Murine models for triple-negative breast cancer with differential responsiveness to immunotherapy

Thomas J Kalantzakos,[1] Yufan Zhou,[1] Xingyu Liu,[1] Joshua Proehl,[1] Cameron Durfee,[1] Ian Tamayo[1], Nuri Alpay Temiz,[2,3] Benjamin Troness,[1] Anusha Soni,[1] Harshita B Gupta,[1,#] & Reuben S Harris[1,4,#]

[1]Department of Biochemistry and Structural Biology, Long School of Medicine, University of Texas Health San Antonio, San Antonio, Texas, USA; [2]Institute for Health Informatics, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA; [3]Masonic Cancer Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA; [4]Howard Hughes Medical Institute, University of Texas Health San Antonio, San Antonio, Texas, USA

[#]Correspondence: GuptaH@uthscsa.edu or rsh@uthscsa.edu

ABSTRACT

Breast cancer is the most common cancer diagnosis in women. Clinical studies with triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) are encouraging for immunotherapy combined with chemotherapy (anti-PD-1 with paclitaxel and/or carboplatin). However, additional clinical advances may be pursued more rapidly with assistance from preclinical TNBC models including syngeneic mammary tumor cell lines. Here, we report two mammary tumor cell lines that exhibit differential responsiveness to immunotherapy *in vivo*. Spontaneous mammary tumors from C57BL/6J MMTV-Cre Trp53$^{fl/+}$ animals were passaged serially in cell culture and *in vivo* in the mammary fat pad of fully wildtype animals. The resulting lines, MM001i and MM008i, lost *Trp53* and formed 1000 mm^3 tumors in the mammary fat pad within 21-28 days. Despite originating from the same genetic background, these lines exhibit differential responses to immunotherapy. For anti-PD-1 therapy, MM001i is poorly responsive and MM008i is strongly responsive with near-complete tumor regression. In comparison, both MM001i and MM008i respond rapidly to anti-CTLA-4 therapy. Both models express unique tumor antigens as evidenced by immunity to subsequent engraftments. Primary MM008i tumors exhibit greater T cell infiltration, and CD8-positive T lymphocytes are required for anti-PD-1 responses. These TNBC models are promising for further mechanistic studies and testing future single and combinatorial therapies.

KEYWORDS: anti-tumor immune responses; checkpoint therapy; immunotherapy; syngeneic murine tumor models; triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC)

Introduction

Breast cancer is the most commonly diagnosed malignancy worldwide and a leading cause of cancer-related death in women.[1, 2] Clinically, breast cancer is characterized based on expression of estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), and/or human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2). Triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) lacks expression of these three markers, accounts for 15-20% of breast cancer diagnoses, and is associated with poor clinical outcomes.[3] For example, 30-40% of TNBC patients exhibit tumor recurrence within 3-5 years of the initial diagnosis and treatment.[4, 5] The most common genetic defect in TNBC is mutation of *TP53* (hereafter *p53*) in 75-80% of cases,[6, 7] with most tumors incurring full loss-of-function alleles.[8] TNBC tumors are highly heterogeneous and often subdivided into six molecular clusters: basal-like 1, basal-like 2, immunomodulatory, mesenchymal, mesenchymal stem-like, and luminal androgen receptor subtypes.[9]

Several clinical trials have demonstrated the benefit of immunotherapy approaches in TNBC, particularly through monoclonal antibody (mAb) targeting of programmed cell death protein 1 (PD-1) and cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4). The efficacy of immunotherapy, particularly anti-PD-1 antibody therapy (αPD-1), in combination with chemotherapy, is becoming established in both primary and metastatic TNBC settings. In the KEYNOTE-522 clinical trial, adding αPD-1 to neoadjuvant chemotherapy (paclitaxel and carboplatin followed by doxorubicin/epirubicin and cyclophosphamide) in early TNBC improved pathological complete response from 51% to 65%.[10] Further, the KEYNOTE-355 trial, conducted on advanced TNBC patients, demonstrated a robust increase in overall survival when combining αPD-1 and chemotherapy in patients with high programmed cell death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) expression.[11] Emerging studies are also evaluating combination immunotherapy approaches. For example, the BELLINI trial is investigating dual inhibition of PD-1 and CTLA-4, showing signs of efficacy in early-stage TNBC.[12] Additionally, bi-specific antibodies targeting PD-1 and CTLA-4 combined with

paclitaxel have shown survival benefits for TNBC patients in the metastatic setting.[13] Additional

trials are ongoing that combine immunotherapies with radiation therapy and/or chemotherapy

(*e.g.*, NCT04683679, NCT05491226, NCT06472583). However, despite these recent advances,

a large subset of TNBC patients still suffers from disease progression, which warrants further

mechanistic and therapeutic studies.

Syngeneic murine models are useful for preclinical evaluation of candidate therapeutics

in vivo. To date, only a few murine syngeneic models for TNBC have been reported. The first,

E0771, was derived in 1955 from a spontaneously occurring breast adenocarcinoma in a C57BL/6

background.[14] Treatment of this model with αPD-1 leads to partial tumor regression[15] and

enhanced efficacy when combined with other agents.[16] αPD-1 and αCTLA-4 therapies also

associate with increases in circulating CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes in this model.[16, 17] However, it is an

older model and reports conflict on several key properties including genotype and hormone

receptor status.[18-20] Another commonly used line is 4T1, isolated from a metastatic tumor in a

BALB/c animal.[21] However, this line is poorly responsive to immunotherapy due at least in part to

a Th2-biased immune response.[22, 23] Other models, such as PyMT,[24] AT-3,[25] and WT145[26] are

additionally complicated by viral transgenes and/or chemical exposures.

Here, we report the development of two new cell lines, MM001-immunoconditioned

(MM001i) and MM008i, derived from mammary tumors that arose on C57BL/6J background.

Briefly, the primary mammary tissues were engineered to be heterozygous for *p53*, but the second

copy was lost during tumor development in both cell lines. Serial passage in culture and *in vivo*

resulted in MM001i and MM008i, which form 1000 mm^3 tumors approximately 21-28 days after

engraftment. Both lines are negative for ER, PR, and HER2 (triple-negative) and provoke anti-

tumor immune responses, as evidenced by immune memory formation and acquired resistance

to additional challenge by the same tumor cell line. Both lines also respond to αCTLA-4

immunotherapy, but only MM008i responds to αPD-1 immunotherapy. This differential

responsiveness is dependent on CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes and may be attributable to improved

immune cell infiltration in MM008i tumors (CD45$^+$ immune cells, CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes). Taken

together, these syngeneic tumor lines constitute new models for TNBC and provide a foundation

for additional studies on molecular mechanisms and responsiveness of different

immunotherapies.

Materials and Methods

Mouse care

All animal studies were approved by the University of Texas Health San Antonio (UT

Health) Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC Protocol ID: 20220056AR) and

conducted in accordance with ARRIVE guidelines 2.0.[27] The study period was 2023-2025. "Guide

for the care and use of laboratory animals" guidelines were followed, and the study adhered to

the principles of 3Rs (Replace, Reduce, and Refine). The Lab Animal Resources (LAR) facilities

at UT Health are AAALAC (accredited unit: #000341) and USDA (registration number: 74-R-0071)

approved. 24/7/365 LAR staff include veterinarians, facility staff, and animal technicians for

services including complete husbandry, routine monitoring, examination of mice health and

supportive care. 3-5 animals per cage were housed in specific pathogen-free conditions

maintained at 22°C under a standard 12-hour light/dark cycle and given food and water *ad libitum*.

Initial breeder pairs for WT (Jax strain 000664) and NOD.Cg-Prkdc^{scid}Il2rg^{tm1Wj1}/SzJ [nonobese

diabetic/severe combined immunodeficiency (NOD/SCID)/IL2Rγ KO, NSG, Jax strain 005557]

mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA) and then propagated in-

house. NSG mice were maintained under sterile conditions. 8-10 weeks-old mice were enrolled

for tumor studies. All immunocompetent mice were on C57BL/6J background, and only females

were used for mammary tumor experiments.

Mice were checked one day post-injection, and then twice a week for tumor growth,

morbidity, weight loss, and dehydration. Mice were euthanized if they were in distress, lost >20%

body weight, showed a body score <2, and/or reached experimental end points such as 1000

mm^3 tumor volumes. The signs of distress included but were not limited to dehydration, cachexia,

weakness, ruffled body fur, or hunched back. Euthanasia was done as recommended by the

American Veterinary Medical Association guidelines for the Euthanasia of Animals. Briefly, mice

were subjected to inhalation of 99% pure CO_2 with a fill rate of 30-70% chamber volume/minute

for 2 minutes followed by cervical dislocation. Anesthesia was not used for the experiments

performed for this study.

Tumor harvesting from mice

MMTV-Cre p53$^{fl/+}$ mice were bred initially at the University of Minnesota and subsequently

at UT Health prior to the present studies. Genotypes were confirmed via PCR[28] using primers:

1F: 5'-TAACACTCTTGGGATGCTGAG-3', 10F: 5'-AAGGGGTATGAGGGACAAGG-3', and 10R: 5'-

GAAGACAGAAAAGGGGAGGG-3'. Spontaneously arising primary mammary tumors in these

mice were extracted under sterile conditions, and single-cell suspensions were made by tumor

dissection and mechanical dissociation. Cells were transferred to a cell culture flask in RPMI-

1640 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum

(FBS, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (complete medium, Thermo

Fisher Scientific), under standard culturing conditions (37°C, 5% CO_2). Once the cells reached

80% confluence, cells were harvested by 0.05% trypsin-EDTA (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific)

for engraftment into mice. Freeze downs were made simultaneously in 90% FBS/10% DMSO

(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). All cell lines were confirmed to be free of mycoplasma

contamination by detection kit (catalog no. LT07-318, Lonza Bioscience, Walkersville, MD, USA)

prior to freezing or experimental use. Cultured cells in passage 3 or 4 were used for subsequent

characterization and engraftment studies, which we have found yield reproducible results across

multiple biological replicates.

Serial passage to develop conditioned cell lines

Cells were trypsinized, washed with endotoxin-free, sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and combined at 1:1 ratio with Cultrex Basement Membrane Extract, PathClear (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA) for a final cell count as indicated (2.5 or 5 x 10^6 cells) in a final volume of 100 µL per injection. Cells were injected subcutaneously or into the 4th inguinal mammary fat pads of mice. Initial engraftments were conducted in both WT and NSG mice. As tumors successfully engrafted in both strains, subsequent engraftments for serial passage were conducted in WT mice alone. At day 7, tumors were measured using Vernier caliper (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and then monitored twice a week until reaching a volume of 1000 mm^3 using the equation V=0.5 x L x W^2.[29] Tumors reaching 1000 mm^3 were subsequently isolated post-humane mouse euthanasia. The process was repeated for at least two rounds per cell line.

Flow cytometry

MM001i or MM008i cells were plated overnight in 6-well plates in complete medium (3 x 10^5 cells/well). Cells were then incubated with fresh complete medium supplemented with either vehicle or interferon-gamma (IFN-γ) (R&D Systems) for 24 hours. Cells were harvested and counted using the Countess cell counter (Thermo Fisher Scientific). 1 x 10^6 cells per condition were analyzed for subsequent steps. Cells were washed with PBS, stained for live/dead dye (Zombie Yellow Fixable Viability dye) in PBS for 40 min at 4°C in the dark. Cells were washed in 1x PBS and incubated with anti-CD16/32 (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA) in flow buffer (PBS + 2% FBS) to prevent non-specific antibody binding for 30 minutes at 4°C, followed by incubation with anti-mouse PD-L1 (PE, clone 10F.9G2), H-2KB (Pacific Blue, clone AF6-88.5), or matched isotype controls (BioLegend). Cells were fixed in 0.4% buffered formalin. Cells were acquired using BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences, San Juan, CA, USA) and analyzed using FACSDiva and FlowJo 10.10.0 (BD Biosciences). Positivity thresholds were determined based on isotype control

166   staining.

Immunotherapy experiments

2.5×10^6 MM001i or MM008i cells were suspended in 50 µL endotoxin-free PBS. An equal

volume of basement membrane was added to reach a final volume of 100 µL/injection. For all

immunotherapy experiments, mice were randomized manually to equalize numbers across

treatment groups. Mice with no palpable tumor by day 7 (tumor vol < 200 mm³) were excluded

due to likely failed injection (<25% of injections). Each mouse received two injections (one per

inguinal mammary fat pad), and the sample size for each group was based on the total number

of animals enrolled for each condition. On day 7, an initial tumor measurement was taken as

previously described. Tumors were monitored twice a week, and the mice were euthanized when

tumors reached 1000 mm³, or when they displayed signs of distress. 7 days post-injection, each

mouse received an intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of 100 µg of αPD-1 (catalog no. BE0146, clone

RMP1-14, BioXCell NH, USA), αCTLA-4 (catalog no. BE0131, clone 9H10, BioXCell), a

combination of the two, or their respective isotype controls (catalog # BE0089 and BE0087,

BioXCell). Mice injected with MM001i received two additional treatments on days 12 and 19.

Memory response experiments

WT mice with complete tumor regression in response to immunotherapy were enrolled in

memory rechallenge experiments. For MM001i, this consisted of one mouse previously treated

with αPD-1 and four that received αCTLA-4 or a combination of αPD-1 and αCTLA-4. Additionally,

five animals were enrolled that completely cleared MM008i tumors from each treatment group. 90

days after the last tumor evaluation, mice were reinjected with 2.5×10^6 cells of the initial cell line

at the same inguinal mammary fat pad. No further treatments were administered. Tumors were

measured beginning 7 days post-injection and monitored as above until the endpoint was

reached. The control group consisted of age-matched, naïve, previously unchallenged WT mice

injected with the same tumor cell line as the rechallenge group but not treated with any

immunotherapy agent.

Immunohistochemistry

IHC was performed as previously described.[30] In brief, FFPE tissues and cell pellets were

sectioned at 4 μm and mounted on positively charged glass slides. The slides were deparaffinized

at 65°C for 20 minutes, rehydrated with three 5-minute washes in CitriSolv (Decon Labs,

Swedeland, Pennsylvania, USA) followed by 3-minute washes in graded ethanol to 80%, and

finished with a 5-minute wash in running water. Antigen retrieval was performed in 1x Reveal

Decloaker (Biocare Medical, Pacheco, California, USA) by steaming for 35 minutes and returned

to room temperature with 30 minutes off the steamer. The slides were washed for 5 minutes in

running water and then in tris-buffered saline with 0.1% tween (TBST, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Endogenous peroxidase activity was suppressed by soaking slides in 3% H_2O_2 diluted in TBST

for 10 minutes, followed by a 5-minute wash in running water. The slides were soaked in

Background Sniper (Biocare Medical) for 15 minutes, immediately followed by overnight

incubation of primary antibody diluted using 10% Sniper in TBST at 4°C. The following primary

antibodies were used: αER (Catalog no. AB32063, 1:2000, Abcam, Cambridge, UK), αPR

(Catalog no. 25871-AP-1, 1:10000, ProteinTech, Rosemont, Illinois, USA), αHER2 (Catalog no.

CST2165S, 1:1000, Cell Signaling Technologies, Danvers, Massachusetts, USA), αCD3 (Catalog

no. AB135372, 1:250, Abcam), αCD8 (Catalog no. AB209775, 1:600, Abcam) and αCD19

(Catalog no. AB317335, 1:600, Abcam). After overnight incubation, the slides were brought to

room temperature and washed in TBST for 5 minutes. Next, they were incubated with Novolink

Polymer (Lieca Biosystems, Deer Park, Illinois, USA) for 30 minutes and developed using

Novolink DAB substrate kit (Lieca Biosystems) for 5 minutes. Slides were immediately washed in

running water to quench substrate development and counterstained for 10 minutes using Mayer's

hematoxylin solution (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, Pennsylvania, USA). Slides were

then dehydrated in degraded alcohols and CitriSolv and then cover-slipped using Permount

mounting media (Fisher Scientific).

Immune cell infiltration analysis by IHC

MM001i and MM008i sections were used to assess the infiltration of T and B lymphocytes

in n=4-5 tumors. T cells and B cells were visualized using αCD3 and αCD19 antibodies

respectively, as described above. T cell and B cell densities were calculated using QuPath v0.5.1

bioimage analysis software using the positive cell detection algorithm. 5 random uniform regions

of interest (ROIs) were selected within each tumor section and cell density was averaged for all

ROIs per tumor.

Immune cell infiltration analysis by flow cytometry

Mice were euthanized, and tumors were harvested once the mean group volume reached

750 mm^3. Tumors were digested, and single-cell suspensions were made using 0.3 mg Liberase

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 0.2 mg DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich) per tumor in incomplete RPMI-

1640. Tumors were mechanically dissociated, minced and incubated with shaking at 37°C for 30

minutes. Cell suspensions were harvested, passed through 70 μM strainers, and counted. 5 x 10^6

cells were stained for surface markers as above. Cells were incubated with αCD16/32 to prevent

non-specific antibody binding as above, followed by staining with αCD45 (FITC), αCD3 (PE-Cy7),

αCD8 (APC-Cy7), αCD4 (Bv786), αCD62L (Bv711), αPD-1 (PerCP-Cy5), αCD44 (Pacific Blue),

αTIM3 (APC), or αGr1 (Bv786), αCD86 (APC-Cy7), αCD11c (PE), αCD11b (PerCP-Cy5), αB220

(AF700), αNK1.1 (APC) post live/dead staining (Zombie Yellow Fixable Viability dye). All

antibodies and Zombie Yellow Fixable Viability dye were purchased from BioLegend. Cells were

washed, fixed in 0.4% buffered formalin, and analyzed as mentioned above.

CD8^{+} neutralization experiments

2.5 x 10^6 MM008i cells were injected into the mammary fat pads of immunocompetent WT

mice as previously described. On day 6, initial tumor measurements were taken, and mice were

randomized into groups. On days 6, 9, and 12, each mouse received an i.p. injection of 200 µg of

αCD8 antibody (catalog no. BE0004-1, clone 53-6.7, BioXCell) or its isotype control (catalog no.

BE0089, clone 2A3, BioXCell). On day 7, each mouse received a single i.p. injection of 100 µg of

αPD-1 or its isotype control, as previously described. Tumors were measured biweekly, and mice

were euthanized at day 25 or when tumor volumes reached 1000 mm^3. At day 13 and before

complete tumor regression, a small subset of tumors representing each treatment group were

isolated to assess immune infiltration of CD8^{+} T lymphocytes by immunohistochemistry.

Bulk RNA-sequencing of MM001i and MM008i cell lines and tumors

RNA from two biological replicates each of MM001i and MM008i grown in culture were

isolated using the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Three biological replicates

of RNA from MM001i and MM008i tumors each were isolated using the Qiagen AllPrep DNA/RNA

Mini kit (Qiagen). Tumor tissues were mechanically homogenized in lysis buffer containing β-

mercaptoethanol using a glass Dounce homogenizer, followed by repeated aspiration through a

syringe for disruption. RNA quality was confirmed by Nanodrop spectrophotometer. Stranded

RNA-seq libraries were prepared in collaboration with the Genome Sequencing Facility at UT

Health for paired-end 100 bp sequencing. The sequencing raw reads were mapped to the mm10

Mus Musculus reference genome with HISAT2 v2.1.0[31], and gene counts were calculated with

htseq-count. Comprehensive gene expression data for cultured cells and tumors of each cell line

are available in Supplementary Table 1. Enrichment of KEGG signaling was conducted using the

top 1000 expressed genes of each cell line in each condition, with specific focus on immune

pathways, cancer cell pathways, and epithelial cell pathways. The input genes and enriched

pathways for MM001i and MM008i cultured cells and tumors are available in Supplementary Table

2. Differentially expressed genes in both datasets were identified with DEseq2 v1.40.2[32] by cutoff

of log2 fold change > 2 and adjusted *P* value < 0.01 for tumors and < 0.05 in culture (*P* value by

Wald test and *P* value adjustment by Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment).

Single-cell expression profiling

Three mammary tumors each of MM001i and MM008i were collected from six individual

mice. Single-cell suspensions were prepared for the 10X Genomics Chromium system using a

tumor dissociation kit (catalog no. 130-096-730, Miltenyi Biotec, San Diego, CA, USA) at a final

concentration of 1000 cells/uL. Single-cell RNA sequencing was performed in collaboration with

the Genome Sequencing Facility at UT Health according to the technical manual. Raw

sequencing reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome mm10 using 10x Genomics Cell

Ranger. Feature-barcode matrices were generated with Cell Ranger's count pipeline. Subsequent

analysis was performed in Seurat (v4.4.0)[33] using the following workflow: a Seurat object was

created with CreateSeuratObject using thresholds of min.cells = 3 (genes detected in ≥3 cells)

and min.features = 500 (cells expressing ≥500 genes). Cells with >30% mitochondrial transcript

content (percent.mt < 30) were excluded via subset. For MM001i, a total of 57,866 cells were

profiled and, after filtering, 40,645 cells remained in the analysis. For MM008i, 56,804 cells were

profiled and 39,726 cells remained after filtering. For each tumor model, cells were pooled and

clusters identified using FindClusters with a resolution parameter of 0.5. Cell types were identified

manually with curated cell markers: T cells: *Cd3g*, *Cd3d*, *Cd3e*, *Cd247*; B cells: *Cd19*, *B220*;

Macrophages: *Cd74, Cd14*, *Csf1r*; Endothelial cells: *Esam*, *Pecam1*; Stromal cells: *Fn1*, *Fap*,

Acta2, S100a4; Basal cells: *Krt14, Krt5, Krt17*; Epithelial cells: *Cdh1, Krt8, Krt18, Krt19*; Cancer

cells: *Acta2, Aldh1a3, Cd24a, Cdh1, Cdh2, Erbb2, Kit, Krt7, Mfge8, Myc, Pgr, Prlr, Tjp1, Top2a*,

Twist1.

Nomenclature

295   Throughout the manuscript, gene and transcript names are denoted with italics and protein

296   names with non-italics. All gene/protein names are capitalized fully regardless of species, except

297   for tumor gene expression analyses which use mouse nomenclature (first letter capitalized).

Statistical analysis

300   Calculations were done using Microsoft Excel software, and statistical analyses were

301   performed using GraphPad Prism software version 10.3.1 (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA, USA). Data

302   were plotted as means ± standard deviation. For tumor growth, Two-way analysis of variance

303   (ANOVA) was used to compare replicate means between multiple groups. Unpaired Student's *t*-

304   test was used to compare individual means. *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Generation of murine mammary tumor cell lines MM001i and MM008i

Two spontaneously arising mammary tumors were harvested from independent C57BL/6J

MMTV-Cre p53$^{fl/+}$ mice, and cell lines were generated by serial passage in culture and *in vivo*

(Supplementary Figure 1A; Materials and Methods). Primary tumors were isolated under sterile

conditions and expanded in culture to obtain sufficient cells for cryopreservation and engraftment

studies. 5 x 10^6 cells were injected into the mammary fat pad or subcutaneously in severely

immunocompromised NSG mice, and tumor formation occurred rapidly within 14-21 days as

expected in most animals regardless of injection site (not shown). However, parallel engraftments

of 5 x 10^6 cells into the same anatomical locations in fully immunocompetent C57BL/6J (WT)

animals only led to tumor formation in the mammary fat pad (Supplementary Figure 1).

Representative tumors from the first mammary fat pad engraftment were expanded in culture and

used in a second mammary fat pad engraftment. After two (MM001i) or three (MM008i) rounds of

culturing and engraftment, these cell lines formed stable and reproducible mammary tumors

(Supplementary Figure 1D,H). For post-tertiary mammary fat pad engraftments in WT mice, 2.5

x10[6] cells were sufficient to form tumors in 21-28 days with at least 70% efficiency. Therefore, this

cell number was used for all subsequent experiments.

MM001i and MM008i tumors are potential models for human TNBC

As these tumor cell lines had been generated from mice with mammary-specific

heterozygosity for *p53*, PCR was used to determine the genotype of this locus (Supplementary

Figure 2A; primers listed in methods).[28] Although both MM001i and MM008i harbored one *p53*

null allele (*i.e.*, *loxP*-to-*loxP* recombined) as anticipated, the WT allele could not be detected.

Taken together, these PCR results indicated that both MM001i and MM008i are functionally *p53*

homozygous null (likely through loss-of-heterozygosity early in tumor development).

Mammary tumor cell lines lacking functional p53 are typically also negative for the hormone

receptors, ER, PR, and HER2.[34, 35] To visualize these cell surface markers, representative tumors

from   both   MM001i   and   MM008i   were   formalin-fixed   and   paraffin-embedded   for

immunohistochemical staining. MM001i and MM008i are both triple-negative at the protein level,

lacking positive nuclear staining of ER[36] and PR proteins[37] as well as cell surface staining of

HER2[38] (Supplementary Figure 2B).

Next, we used flow cytometry to quantify the surface expression of pro-tumorigenic,

immune co-signaling molecule PD-L1 on our cell lines at a basal levels and following 24 hrs

induction with interferon-gamma (IFN-γ)[12, 29]. MM008i showed higher expression of PD-L1 at basal

levels as well as after IFN-γ treatment compared to MM001i (Supplementary Figure 2C). However,

cell surface major histocompatibility complex-I (H-2KB) expression was similar between both cell

lines regardless of IFN-γ treatment (Supplementary Figure 2D).

MM001i and MM008i respond differentially to αPD-1 but similarly to αCTLA-4

After establishing a robust mammary fat pad engraftment protocol, WT females were split randomly into subgroups and treated with the two most commonly used immunotherapy agents, αPD-1 and αCTLA-4, to gauge therapy responsiveness. After engrafting on day 0 as above, treatment with αPD-1, αCTLA-4, or the combination began on day 7, once tumors reached approximately 200 mm^3. MM001i engrafted animals also received treatments on days 12 and 17 (Figure 1A). These tumors responded poorly to αPD-1 but regressed completely with αCTLA-4 monotherapy as well as with αPD-1 + αCTLA-4 combination therapy (Figure 1B). Non-responsiveness was observed as expected in severely immunocompromised NSG mice (Figure 1C), indicating that these immunotherapy outcomes are immune response-dependent.

MM008i tumors were treated with a single dose on day 7 (Figure 1D). Additional doses were not necessary because tumors regressed rapidly following this single treatment. MM008i tumors responded equally well to both αPD-1 and αCTLA-4 monotherapies, ultimately leading in most animals to complete tumor regression (Figure 1E). The combination of both mAbs appeared to have no additional benefit (Figure 1E). The strong responsiveness to αPD-1 monotherapy clearly distinguishes MM008i from MM001i. Moreover, neither tumor line appeared to be immune-cold as evidenced by clear responses to αCTLA-4 monotherapy. As for MM001i tumors above, no therapeutic benefit was observed for MM008i in NSG mice in any immunotherapy treatment group, further consistent with an immune response-dependent mechanism of tumor regression (Figure 1F).

Immunotherapy of MM001i and MM008i tumors generates immune memory

We next asked if immunotherapy treatment of MM001i and MM008i tumors triggers long-lasting immune memory. Mice were engrafted with MM001i and MM008i and, beginning day 7,

treated as described above (workflows in Figure 2A,C). Mice demonstrating complete tumor

regression following αPD-1 and/or αCTLA-4 treatment were allowed to rest for 90 days and then

rechallenged through injection with the same tumor cell line at the same site as in the primary

injection. Age-matched female WT mice, which had never been injected with tumor cells

previously, were engrafted with MM001i and MM008i as controls. As expected, control mice with

de novo injections developed mammary tumors in 21-28 days following MM001i or MM008i

engraftment (Figure 2B,D). Conversely, all previously treated tumor-free mice rejected additional

engraftment attempts, thus indicating that both MM001i and MM008i are capable of provoking

long-term anti-tumor immune memory.

CD3$^+$ T cells are distributed throughout MM008i unlike MM001i tumors

Although MM001i and MM008i originated from the same genetic background, these two

mammary tumor cell lines exhibit starkly different responses to αPD-1 treatment (Figure 1). To

begin to investigate the underlying mechanism, immunohistochemistry was used to profile tumor-

infiltrating immune populations including as B and T lymphocytes. Untreated MM001i and MM008i

tumors were isolated after reaching the endpoint tumor volume of 1000 mm^3 and stained for CD19

and CD3 expression. Based on CD19 staining, B cell infiltration was low in both MM001i and

MM008i tumors (not shown). In contrast, both mammary tumors showed evidence for T cell

infiltration with MM008i tumors exhibiting significantly more CD3$^+$ T lymphocytes compared to

MM001i tumors (Figure 3A,B; positive control splenic CD3$^+$ cell staining in Supplementary Figure

3A). Moreover, T cells were localized throughout MM008i tumors versus predominantly around

the peripheral margins of MM001i tumors (Figure 3A). Deeper T lymphocyte penetration is

consistent with the possibility that this cell type may be responsible for the differential αPD-1

therapeutic outcomes of MM008i and MM001i tumors.

Infiltrating CD8⁺ T cells in MM008i tumors

To further profile tumor-associated immune cells, flow cytometry was used to assess specific immune cell subpopulations in treatment-naïve primary tumors. Following live cell gating, a significantly higher percentage of CD45⁺ immune cells was identified in MM008i tumors versus MM001i tumors (Figure 3C; gating strategy and representative scatter plots in Supplementary Figure 4). There was also a trend toward higher CD3⁺ T cells out of CD45⁺ immune cells (Figure 3D) and, interestingly, a significantly higher percentage of CD8⁺CD4⁻ cytotoxic T cells in the CD3⁺ population of MM008i tumors (Figure 3E). Additionally, activated, pre-exhausted PD-1⁺TIM3⁻CD8⁺ T cells[12, 39] were significantly higher, though no difference was observed for exhausted PD-1⁺TIM3⁺ T cells in MM008i compared to MM001i tumors (Figure 3F,G).[40, 41] No significant difference was observed for CD11b⁺ monocytes, CD11b⁺Gr1⁺ myeloid-derived suppressor cells, or B220⁺ B cells (Supplementary Figure 3B,C,D). A trend towards a higher percentage of CD11b⁺CD11c⁺ dendritic cells and NK1.1⁺ natural killer cells was observed in MM001i tumors, though it was not statistically significant (Supplementary Figure 3E,F). These observations combine to indicate that the successful αPD-1 outcomes observed for MM008i tumor-engrafted animals may be mediated through pre-exhausted PD-1⁺TIM3⁻CD8⁺ T cells.

Depletion of CD8⁺ cells abrogates αPD-1 treatment efficacy in MM008i

The aforedescribed results suggest that the αPD-1 responsiveness of MM008i may be due to infiltrating anti-tumor CD8⁺ T cells. To test this possibility directly, experiments were performed in which CD8⁺ T cells were immunodepleted from animals before and after MM008i tumor treatment with αPD-1 (workflow in Figure 4A). Tumors showed normal growth kinetics in WT animals treated with isotype control mAbs or an αCD8 mAb (Figure 4B). As above, αPD-1 treatment alone resulted in near-complete tumor regression (Figure 4B). However, three doses of αCD8 mAb (one before and two after αPD-1 treatment) were sufficient to blunt the therapeutic

responsiveness of the αPD-1 therapy (Figure 4B). Immunohistochemistry confirmed depletion of

CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes from MM008i tumors (representative images in Figure 4C). These data

combined to show that CD8$^+$ T cells are an integral cell population required for MM008i tumor

regression in response to αPD-1 therapy in WT mice.

RNA-sequencing of MM001i and MM008i cells

To identify tumor-intrinsic factors that contribute to the differential responsiveness to αPD-

1, bulk RNA sequencing was done for cultured asynchronous MM001i and MM008i cell

populations (2 independent cultures per line) and for untreated tumors from animals (3

independent tumors per line). A full list of expressed genes from cultured cells and untreated

tumors is provided in Supplementary Table 1. First, as expected from initial genotyping above, no

transcripts were detected for *p53* exons 2-10 confirming *p53* loss of function. Second, multiple

breast cancer-associated genes were expressed at similar levels in both cell lines (*Brca1, Brca2,*

Mki67, Myc, Pik3ca, *Pten*, *Rb1*) with no apparent disease mutations. Third, consistent with IHC

results above, *Esr1* transcripts were not detected in either cell line. Fourth, in contrast to the IHC

results above where HER2 was not detected, both lines appear to express similar levels of *Erbb2*

RNA. This inconsistency may be due to an intrinsic cellular defect prior to translation as this

protein was undetectable by IHC and unlikely to be retained intracellularly. Finally, modest levels

of *Ar* and *Pgr* RNA were observed in MM001i cultured cells, and not in MM008i. Expression

comparisons were less clear in bulk RNA from tumors due to a multitude of normal infiltrating cell

types.

To evaluate broad expression differences between MM001i and MM008i cells and tumors,

we used principal component analysis (PCA) to compare the overall transcription profiles for

MM001i and MM008i in each growth condition (Supplementary Figure 5A). In general, cultured

cells clustered closely together as anticipated. In comparison, tumor cells clustered far away from

cultured cells and in more loosely associated groups consistent with differential immune

responses. We next analyzed specific gene expression differences between MM001i and

MM008i, identified based on a greater than 4-fold change and *P* values < 0.05 for cultured cells

and < 0.01 for untreated tumors (Figure 5A; Supplementary Table 1). Among the highest

differentially expressed genes are immune related genes, such as *Il11*, *Cxcl2*, *Il7*, *Il1rap*, *Ifnlr1*,

and *Cxcl3* in tumors, *Tnf* and *Havcr2* (encoding TIM3) in cultured cells, and *Il1rl1*, *Nfgr*, and *Ptgs2*

in both sets, which could potentially relate to the observed differences in response to αPD-1

therapy and in T lymphocyte infiltration.

To evaluate gene expression at the pathway level, we conducted KEGG signaling pathway

analysis on the top 1000 expressed genes in MM001i and MM008i cells and tumors, focusing

specifically on enriched pathways in immune signaling, cancer, and epithelial cell development

(Supplementary Figure 5B; Supplementary Table 2). Overall, gene expression was very similar

between MM001i and MM008i, particularly in epithelial cell signaling pathways. MM008i tumors

were relatively enriched for immune related pathways such as antigen processing and

presentation, and phagosome, with genes such as *H2-t23* and *B2m* being among the most

strongly expressed. Conversely, MM001i tumors were relatively enriched for cancer related

pathways such as extracellular matrix (ECM)-receptor interaction and PI3K-AKT signaling. These

gene expression insights highlight the many similarities between MM001i and MM008i mammary

tumor cell models and also point toward differences that may explain the differential

responsiveness to immune therapy.

464   Single-cell profiling of MM001i and MM008i tumors

Single cell (sc)RNA-seq analysis of untreated MM001i and MM008i tumors freshly isolated

from mice revealed additional intrinsic and extrinsic features of each tumor cell line. Unsupervised

clustering (UMAP) identified major cell types, including normal and cancer epithelial cells,

endothelial cells, stromal cells, basal cells, and immune populations (Figure 5B,C). Epithelial cells

in both MM001i and MM008i exhibited elevated expression of the oncogenes *Myc* and *Top2a*,

indicating shared proliferative and malignant transcriptional programs (Figure 5D). *Ctla-4* (*CTLA-*

4) and *Pdcd1* (*PD-1*) were highly expressed in T cells of both MM001i and MM008i, whereas the

mRNA for the CTLA-4 ligand *Cd86* showed no significant upregulation in either MM001i or

MM008i (Figure 5D). In contrast, *Cd274* (encoding PD-L1) was overexpressed specifically in

epithelial cells of MM008i but not in epithelial cells of MM001i, implying specific immune evasion

via the PD-1/PD-L1 axis in MM008i tumors (Figure 5D).

Discussion

We report the development of two syngeneic murine mammary tumor cell lines that,

despite originating from the same C57BL/6J genetic background, display differential *in vivo*

responsiveness to αPD-1 checkpoint blockade. Specifically, the mammary tumor cell line MM008i

tumors responds to αPD-1 therapy and MM001i does not. However, both lines are fully responsive

to αCTLA-4 therapy, and tumor clearance associates with immunity to subsequent engraftment.

Moreover, comparative immune cell profiling of engrafted tumors showed higher percentages of

CD8$^+$ cytotoxic T cells in MM008i tumors compared to MM001i tumors. These CD8$^+$ T lymphocytes

are required for response to αPD-1 in MM008i tumors, as depletion of this population abrogates

therapy response. Another key difference we identified was significantly higher expression of PD-

L1 on MM008i epithelial cells compared to MM001i. This strongly indicates that the PD-1/PD-L1

axis is a major mediator of immune evasion in MM008i, which is reflective of αPD-1 clinical

observations in breast cancer where PD-L1 serves as a key biomarker for positive responses.[11,]

[42, 43] However, despite these clear phenotypic differences between tumors, MM001i and MM008i

are overall very similar at the gene expression level. We observed similar expression levels of

commonly dysregulated breast cancer genes such as *Brca1, Brca2, Mki67, Myc, Pik3ca*, *Pten*,

Rb1, and *Top2a*, and similarities in epithelial signaling pathways.

The mammary tumor models presented help fill an important gap in syngeneic systems

for preclinical immune therapy testing and mechanistic studies. Syngeneic mammary tumor

models are rare, with only a few described to date.[14, 18, 21, 24-26, 44] E0771, which has been around

for 70 years and with unknown passage number, has conflicting reports on ER hormone receptor

status.[18] Other lines, such as PyMT,[24] AT-3,[25] and WT145[26] rely on either transgene insertion or

chemical carcinogens to drive cancer formation, processes that do not reflect cancer development

in human patients. Further, it would be difficult to compare results across lines given substantial

differences between each in genetic background, growth kinetics, and immune phenotype, limiting

the potential for comparative analysis. To address some of these limitations, recent efforts have

focused on developing new models that better recapitulate the immunological characteristics of

human disease.[45] However, many of these models are poorly responsive to immunotherapy,

owing to low tumor mutational burdens, unless further modified by induced mutagenesis or *Brca1*

deficiency.[45] Our new models, which exhibit clear responses to αCTLA-4 and differential

responses to αPD-1, provide a unique platform to dissect mechanisms of immunotherapy

resistance and test additional therapies (alone and in combination).

In particular, we envision our mammary tumor models being used to test other therapies

in combination with αPD-1 for potential dosage de-escalation of MM008i and to potentially trigger

αPD-1 responsiveness to MM001i. Our TNBC models also may be used to dissect the tumor

microenvironment itself, particularly focusing on extracellular matrix signaling and immune

infiltration. Here, we demonstrate considerable differences in T cell infiltration between our

MM001i and MM008i tumors. However, we have not directly investigated the specific mechanisms

which permit greater immune infiltration in MM008i tumors than MM001i tumors. We anticipate

future studies looking more deeply into these two cell lines immunologically, particularly the factors

that influence whether a tumor is "immune hot" or "immune cold". By identifying some of these

molecular determinants, we may be able to identify combination therapy approaches to make

previously resistant tumors sensitive to immunotherapies.

Acknowledgments

We thank Francesca Manara (Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center), Josephine

Taverna (UT Health San Antonio), and Ratna Vadlamudi (UT Health San Antonio) for thoughtful

feedback, and Emily Law, Jordan Naumann, and Angel Dominguez for early contributions to this

project. We are also grateful to Zhao Lai at the UT Health San Antonio Genome Sequencing

Facility for assistance with library preparation and sequencing and to the South Texas Research

Histology Laboratory for help with mouse specimen processing.

Disclosure statement

530   No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Funding

These studies were supported by NCI P50-CA247749, NCI P01-CA234228, and a

Recruitment of Established Investigators Award from the Cancer Prevention and Research

Institute of Texas (CPRIT RR220053). T.J.K. was supported in part by the STX-MSTP NIH training

grants (T32GM113896 and T32GM145432), as well as the Translational Science Training T32

Award (T32TR004545). C.D. was supported in part by a CPRIT Research Training Award (RP

170345). I.T. was also supported in part by NIH T32GM145432. R.S.H. is an Investigator of the

Howard Hughes Medical Institute, a CPRIT Scholar, and the Ewing Halsell President's Council

Distinguished Chair at the UT Health San Antonio. The UT Health San Antonio Genome

Sequencing Facility is supported by NCI P30-CA054174 (Mays Cancer Center at UT Health San

Antonio) and NIH Shared Instrument grant S10-OD030311 (S10 grant to NovaSeq 6000 System),

and CPRIT Core Facility Award (RP220662). The funders had no roles in study design, data

collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Author contributions

Reuben S. Harris, Harshita B. Gupta: Conceptualized the project; Thomas J. Kalantzakos, Harshita B. Gupta, Cameron Durfee, Anusha Soni, Benjamin Troness: Conducted *in vivo* experimentation; Xingyu Liu, Joshua Proehl, Harshita B. Gupta, Ian Tamayo: Performed immunohistochemistry; Yufan Zhou, Xingyu Liu, Nuri Alpay Temiz: Contributed to computational analyses; Thomas J. Kalantzakos, Harshita B. Gupta: Performed cell-based experiments; Thomas J. Kalantzakos, Harshita B. Gupta, Reuben S. Harris: Drafted the manuscript with all authors contributing to manuscript proofing and revision.

Data availability statement

The murine mammary tumor cell lines generated in this study, MM001i and MM008i, are available through the American Type Culture Collection or written request. Primary bulk and single-cell RNAseq data sets are available through GEO (GSE305800 and GSE305842; respectively https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE305800 and https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE305842. Supplementary Tables 1 and 2 are available on Figshare (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.30468098) using the link https://figshare.com/s/cd92140dd5a6f2f5a9d4. All other primary data are presented in the manuscript. A preprint of this work is also available on *bioRxiv* (https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2025.09.18.677171v1).

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Figure 1. MM001i and MM008i tumors exhibit differential immunotherapy responsiveness.

(**A**) Timeline of MM001i tumor injection and treatment with αPD-1 ± αCTLA-4 or isotype controls. (**B-C**) Tumor growth curves of MM001i following injection into the mammary fat pads of WT or severely immunocompromised (NSG) female mice, respectively, in the indicated treatment groups. n=6 (WT) or 4 (NSG) animals per group with two tumors per mouse; *P*-values using two-way ANOVA.

(**D**) Timeline of MM008i tumor injection and treatment with αPD-1 ± αCTLA-4 or isotype controls. (**E-F**) Tumor growth curves of MM001i following injection into the mammary fat pads of WT or NSG female mice, respectively, in the indicated treatment groups. n=6 (WT) or 4 (NSG) animals per group with two tumors per mouse; *P*-values using two-way ANOVA.

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Figure 2. MM001i and MM008i tumors elicit durable immune memory response post-
immunotherapy treatments.

(**A**) Timeline of initial and subsequent MM001i tumor injections and treatment with αPD-1,
αCTLA-4, or combination.

(**B**) Tumor growth curves of MM001i following second tumor engraftment into WT female mice.
n=4 animals per group (1 mouse for αPD-1) with two tumors per mouse; *P*-values using two-
way ANOVA.

(**C**) Timeline of initial and subsequent MM008i tumor injections and treatment with αPD-1,
αCTLA-4, or combination.

(**D**) Tumor growth curves of MM008i following second tumor engraftment into WT female mice.
n=5 animals per group with two tumors per mouse; *P*-values using two-way ANOVA.

Figure 3. MM008i tumors are enriched with total T cells and pre-exhausted PD-1⁺CD8⁺ T cells compared to MM001i tumors.

(**A**) Representative αCD3 IHC images of untreated MM001i and MM008i tumors.

(**B**) Quantification of CD3$^+$ T cells/mm^3 in untreated MM001i and MM008i tumors using QuPath bioimage analysis software (5 random uniform regions of interest per tumor; n=5 tumors for MM001i, and 4 tumors for MM008i; *P*-value by unpaired Student's *t*-test).

(**C-G**) Immune cell infiltrates with the indicated cell surface markers as estimated by flow cytometry (n=4-5 tumors per group; *P*-value by unpaired Student's *t*-test).

Figure 4. αCD8 neutralizing antibody abrogates αPD-1 response in MM008i tumors.

(**A**) Timeline of MM008i tumor injections and treatments with αPD-1 ± αCD8 or isotype controls.

(**B**) Tumor growth curves of MM008i following tumor injection in WT females in the indicated treatment groups. n=5 animals per group with two tumors/mouse; *P*-values using two-way ANOVA.

(**C**) Reconstruction experiment showing representative αCD8 IHC images of MM008i tumors on day 13, immediately following treatment of animals with αCD8 neutralizing antibody or an isotype control antibody.

Figure 5. Gene expression profiling of MM001i and MM008i tumors.

(**A**) Volcano plot depicting differentially expressed genes between MM001i and MM008i cells in
culture and tumors *in vivo* by RNA-seq (filtered by $\log_2$-fold change > 2 and adjusted *P*-value
<0.05 for cultured cells and < 0.01 for tumors)**.**

(**B-C**) UMAP clustering of MM001i and MM008i tumors, respectively, with cell type annotations
by single-cell RNA-seq.

(**D**) Expression distributions for *Myc, Top2a, Ctla4, Cd86, Pdcd1*, and *Cd274* at the single cell
level in MM001i and MM008i tumors overlaid upon respective UMAPs.