciences) at a concentration of 1:100 to

1:250, with a 30-minute incubation on ice. After a subsequent wash in PBS/2% BSA, cells were fixed overnight

using Foxp3/Transcription Factor Fixation Buffer (eBioscience).

For intracellular staining, antibodies were prepared in Foxp3/Transcription Factor Permeabilization Buffer

at 1:250 to 1:500 and incubated at room temperature for 45 minutes. To detect intracellular cytokines, cells were

stimulated in complete RPMI medium using a Cell Stimulation Cocktail with a protein transport inhibitor

(eBioscience) for 4 hours. Following stimulation, cells underwent the same staining procedures as described

above.

In vitro CD8+ T cell culture

CD8+ T cells were extracted from the splenocytes of C57BL/6 mice using a magnetic bead isolation kit

(STEMCELL Technologies), following established protocols. The cells were then maintained in complete RPMI

medium supplemented with recombinant human IL-2 (30 U/mL, PeproTech) and activated using anti-CD3/anti-

CD28 Dynabeads (Invitrogen) at a bead-to-cell ratio of 1:10. In addition, platelets were isolated as previously

described and incorporated into the T cell culture for three consecutive days at a 1:1 ratio of CD8+ T cells to

platelets. Cells subsequently underwent the same staining procedures outlined above.

Analysis of previously published scRNA-seq data

Patient samples and datasets

This study utilized WHO grade 4 IDH wildtype GBM samples from four publicly available datasets: The Cancer

Genome Atlas (TCGA), Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA_325, CGGA_893), and Glioma Longitudinal

Analysis (GLASS).

Immune Cell Profiling

The relative abundance of 22 immune cell subtypes within each tumor sample from each dataset was estimated

using CIBERSORTx with default parameters and the LM22 signature gene set. Additionally, a gene signature

for platelet expression (REACTOME_RESPONSE_TO_ELEVATED_PLATELET_CYTOSOLIC_CA2, MSigDB)

was scored for each sample using single sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA).

Univariate survival analysis

To evaluate the prognostic significance of immune cell infiltration, univariate Cox proportional hazards models

were constructed for each estimated immune cell population (including the Platelet Sig score) within each

dataset. Immune cell proportions and platelet signature score were z-score normalized and centered prior to

hazard ratio computation. Immune cell abundance and platelet signature score (platelet_sig) were dichotomized

at the median value for each cell type within each respective dataset. The resulting hazard ratios (HRs) for overall

survival are presented, with error bars indicating the 95% confidence intervals.

Immune cell correlation analysis

Spearman correlation coefficients between the estimated abundances of the major immune cell types and

platelet gene signature score were computed. Correlation coefficients were computed for each of the major

immune cell subtypes (B Cells, Dendritic Cells (DC), T Cells, NK Cells, Mast Cells, Microglia, Monocytes, and

Macrophages) within each dataset (CGGA_325, GLASS, TCGA).

PAR4 expression analysis in cell subtypes

To investigate the expression profile of the PAR4 gene (also known as F2RL3) across different cell populations

within the GBM TME, we analyzed single-cell RNA sequencing data from the GBMap dataset. The expression

level of PAR4 was assessed for various identified cell subtypes as previously annotated. A dot plot (Seurat v5)

was generated to visualize the results.

Mendelian Randomization Analysis

The European Ancestry consortium was used for this analysis. Genetic variants (G), typically single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs), serve as instrumental variables (IVs) to assess the causal effect of an exposure (X; e.g.,

platelet count) on an outcome (Y; e.g., glioma risk). For the causal inference to be valid, three key assumptions

must be satisfied: IV1 (Relevance) — the genetic instruments must be robustly associated with the exposure,

typically derived from genome-wide association studies (GWAS); IV2 (Independence) — the genetic instruments

must not be associated with confounding variables (U) that jointly influence both the exposure and the outcome;

and IV3 (Exclusion Restriction) — the instruments must affect the outcome solely through the exposure and not

via any alternative biological pathways. The DAG visualizes how genetic variants influence the outcome only via

their effect on the exposure, assuming no horizontal pleiotropy or confounding from unmeasured variables.

Code and data availability

All data used for the above analyses are publicly available through the TCGA, CGGA, GLASS, and GBMap datasets, including clinical and cell type metadata. Immune cell signatures are available through CIBERSORTx, and the platelet gene signature is available through MSigDB. All analyses were performed in R version 4.3.0, and all code to reproducibly perform these analyses will be provided on Github.

Statistical analysis

Data visualization and statistical analysis were conducted using GraphPad Prism (Version 9, GraphPad Software Inc., RRID:SCR_002798). Depending on the dataset, unpaired or paired t-tests, as well as one-way or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with multiple comparison adjustments, were applied as described in the figure legends. Survival analysis was evaluated using the log-rank test. For all analysis, statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Data Availability

All data generated in this study are available upon request from the corresponding author, Dr. Justin D. Lathia (lathiaj@ccf.org).

Ethics Declaration

Competing interests

Authors declare no competing interest.

Code availability

All code to reproducibly perform these analyses will be provided on Github. Additionally, all code used in this study are available upon request from the corresponding author, Dr. Justin D. Lathia (lathiaj@ccf.org).

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Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1

Figure 1. GBM patients have hyperactive platelets via PAR4 signaling. A. WHO grade 4 IDH wildtype GBM samples from the publicly available data sets The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA_325). Univariate Cox proportional hazards models were constructed, and deconvoluted immune cell proportions and platelet signature score were z-score normalized and centered prior to hazard ratio computation. Hazard ratios depicted describe overall survival with 95% confidence intervals as a function of immune cell proportion or platelet signature score. **B**. Washed platelets isolated from patients with a GBM diagnosis and matched control subjects were treated with AY-NH2 to stimulate PAR4, and α-granule secretion was measured using an antibody specific for P-selectin via flow cytometry. Data are represented as means ± SEM from *n*=18 GBM patients and *n*=13 control patients. Two-way ANOVA was performed. **C**. Thrombin-antithrombin (TAT) expression in plasma from GBM and healthy patient platelets as measured by TAT ELISA. An unpaired student's *t*-test was performed. (**D-E**) Washed platelets were isolated from mice before intracranial tumor implantation (baseline) and following intracranial injection of the murine GBM SB28 (**D**) and KR158 (**E**). Following tumor formation, washed platelets were isolated, and α-granule secretion was measured using an antibody specific for P-selectin via flow cytometry. Data are represented as means ± SEM from n=4 independent experiments. Two-way ANOVA was performed.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Targeting platelets via the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis prolongs survival in a sex-dependent manner. A, **B**. Kaplan-Meier survival curves depicting survival of SB28 tumor-bearing female (**A**) and male (**B**) mice treated with anti-GP1bα depleting antibody. Statistical significance for survival analysis was determined by log-rank test. (**C**). Complete blood count (CBC) platelet reading 1 day post anti-GP1bα to validate platelet depletion in the tumor-bearing mice used in panels a and b. One-way ANOVA analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis was performed after intracranial transplantation of the mouse GBM cell models SB28 (**D, E**) and KR158 (**F, G**) in immunocompetent C57BL/6 mice followed by pharmacologically targeting the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis by administering BMS986120 (2 mg/kg), a selective PAR4 inhibitor. **H**, **I.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis comparing male (**H**) and female (**I**) C57BL/6 wildtype and C57BL/6 - PAR-P310L mice following intracranial transplantation of the mouse GBM cell model SB28. **J**. Survival analysis of C57BL/6 female mice who underwent an ovariectomy or sham procedure and were intracranially transplanted with SB28 cells 30 days post ovariectomy and subsequently treated with BMS986120 (2 mg/kg). Statistical significance for survival analysis was determined by log-rank test.

Figure 3

Figure 3. Targeting thrombin-PAR4 signaling enhances CD8+ T cells in a sex-dependent manner. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis was performed after intracranial injection of the mouse GBM cell model SB28 in immunodeficient NSG mice followed by pharmacologically targeting the thrombin-PAR4 signaling axis by administering BMS986120 (2 mg/kg), a selective PAR4 inhibitor (**A**). **B-C**. Frequency of tumor-infiltrating T-cell subsets 35 days post intracranial implantation of KR158 (**B**) and 14 days post intracranial implantation of SB28 (**C**) in male and female C57BL/6 mice treated with and without BMS986120. Data are combined from two independent experiments. One-way ANOVA analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed. **D**. Intracellular cytokine expression in tumor-infiltrating CD8+ T cells. Data are combined from two independent experiments. One-way ANOVA analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed. **E**. Kaplan-Meier survival curve depicting survival of SB28-bearing RAG1-/- female mice treated with BMS986120. **F-G**. Kaplan-Meier survival curves depicting survival of SB28 tumor-bearing female mice (**f**) and KR158 tumor-bearing female mice (**G**) treated with anti-CD8-depleting antibody with BMS986120 administration. Statistical significance for survival analysis was determined by log-rank test.

671 **Figure 4**

Figure 4. Targeting PAR4 enhances platelet secretion and exocytosis in a sex-dependent manner. A.
Aggregometry analysis of washed platelets isolated from mice treated with BMS986120 following intracranial
implantation of SB28 and stimulated with 0.5 U thrombin. Statistical significance was determined by a two-way
ANOVA. **B-E.** Washed platelets isolated from mice treated with BMS986120 following intracranial implantation
of SB28 (**B, C**) or KR158 (**D, E**). Washed platelets were isolated, and α-granule secretion was measured using
an antibody specific for P-selectin. Data are represented as means ± SEM. Statistical significance was
determined by two-way ANOVA. **F**. Proteomic GO enrichment analysis of washed platelets isolated from mice
treated with BMS986120 following intracranial implantation of SB28. Pathways are positively enriched in female
BMS986120 platelets and negatively enriched in male BMS986120 platelets.

Figure 5

Figure 5. Bidirectional regulation between platelets and CD8+ T cells. A, B. Intracellular cytokine expression of CD8+ T cells isolated from C57BL/6 mouse spleen and co-cultured with sex-matched washed platelets isolated from B6 wildtype mice; fresh platelets were added for 3 consecutive days, and intracellular TNF (A) and IFNγ (B) expression was measured by flow cytometry. One-way ANOVA analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed. C, D. IFNγ cytokine secretion from male (C) and female (D) CD8+ T cells isolated from C57BL/6 mouse spleen and co-cultured with sex-matched washed platelets isolated from C57BL/6 mice; fresh platelets were added for 3 consecutive days, and supernatant IFNγ secretion was measured by ELISA. One-way ANOVA analysis with Tukey's multiple comparison test was performed. E, F. Washed platelets isolated from RAG1-/- mice (C) and C57BL/6-CD8-depleted mice (D) before intracranial tumor implantation (baseline) and two weeks following intracranial injection of SB28 cells. Washed platelets were isolated, and α-granule secretion was measured using an antibody specific to P-selectin via flow cytometry. Data are represented as means ± SEM from n=4 independent experiments. G. Proposed model suggesting platelet-mediated PAR4 signaling is as a critical driver of tumor progression and identifying sex-specific immune responses as key to therapeutic efficacy.