Hidden-driver inference reveals synergistic brain-penetrant therapies for medulloblastoma

Running Title: Target cancer hidden drivers to accelerate drug combination discovery

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ABSTRACT

Effective therapies for high-risk medulloblastoma (MB), particularly MYC-driven Group 3 (G3) MB,

remain elusive due to limited druggable mutations, poor blood–brain barrier (BBB) penetration,

and rapid resistance. We developed **SINBA (Synergy Inference by Data-driven Network-**

Based Bayesian Analysis), a systems biology framework that predicts synergistic, BBB-

permeable drug combinations by identifying *hidden drivers* that sustain oncogenic programs

without detectable genetic or transcriptional alterations. Integrating MB-specific gene networks,

transcriptomic data, and drug–gene interactions, SINBA prioritized 32 candidate combinations, of

which 19 were experimentally validated as synergistic. The **MEK inhibitor mirdametinib** and

p38 inhibitor regorafenib emerged as the top brain-penetrant pair, suppressing G3 MB

progression and extending survival in human xenograft and immunocompetent mouse models,

with efficacy enhanced by low-dose radiation. Single-cell analysis revealed selective targeting of

the **developmental origins of G3 MB**, accompanied by immune microenvironment

reprogramming. These findings establish *hidden-driver inference* as a generalizable framework

for rational drug combination discovery.

SIGNIFICANCE

The SINBA platform enables rapid identification of brain-penetrant, synergistic drug combinations

by targeting hidden bottleneck drivers in high-risk tumors. SINBA-guided screening revealed that

MEK inhibitors combined with regorafenib selectively eliminate the developmental cell-of-origin in

G3 medulloblastoma and reprogram the tumor microenvironment, providing a clinically actionable

precision oncology strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Brain tumors are the most common pediatric solid tumor, producing more deaths in children under the age of 20 than any other pediatric cancer(1). Among them, the most prevalent is medulloblastoma (MB), an embryonal tumor of the cerebellum that consists of four distinct molecular subtypes: WNT, SHH, Group 3 (G3), and Group 4 (G4)(2,3). Despite the unique molecular and clinical characteristics of these subtypes, standard treatment for medulloblastoma follows a single protocol: maximal surgical resection followed by craniospinal irradiation and adjuvant chemotherapy. While these interventions have improved the 5-year survival rate to over 80% for average-risk patients,(4,5) one in three high-risk MB patients will relapse within five years, and the survival rate for relapsed patients remains dismal(6,7).

Common approaches to therapeutic discovery have yielded few clinically effective treatments for high-risk MB, due to both the nature of the disease and the limitations of current methods(8). Most notably, few high-risk MB cases possess well-characterized druggable alterations—in fact, approximately 20% lack any identifiable genetic mutations—making the development of genomics-driven targeted therapies difficult(9). High-throughput screening (HTS), though useful in research contexts, produces single agent therapies that may have poor blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability, that are susceptible to rapid tumor resistance, and whose efficacy often depends on the relevance of the disease model used and the extent to which it recapitulates patient tumor biology.

The recent therapeutic success of combination therapies in certain cancers has generated widespread interest in drug combination screening(10-18); however, standard experimental methods for combination screening are costly and limited in scale. Computational approaches(19-24) (such as RECODR(22) or a graph-embedding machine learning approach of single-cell

transcriptomics data, DrugCell(24) or the community-developed approaches generated by the

DREAM Consortium) have been developed to circumvent these limitations, but their utility in G3

MB is limited by, for example, the nature of their training datasets or their pan-cancer design.

Although few clinically actionable genes have been identified for MB(25), previous studies have

identified cancer driver genes that, rather than possess genetic mutations, are functionally

dysregulated through epigenetic modifications or post-translational alterations(26-30). Such

"hidden" drivers could be effective therapeutic targets; however, their lack of genetic mutation

makes them more challenging to identify. We therefore developed SINBA, an end-to-end workflow

that uses network-based Bayesian analysis to identify putative bottleneck drivers and then, based

on those drivers, suggests potential therapeutic drug combinations. This approach addresses two

of the major challenges of therapeutic discovery in MB: identifying druggable targets and reducing

the candidate drug pool for combination screening.

In this study, we applied SINBA to G3 medulloblastoma, leveraging the transcriptomic data of

three medulloblastoma patient cohorts. After validating the synergistic effects of SINBA-predicted

drug combinations through *in vitro* HTS, we tested the efficacy of the top-ranked combination

(regorafenib and a MEK inhibitor) in preclinical studies using both human xenografts and

immunocompetent syngeneic murine G3 MB models. Combining regorafenib-MEK inhibitor

treatment with low-dose irradiation improved cancer cell killing, supporting the potential benefit of

incorporating these agents into standard MB therapy. Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq)

analysis revealed elevated driver activity and enhanced drug sensitivity scores in tumor cells that

transcriptomically resemble early Unipolar Brush Cell (UBC) progenitors (henceforth "early UBC

progenitor-like cells"), suggesting susceptibility to this combination therapy. Critically, this

combination profoundly remodeled the tumor microenvironment (TME) in an immunocompetent

syngeneic mouse model, demonstrating both direct and immunomodulatory tumor suppression

effects.

RESULTS

Nominating synergistic brain-penetrant drug combinations for G3 MB using SINBA, a

hidden-driver-based computational framework

SINBA is a network-based algorithm that unbiasedly predicts synergistic drug combinations based

on subtype-specific drivers. Broadly, the SINBA workflow proceeds as follows: users leverage a

disease-specific gene-gene interaction network to identify drivers upregulated in a selected

cancer subtype; these drivers are then filtered for druggability and provided as input to the SINBA

software. SINBA then uses the interaction network and a drug-target database to design HTS

experiments, the results of which are fed back into the software as additional input. Using these

data, SINBA matches the input drivers with other hub genes to produce gene pairs with synergistic

activity; these driver pairs are translated into drug pairs for subsequent combination screening.

Finally, the results of combination screening are analyzed for synergy using a third-party algorithm,

SynergyFinder(31,32); the drug pairs are then ranked according to their synergy. It should be

noted that driver selection and driver-drug pairing are interdependent, concurrent processes. For

example, the input drivers are used to select drugs for HTS, but then the results of HTS are used

to further refine the list of drivers.

Using the G3 subtype of MB as a proof-of-concept, we describe the SINBA workflow in greater

detail below (**Fig. 1A**):

Preparatory Steps

To equip SINBA to select synergistic drug pairs with good blood-brain barrier permeability, we

generated a Brain Penetrant drug-target database (BPdb) consisting of 1,118 potential brain-

penetrant agents (targeting 2,476 genes) (**Fig. 1B**). The BPdb expands substantially on the

B3DB(33), a database of rigorously validated brain-penetrating compounds, by including

additional, potentially-penetrating agents identified in the literature and clinical trials. Agents were

presumed to be penetrants if they had been evaluated in neurotherapeutic trials or antibody-

based modalities. 41% of the drugs in the BPdb were selected in this manner; overall, 59% of the

drugs are FDA-approved. Five drug-gene interaction databases were used to annotate the targets

in the BPdb: DrugBank(34), ChEMBL(35), cMAP(36), Repurposing Hub(37), and DGIdb(38-40)

(**Fig. 1C; Supplementary Table S1**). Along with the BPdb, these drug-target databases were

integrated into SINBA, supplying it with a comprehensive set of drugs and pharmacologically

targetable genes to maximize generalizability outside of central nervous system tumors.

After compiling the BPdb, we pre-trained a disease-specific, gene-gene interaction network for

medulloblastoma by applying SJARACNe(41), a mutual-information-based algorithm, to a

dataset of 407 human MB patient transcriptome profiles (DKFZ_SJ)(25,42,43). The resulting

medulloblastoma interactome (MBi) captures the transcript-level interactions between

transcription factor (TF) and signaling (SIG) genes(44)—the network hubs—and their predicted

regulons. Altogether, the interactome comprised 1,567,381 interactions between 38,621

transcripts (corresponding to 15,317 genes); 12,495 of these transcripts belonged to TF and SIG

hub genes (7,155 total).

Finally, we used the pretrained MBi and our NetBID2(45) algorithm to identify G3 MB-specific

drivers, henceforth referred to as "seed" drivers. To do so, we superimposed the MBi onto the

transcriptomic profiles of patients in the pretraining cohort plus two additional validation cohorts,

GSE85217(46)   and ICGC(9) (**Supplementary Table S2**), generating activity profiles for

candidate TF and SIG drivers from the gene expression data. The activity inferred for each

candidate driver consisted of the expression of downstream targets weighted by the interaction strength. We then used NetBID2 to analyze the activity of the pretraining cohort, revealing 75 drivers that exhibited significantly higher activity in G3 MB compared to the other MB subgroups and normal cerebellum. Drivers for which there were no targeting drugs in the BPdb were discarded, leaving 45 druggable "seed drivers."

Comparison of the activity and expression profiles of these seed drivers in the two validation cohorts supports SINBA's activity-based approach to driver selection. Seed drivers were found to have consistent differential activity but not expression patterns across cohorts (**Supplementary Fig. S1A**), suggesting that activity data may be a more reliable measure of gene function. Data from the GSE85217 cohort, for which clinical outcomes were available, suggested that driver activity may also have greater clinical relevance. Analysis of the 42 drivers with matched activity and expression profiles in this cohort found patient survival to correlate significantly more with driver activity than with driver gene expression. For 67% of the drivers, there was a significant correlation between activity level and patient survival ($P < 0.05$); only 26% of the drivers showed a similar correlation for gene expression (**Supplementary Fig. S1B**; **Supplementary Table S3**). For example, the activity but not expression of BRAF and CDK7 significantly correlated with overall patient survival (**Supplementary Fig. S1C**). Compared to their RNA expression levels, these drivers' inferred activities had a cleaner pattern of elevation in G3 MB compared to the other medulloblastoma subtypes. Likewise, in an independent proteomics cohort of MB patient samples(47), there was an elevation in the phosphorylated protein activity of these genes despite their total protein levels remaining unchanged (**Supplementary Fig. S1D and S1E**).

Similarly, expression of MYC—whose activation is the hallmark of G3 MB—was insufficient to stratify risk groups in the GSE85217 cohort; on the other hand, there was a clear delineation in MYC *activity* between high- and low-risk MB (**Supplementary Fig. S1F**). Consistent with the

findings for BRAF and CDK7, MYC activity—but not total protein expression—was positively

correlated with phospho-MYC levels in G3 MB tumors(47) (**Supplementary Fig. S1G**). These

results demonstrate how activity-based approaches can be used to identify clinically relevant

drivers that may evade discovery by conventional RNA and total protein expression analyses. To

explore the drug databases, gene expression and patient survival data, and driver activities

imputed in this study, we developed an interactive web application at https://yulab-

stjude.shinyapps.io/SINBA_MB.

Nominating Synergistic Drug Pairs with SINBA Algorithm

Using the 45 seed drivers identified for G3 MB as input, SINBA predicted synergistic drug pairs

for G3 MB in the following steps:

First, the software selected 69 drugs from the BPdb to undergo HTS, ensuring that each of the

45 seed drivers was a target gene for at least one drug. SINBA then used the results of screening

these drugs in a G3 cell line (HDMB03) to select the top 20 most effective drugs with unique seed

driver targets.

To identify synergistic partner genes for the 20 seed drivers, SINBA generated a list of candidate

genes. It did this by filtering the hub genes from the MBi for druggability using the BPdb, yielding

approximately 800 candidate "partner drivers". The candidate set was further refined by

eliminating drivers that failed to demonstrate adequate synergy with any of the seeds. Candidate

drivers were considered synergistic if their combined subnetwork with a seed driver yielded higher

differential activity than either subnetwork alone. Driver synergy was measured using a custom

statistical method that assigns a quantitative "synergy score" to driver pairs (see **Methods**). To

select the final partners, SINBA used a greedy algorithm to determine which matrix of 20 seed

drivers x 16 partner drivers would generate the highest collective synergistic score (**Fig. 1C**).

Next, SINBA selected a different drug for each of the 16 partner drivers, with preference given to

drugs from the original library. If no suitable drug could be found in the original library, alternative

drugs were selected from the BPdb; these drugs (21 in total) were then screened in the G3 cell

line and the results used to select final partners for the remaining drivers. (For a summary of the

HTS results of our combined libraries (90 drugs total), see **Supplementary Fig. S2A and S2B;**

Supplementary Table S4). These 16 final partner drugs were then arranged in a matrix with the

20 seed drugs, producing 320 unique drug pairs for subsequent combination screening (**Fig. 1C**).

Drug Combination Screening and Synergy Analysis

Before proceeding to comprehensive drug combination screening, we assessed the potential

synergy of our 320 drug pairs through a preliminary two-dose screening. Drugs were tested at

EC_{20} (low dose) and EC_{50} (high dose) concentrations; drugs lacking EC_{20} or EC_{50} values were

assigned the default values of 1 μM and 6 μM, respectively. This dual-dose strategy produced

1,280 unique drug-dose combinations for testing in the HDMB03 model. The efficacy of each

drug-dose combination was quantified using a $\Delta\text{inhibition}_{mean}$ metric: the cell growth inhibition of

a two-agent combination minus the mean of the inhibitions produced by using each agent alone

at the same dose. Remarkably, 95% of the combinations tested produced efficacies greater than

the mean of their parts (**Supplementary Fig. S2C**; **Supplementary Table S5**; see **Methods**).

For each drug-dose combination, we also calculated the $\Delta\text{inhibition}_{max}$, the difference in inhibition

between the combination and whichever of its constituents produced greater inhibition alone. We

then used this metric to select 32 candidate pairs that met one of the following four conditions: At

the low-low dose, (1) combined inhibition >90% and $\Delta\text{inhibition}_{max}$ >10%, (2) combined

inhibition >50% and $\Delta\text{inhibition}_{max}$ >15%, or (3) combined inhibition >80% and each single agent's

inhibition >70%; or, at any other dose-combination, (4) combined inhibition >50% and

$\Delta inhibition_{max}$ >20%. These 32 drug pairs were advanced to the comprehensive screening step.

Drug pairs were comprehensively screened in HDMB03 cells using a 10 × 10 dose-response

matrix, yielding 100 drug-dose combinations per pair. Screening was performed in triplicates. For

each replicate matrix, we evaluated the synergy of each drug-dose combination using the Zero

Interaction Potency (ZIP) model, a hybrid of the Loewe additivity and Bliss independence

models(31,32); these values were then averaged to produce an overall ZIP score for the matrix.

Each unique drug pair was assigned a ZIP score equalling the average of its three replicate

matrices. Notably, 19 of the 32 drug pairs (59.4%) were found to be synergistic (ZIP score >0,

Fig. 1D; **Supplementary Table S6**), confirming SINBA's effectiveness in identifying synergistic

therapeutics.

Trametinib, a MEK inhibitor, and regorafenib, a multi-kinase inhibitor, emerged as the most

synergistic drug pair. These drugs demonstrated profound synergy not only overall, but also in

the low dose regions of their synergy score landscapes (**Supplementary Fig. S2D**).

Fine-tuning the drug pair for optimal BBB-penetrability

To confirm the blood-brain-barrier permeability of these drugs, we conducted preclinical

pharmacokinetic studies for regorafenib in female CD-1 nude mice (see **Methods**). Following a

single oral dose of regorafenib (10 mg/kg), we observed consistent plasma and brain

concentrations, with inter- and intra-mouse coefficients of variation ranging from 7.7% to 28.6%

(**Supplementary Fig. S3A**). Brain exposure was assessed by determining the unbound brain-to-

plasma partition ratio ($K_{p,uu}$), a critical parameter in evaluating CNS drug penetration and

distribution. Regorafenib demonstrated reasonable brain distribution ($K_{p,uu}$=0.143), which was

consistent with prior murine studies, though slightly lower than previously reported 24-hour

estimates(48). Notably, regorafenib has also been shown to have a robust CNS exposure

profile(49,50). Similar methods(51) found trametinib to have a less favorable brain distribution

($K_{p,uu}$=0.069, **Supplementary Fig. S3B**). We therefore decided to include mirdametinib, another

MEK inhibitor whose BBB-permeability has been established in the literature(52,53), in our testing.

Consistent with existing studies, we found mirdametinib to have a superior $K_{p,uu}$ of 0.243

(**Supplementary Fig. S3C**). Having confirmed regorafinib's BBB permeability and selected an

additional MEK candidate, we advanced the regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combination to preclinical

validation.

Regorafenib-MEK Inhibitor synergistic combination selectively kills G3 MB cells *in vitro*

Existing chemoproteomic profiling data has shown overlap between MEK inhibitors and

regorafenib's targets on the MAPK signaling pathway(54) (**Supplementary Fig. S3D**). This

pathway (KEGG MAPK signaling(55)) is significantly upregulated in G3 tumors compared to

normal cerebellum (**Supplementary Fig. S3E**), suggesting selective vulnerability in the G3

subtype. To better understand the mechanism underlying the synergy of MEK inhibitors and

regorafenib, we expanded our testing to include an additional four G3 MB cell line models (D341,

D425, D283, and MB002) as well as an SHH-MB cell line (DAOY with and without GFP).

First, we mapped the RNA-seq profiles of these cell lines(56) onto our MBi to generate paired

activity profiles for MAPK11 (a subunit of p38 MAP kinase) and BRAF, the target drivers for

regorafenib and trametinib/mirdametinib, respectively (**Fig. 2A**). We then calculated a signature

for the trametinib/regorafenib combination using iLINCS(57) data on the drugs' gene expression

signatures in a CNS-disease context. To do so, we used the activity profiles previously generated

for each cell line to rank the drivers in each line by activity score. Using these rankings as a

reference, we then calculated cell line-specific enrichment scores for the genes in which treatment

with regorafenib or trametinib induced up- or down-regulation. These enrichment scores were

used to calculate an integrated score for each cell line indicating its sensitivity to a trametinib-

regorafenib combination (**Fig. 2A and Supplementary Fig. S4A**, see **Methods**).

These sensitivity predictions were largely born out in *in vitro* testing, where we used AlamarBlue

cell viability assays to evaluate the regorafenib-trametinib and regorafenib-mirdametinib

combinations in the MB cell lines. For each cell line, 80 drug-dose combinations were tested per

drug pair (eight concentrations of MEK inhibitor and ten concentrations of regorafenib); the results

were then used to calculate an overall ZIP score for each drug pair as previously.

Overall, the greatest collective synergy was observed in the D341 cell line, which ranked No. 1

for regorafenib/mirametinib and No. 2 for regorafenib/trametinib (**Fig. 2B and 2C**). Reasonable

synergistic effects were also observed for both combinations in MB002 (**Fig. 2B and 2D**). As

expected, no synergy was observed for these combinations in the SHH-MB line DAOY

(**Supplementary Fig. S4B**). Despite being a G3 MB model, D425 was minimally responsive to

both drug pairs, consistent with the low synergy score we had predicted for that cell line

(**Supplementary Fig. S4C**). Some difference was observed in the performance of the drug pairs

within a single cell line. For instance, the trametinib combination produced the highest synergy in

D283, consistent with our predictions, whereas the mirdametinib combination produced no

synergy in that line (**Fig. 2B and Supplementary Fig. S4D**).

To confirm the mechanism of action of regorafenib and the MEK inhibitors in the context of

combination therapy, we compared the effects of combination therapy vs. monotherapy on

signaling in three responsive G3 MB cell lines (D341, HDMB03, and MB002). For Western blot

analysis, we selected three well-established targets of MEK inhibition (MEK, ERK, and BRAF),

while for regorafenib—a multi-kinase inhibitor—we chose MAPK11/p38, regorafenib's main target

in G3 MB according to our previous analysis with SINBA. Western blot analysis showed that the

regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations reduced the phosphorylation levels of all four targets

(MEK, ERK, BRAF, and p38), while total protein levels remained unchanged. In some cases,

combination therapy even produced a greater reduction in a target's phosphorylation compared

to monotherapy. These findings confirmed effective on-target suppression of BRAF-MEK

signaling by trametinib/mirdametinib and p38 signaling by regorafenib in G3 MB tumor cells in the

contexts of both mono- and combination therapy (**Fig. 2E**).

Together, these *in vitro* studies confirmed the synergistic killing effect of regorafenib-MEK inhibitor

combinations on G3 MB but not SHH-MB cells.

Regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations are effective for G3 MB *in vivo*

Having identified D341 as the cell line most likely to be sensitive to the regorafenib-MEK inhibitor

combination (**Fig. 2A**) and having validated that prediction *in vitro* by demonstrating that

regorafenib and MEK inhibitors exhibit the greatest synergy in D341 cells (**Fig. 2B**), we moved to

investigate whether our findings would also hold *in vivo* (see **Methods**).

Given mirdametinib's superior brain penetration (compared to trametinib), as well as its greater

synergy with regorafenib in the D341 cell line, we chose to advance the regorafenib-mirdametinib

combination to *in vivo* testing (**Fig. 2B**). CD-1 nude mice orthotopically implanted with D341 cells

were treated with regorafenib (10 mg/kg), mirdametinib (5 mg/kg), or their combination (**Fig. 3A**).

Tumor progression was monitored weekly using IVIS imaging beginning one week post-

implantation. The combination therapy surpassed the control and monotherapies in slowing tumor

growth (**Fig. 3B** and **3C**), improving survival (**Fig. 3D**), and elevating apoptotic cell percentages

(**Fig. 3E**).

To assess the generalizability of this approach, we also tested the *in vivo* efficacy of the mono-

and combination therapies in the SHH model DAOY (**Fig. 3A** and **Supplementary Fig. S5A**).

Unlike the aggressive D341 model, the DAOY model exhibited a longer median survival of 90

days in the control group, compared to 34 days in D341. However, neither the single drug nor

combination treatments provided significant survival benefits in the DAOY model

(**Supplementary Fig. S5A** and **S5B**), underscoring the specificity of this therapeutic strategy for

G3 MB.

Recognizing the limitations of cell lines in fully recapitulating tumor biology, we extended our

investigation to MB patient-derived xenografts (PDXs)(58,59). G3 MB PDXs produced

significantly higher driver pair activity and drug sensitivity scores than normal cerebellum samples.

Among the PDX models, PDX5950 was predicted to be the most sensitive (**Fig. 4A**). Mice

orthotopically implanted with the PDX5950 model were treated with regorafenib and a reduced

dose of mirdametinib (0.5 mg/kg) due to the model's increased MEK inhibitor sensitivity (**Fig. 4B**).

Tumor progression was monitored weekly by MRI. As with the D341 model, combination therapy

significantly reduced tumor burden in the PDX5950 model (**Fig. 4D**) and substantially extended

survival (**Fig. 4C**). Mice treated with combination therapy had a median survival of 69 days,

compared to 55, 55, and 59 days for mice treated with vehicle, mirdametinib, or regorafenib,

respectively. We also found elevated apoptotic cell percentages in the combination therapy to a

greater degree than the controls and monotherapies (**Fig. 4E**).

Body weight loss was noted in the D341-implanted mice three weeks post-implantation regardless

of whether they received monotherapy, combination therapy, or vehicle control (**Supplementary**

Fig. S5C). Blood analyses showed no significant differences across treatment groups, with all

parameters except white blood cell (WBC) count remaining in the normal reference

(**Supplementary Fig. S5D**). These findings suggest that weight loss was tumor-burden-related

rather than treatment-induced. Mice implanted with PDX5950 experienced slight weight gain

during the treatment window, reflecting the less aggressive nature of that model. Blood analyses

similarly showed no significant differences across treatment groups, though the WBC counts of

mice in the single-treatment arms fell outside the normal range. Notably, WBC count in the

combination group remained within normal limits, suggesting a potential protective effect of the

combination therapy (**Supplementary Fig. S5E and S5F**).

Regorafenib plus MEK inhibitor enhances low-dose radiation therapy *in vivo*

Radiotherapy remains a cornerstone of medulloblastoma treatment(60), yet patients with G3 MB

frequently experience tumor progression and poor survival outcomes(4,6,7,61). To investigate

whether regorafenib and MEK inhibitors could enhance the efficacy of radiotherapy, we tested

them in combination with low-dose irradiation using the D341 model. Mice were assigned to four

treatment groups: vehicle control, drug combination alone, drug combination administered

concurrently with radiation, and drug combination administered following radiation

(**Supplementary Fig. S6A**). Radiotherapy was delivered in fractions of 0.5 Gy per day for five

consecutive days. All treatment arms demonstrated improved survival compared to vehicle

controls, with sequential therapy providing the greatest benefit over radiation alone

(**Supplementary Fig. S6B and S6C**). Importantly, treatment-related toxicity (measured through

body weight and blood analyses) was not observed in any of the experimental groups

(**Supplementary Fig. S6D and S6E**).

These findings suggest that integrating regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combination therapy into

existing treatment protocols may offer substantial therapeutic advantages for high-risk G3 MB

patients, potentially improving outcomes for this challenging and aggressive subgroup of

medulloblastoma.

Single-cell analysis reveals that regorafenib and MEK inhibitors target the developmental

origins of G3 MB

Recent single-cell studies of human medulloblastoma have demonstrated significant intra- and

inter-tumoral heterogeneity and diverse developmental origins of MB subtypes(62-67). To

understand how regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations affect different cell subpopulations in

heterogeneous G3 MB, we analyzed drug target activity using single-cell RNA sequencing

(scRNA-seq) data from human developing cerebellum, MB patient tumor samples, and the D341

xenograft model (both with and without treatment).

To investigate the developmental origins of each MB subtype, we used publicly available scRNA-

seq data(66) to construct a developmental reference for human cerebellum, focusing on the

glutamatergic lineage in which most MB occur. Our clustering analysis identified seven distinct

developmental states based on previously published markers(68-70): neural stem cells (NSC),

rhombic lip progenitors (RL_pro), unipolar brush cell and granule cell precursor common

progenitors (UBC_GCP_pro), unipolar brush cell progenitors (UBC_pro), granule cells (GC), and

unipolar brush cells (UBC) (**Fig. 5A and 5B**; **Supplementary Table S7**). Pseudotime analysis

with Slingshot and Monocle 3 produced a putative developmental trajectory in which NSCs

progress along a single path to RL_pro and subsequently UBC_GCP_pro, at which point the

trajectory bifurcates, ultimately giving rise to the UBC and GC lineages **(Supplementary Fig. S7A**

and S7B; see **Methods**). This single-cell reference for human glutamatergic development is

available via an interactive web portal (https://scminer.stjude.org/study/Glutamatergic-lineage).

Next, we performed clustering analysis of published MB patient scRNA-seq data(62,63,66)

(**Supplementary Table S8**), and then used our developmental reference to assign developmental

stages to each cluster. To do so, we extracted the malignant MB cells from the GSE155446

dataset (10,537 cells from one WNT, nine SHH, and 18 G3/G4 MB patients; **Supplementary Fig.**

S7C and **S7D**; **Supplementary Table S9**), annotating the clusters using marker genes for the

seven developmental stages of the glutamatergic lineage (**Fig. 5C and Supplementary Fig. S7E**).

Our mapped results revealed a predominance of GCP-like cells in SHH tumors, UBC_pro and

UBC_GCP_pro cells in G3 tumors, UBC-like cells in G4 tumors, and RL_pro-like cells in WNT

tumors. Notably, the UBC_GCP_pro cluster closely resembled the NSC-like cells reported in the

original study (**Supplementary Fig. S7D and S7E**). These findings, which suggest potential

developmental origins for each MB subtype (**Fig. 5D**), were later validated using two independent

scRNA-seq datasets[62,66] (**Supplementary Fig. S7F-I**; **Supplementary Table S10-S11**). The

analyzed GSE155446 data, including gene expression and activity profiles, are available through

an interactive portal (https://scminer.stjude.org/study/GSE155446).

In addition to the scRNA-seq analysis, we also employed our recently developed ReDeconv(71)

algorithm to deconvolute bulk RNA-seq data from MB patient cohorts and PDX models (see

Methods). Analysis of the mean percentage of each developmental state among patients with

the same tumor subtype(9,58,72) revealed the same patterns observed in the scRNA-seq data

(**Supplementary Fig. S8A**): SHH tumors were enriched with GCP-like cells, G3 tumors with

UBC_pro and UBC_GCP_pro cells, and G4 tumors with UBC-like cells.

Next, we investigated the activity of BRAF and MAPK11, the primary targets of MEK inhibitors

and regorafenib in G3 MB, across lineage stages. Using our scMINER algorithm(73) and the Mbi,

we calculated driver activity at the single-cell level, revealing an elevation in the paired activity of

BRAF and MAPK11 in the UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like subpopulations that are

predominant in G3 tumors. No such elevation was observed for G3 minority subpopulations like

GC and UBC, which represent more differentiated developmental states (**Fig. 5E**). The drug

signature scores for regorafenib + MEK inhibitor showed a similar pattern of elevation in

UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like cells. In contrast, both BRAF and MAPK11 activity and the

drug signature scores were minimal in those patients' normal immune cells. Notably, expression

of BRAF and MAPK11 was low across all malignant cell types, demonstrating the usefulness of

the activity-based approach (**Supplementary Fig. S8B, S8C and S8D**). As expected, the drug

signature scores were low in normal human cerebellum. BRAF and MAPK11 expression were

also low in normal cerebellum; however, BRAF+MAPK11 *activity* was markedly elevated in those

samples' UBC_GCP_pro cells (**Supplementary Fig. S8E and S8F**).

These findings led us to hypothesize that regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations target the

potential developmental origins of G3 MB, namely UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro cells. To test

this hypothesis, we performed scRNA-seq profiling of D341 cells both prior to implantation in mice

and then after implantation and treatment with vehicle control, mirdametinib, regorafenib, or their

combination. Analysis of the pre-implantation D341 cells revealed high proportions of

UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like subpopulations, much like the G3 MB patient samples

(**Supplementary Fig. S8G and S8H**). D341 lacked mature-like populations (GC and UBC) and

exhibited slightly higher proportions of GCP-like cells, likely due to culture conditions favoring

proliferative progenitor-like states. The combined driver activity and drug signature scores were

again exceptionally high in the UBC_GCP_pro-like tumor cells (**Supplementary Fig. S8I**).

Consistent with our findings *in vitro*, D341 tumor cells extracted from the mice post-treatment

consisted primarily of UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like cells (**Fig. 5F and 5G**; **Supplementary**

Table S12). There was a reduction in driver activity in the cells from the MIR and MIR+REG

groups. Furthermore, the drug signature score was significantly lower in the MIR+REG group than

in the vehicle control or single-agent group (**Fig. 5H and 5I**). The treatment effect was specific to

cell state. The UBC_GCP_pro-like population demonstrated higher baseline driver activity and

was more sensitive to treatment, leading to a decreased UBC_GCP_pro-to-UBC_pro cell ratio in

the MIR and MIR+REG groups (**Fig. 5G and 5J**). The appearance of drug-resistant NSC-like

tumor cells in the combination treatment group could be a source of treatment resistance.

Our single-cell analyses traced the major cellular origins of G3 MB to UBC_GCP_pro and

UBC_pro cells in the glutamatergic lineage of developing cerebellum. Single-cell analysis of G3

MB cells treated *in vivo* confirm that UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like cells have greater driver

activity and drug signature scores than other G3 MB tumor cell subpopulations; and that

combination treatment is more effective than monotherapy and control at eliminating these tumor

cells but may give rise to resistant populations.

Regorafenib plus MEK inhibitor is effective and reprograms the suppressive TME in an

immunocompetent syngeneic mouse model of G3 MB

While our *in vivo* studies of human cell line xenografts (D341) and PDX models (PDX5950) were

effective in establishing the efficacy of regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations in G3 MB tumors,

these models require immune-deficient CD-1 nude mice, making them unsuitable for investigating

drug treatment in the context of the tumor immune microenvironment. We therefore utilized CTD,

a syngeneic G3 MB mouse model, to assess these combinations' efficacy in an

immunocompetent setting and their impact on the TME.

CTD is a genetically engineered mouse model that resembles human G3 MB both histologically

and molecularly(74). In the CTD model, *Ctdnep1,* one of the most frequently altered tumor

suppressors in G3 MB, is conditionally knocked out in neuronal progenitor cells or cerebellar stem

cells, leading to MYC amplification and p53 inactivation, both hallmarks of G3 MB(74). To confirm

the faithfulness of the model, we used scRNA-seq to characterize cultured CTD tumor cells. Most

of the CTD tumor cells were UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like, recapitulating the developmental

origins of G3 MB (**Supplementary Fig. S9A**). Consistent with our findings in human G3 MB, the

UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-like cells had higher BRAF and MAPK11 activity and drug signature

scores than RL_pro-like cells (**Supplementary Fig. S9B**). These results suggested that the CTD

model was suited to our needs.

First, we tested the drug combination's efficacy and synergy in CTD cells *in vitro*. Similar to in the

human PDX5950 model (**Fig. 4B**), the CTD mouse line exhibited notable sensitivity to MEK

inhibitors. Adding even a low dose of MEK inhibitor significantly lowered the EC_{50} of regorafenib

(**Fig. 6A and 6B**). Consistent with what was observed in human G3 MB cell lines (**Fig. 2E**),

combination therapy simultaneously downregulated phosphorylated MEK (p-MEK), p-ERK, p-p38,

and p-BRAF, while total protein levels remained unchanged (**Fig. 6C**).

We then evaluated the therapeutic efficacy of this combination *in vivo* using CTD-bearing

C57BL/6 mice (**Fig. 6D**). Mirdametinib, selected for its high brain penetration, was administered

at a low dose of 0.5 mg/kg given the high sensitivity of CTD to MEK inhibitors *in vitro*. Tumor

volume was monitored via MRI weekly, and the relative tumor burden assessed four weeks post-

surgery. Only the combination treatment group demonstrated a significant reduction in tumor

burden compared to control (**Fig. 6E**). Combination treatment likewise significantly extended

overall survival compared to monotherapy and control (**Fig. 6F**).

To investigate the effect of combination therapy on tumor cell states and the microenvironment,

we performed scRNA-seq of endpoint tumor samples from each therapy group. To increase TME

cell signal, we used CD45 antibody sorting to enrich the samples in immune TME cells, aiming

for an equal ratio of CD45$^+$ and CD45$^-$ cells (**Fig. 7A**). scRNA-seq captured a total of 39,658 cells,

including both tumor cells and a variety of TME cell types: macrophages, monocytes, microglia,

dendritic cells, T cells, natural killer cells, neutrophils, basophils, endothelial cells, and

oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (**Fig. 7B and Supplementary Fig. S9C**)

CTD tumors treated with regorafenib, both alone and in combination with mirdametinib, had a

lower proportion of UBC_GCP_pro-like and UBC_pro-like tumor cells and a higher proportion of

RL-pro-like cells compared to control and mirdametinib alone (**Fig. 7C and 7D**). Tumor cells

treated with REG and REG + MIR also showed reduced driver activity and drug signature scores

overall (**Supplementary Fig. S9D**). Not surprisingly, RL-pro-like tumors have lower drug

signature scores and driver activity compared to the drug-sensitive UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro-

like tumors (**Supplementary Fig. S9E**). Altogether, these data suggest that treating CTD tumors

with REG or REG + MIR reduces populations of drug-sensitive UBC_GCP_pro-like and UBC_pro-

like cells and increases populations of drug-tolerant RL-pro-like cells, producing the lower overall

driver activity and drug signature scores observed in these treatment groups.

To investigate whether drug treatment impacts tumor cells in other ways, we performed differential

expressed gene (DEG) analysis on the scRNA-seq data generated for our treatment groups.

Tumor cells treated with combination therapy showed up-regulation of MHC complex genes (*H2-*

D1, *H2-K1, H2-Aa, H2-Ab1, B2m* and *H2-Eb1*) and downregulation of *Lgals3*, a ligand of LAG3,

an immune checkpoint receptor expressed on T cells(75) (**Fig. 7E**). The function enrichment

analysis show the upregulated DE genes (avg_log2FC > 1, adjusted p value < 0.05) are related

to tumor antigen presentation(76) (**Fig. 7F**). We summarized antigen presentation related genes

into a module score and found across all treatment groups, with combination therapy producing

the highest score (**Fig. 7G and Supplementary Fig. S9F**).

Next, we used the scRNA-seq data to compare the immune cell type proportions of our treatment

groups (**Supplementary Table S13**). Sixteen immune cell types were captured, including seven

T cell populations (**Fig. 7B and 7H**). Monocytes (Mono) and T effector cells (Teffector) were

increased, and T regulatory cells (Treg) were decreased, in the combination therapy group

compared to control and monotherapy (**Fig. 7H and 7I**). Notably, the combination therapy group

had increased macrophages (**Fig. 7I**), but a greater proportion of those were of the M1 phenotype

(**Supplementary Fig. S9G**; **Supplementary Table S14**), consistent with a previous report that

regorafenib enhances M1/M2 polarization in head and neck cancers(77). In terms of T cells, we

found a reduction in immunosuppressive Tregs and an increase in CD8+ T effector cells in the

combination therapy group (**Fig. 7I**); in fact, this group had the highest ratio of CD8+ T effector

cells to Tregs (**Fig. 7J**), indicating more robust anti-tumor immunity compared to the other groups.

This owes to the increased antigen presentation previously observed in tumor cells.

Then to understand how the drugs changed TME globally, we calculated drug scores for immune

cells. Immune cells in the combination therapy group scored highest for MIR and REG, indicating

that these treatments may alter the transcriptomes of immune cells (**Supplementary Fig. S10A**,

see **Methods**). Tregs had the highest scores for both drugs; T effector cells and monocytes also

presented high scores (**Supplementary Fig. S10B**). These results suggest that drug treatment

may directly shape the cell type composition of the TME.

We also found that CD8+ T cells (Tex, T effector cells, Tcm and proliferative T cells) were more

activated, as indicated by increased expression of *Ifng*, *Prf1*, in the combination treatment group

(**Supplementary Fig. S10C**). These T cells also expressed more *Ccl3* and *Ccl4*, which have been

shown to increase T cell activation(78,79). CCL3 and CCL4 secretion has also been reported in

T effector cells activated by infections(80). CD8+ T cells in the combination therapy group also

showed upregulation of *Cxcr6* and downregulation of *Cxcr4*. *Cxcr6* has been noted to promote T

cell activation and recruit T cells into tumors, while *Cxcr4* mainly mediates the exclusion of T cells

from the tumor center. Collectively, these evidence suggest that combination treatment could

promote CD8+ T cells anti-tumor immunity(81-83)·(84). CD8+ T cells in the combination treatment

group also showed increased expression of several immune checkpoints and immunotherapy

targets(85,86), including PD1, LAG3, TIM3, CD160, and CD39 (**Supplementary Fig. S10C and**

D), indicative of CD8+ T cell exhaustion—a potential source of the resistance observed in this

treatment group. Supplementing regorafenib + MEK inhibitors with immunotherapy may therefore

achieve better efficacy in clinical settings and is a strategy worth exploring (**Supplementary Fig.**

S10E).

Previous studies have shown that besides direct activation by TCR, expression of CCL3 and

CCL4 in T cells can also be induced by IL12, IL18 and IFNg(80,87). Among the cell types captured

in the TME, monocytes exhibited the greatest expression of *Il18*, while its receptors (*Il18r* and

Il18rap) were highly expressed on T cells (**Supplementary Fig. S10F-S10I**). Given the higher

proportion of monocytes in the combination therapy group, the increased T cell activation

observed in this group could be explained by increased secretion of CCL3 and CCL4 in CD8+ T

cells induced by monocyte-derived IL18 (**Supplementary Fig. S10J and S10K**). This explanation

was partially supported by CellChat analysis(88) of ligand-receptor interactions on the IL18-IL18R

and CCL3/4-CCR5 axis. T effector cells in the combination therapy group received more

communications from IL18 (**Fig. 7K**, see **Methods**). However, no trend was observed in the IL18

communications received by immune-suppressive Tregs. For the CCL3/4-CCR5 axis, we found

an increase in communications received by T effector cells in both the mono- and combination

therapy groups, with communication levels greatest in the latter. Notably, MIR treatment blocked

CCL3/4-CCR5 communications received by Tregs. Together, these data demonstrate

combination therapy-induced activation of the CCL3/4-CCR5 axis in T effector cells but not

immunosuppressive Tregs, potentially explaining the greater active antitumoral immunity in the

combination therapy group.

In summary, regorafenib and MEK inhibitors not only demonstrated robust anti-tumor efficacy in

a syngeneic mouse model of G3 MB, but also triggered anti-tumor immunity through the activation

of cytotoxic CD8+ T cells, suggesting the combination's promise for overcoming tumor

progression and immune evasion in the clinic.

DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this study is the first to use systems biology approaches to guide high-

throughput combination drug screening in high-risk medulloblastoma. The SINBA platform brings

together gene activity data, a brain-penetrating drug database, and single-agent high-throughput

screening results to nominate synergistic drug pairs for combination screening. Through single-

agent screening, we identified both novel and previously reported G3 MB-specific drugs, such as

mycophenolate mofetil and digoxin[89]. Applied to transcriptomic data from three MB patient

cohorts, SINBA predicted a regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combination for G3 MB; these drugs were

later confirmed to be synergistic both *in vitro* (through drug screening) and *in vivo* (through efficacy

studies). We found that tumor cells sensitive to the regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combinations share

transcriptomic signatures with early unipolar brush cell (UBC) progenitors, which have previously

been proposed as the cell-of-origin for G3 MB[62,64,65,90,91]. We also showed that a

regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combination reprograms the tumor microenvironment, enhancing

CD8+ T cell recruitment in an immunocompetent G3 MB mouse model.

G3 medulloblastoma is an aggressive cerebellar tumor arising from malignantly transformed early

UBC progenitors within the rhombic lip subventricular zone (RL^{svz})(64,65,91). Single-cell analyses

comparing MB cells to normal cerebellar references have found that MB cells arise from early

developmental arrest(92) driven by genetic mutations or epigenetic dysregulation[(64),](9,93). Novel

immunotherapies, such as CAR-T cells targeting Protogenin-expressing stem cells, have shown

efficacy in preclinical G3 MB models in immunocompromised mice(91). However, drug

repurposing strategies that target origin cell populations *in vivo* are lacking. While SINBA is not

expressly designed to select drugs that target originating populations, it may nonetheless propose

drug pairs that do so, as it did for G3 MB.

Robust clinical and preclinical evidence suggest that combining regorafenib with MEK inhibitors

may effectively treat brain tumors(94-97). In the phase II REGOMA trial, treating relapsed

glioblastoma patients with regorafenib produced better therapeutic outcomes than lomustine[28].

The MEK inhibitor trametinib, in combination with the BRAF inhibitor dabrafenib, received FDA

approval in 2022 for the treatment of advanced tumors with BRAF V600E mutations, including

adult and pediatric gliomas. Another MEK inhibitor, mirdametinib, recently gained FDA approval

for treating plexiform neurofibromas in both adult and pediatric populations. Notably, combining

mirdametinib with the PI3K/mTOR inhibitor paxalisib significantly extends survival in mouse

models of pediatric high-grade gliomas(53). Given its more favorable pharmacokinetics and CNS

activity, mirdametinib replaced trametinib as the MEK inhibitor in our experiments *in vivo*.

Through the SINBA algorithm, trametinib and regorafenib were identified as a potentially

synergistic drug combination that targets BRAF and MAPK11 (a p38 subunit), hidden drivers in

G3 MB. Although this drug combination has not previously been tested in MB, MEK inhibitors and

regorafenib have demonstrated synergistic effects in colorectal cancer(98,99), gastric cancer(100)

and melanoma models harboring BRAF V600E mutations(101). While BRAF mutations are rare

in MB, upregulation of MEK kinase activity—a downstream target of BRAF—is common, even in

the absence of changes to the total protein levels(47). Overexpression of the PDGFA/RAS/MAPK

signaling pathway has been implicated in MB metastasis(102,103), and inhibition of MEK1/2 with

U0126 has been shown to reduce viability in MB(104). Additionally, treatment-resistant MB cells

maintain a stem cell-like state through overexpression of the BPIFB4 (bactericidal/permeability-

increasing fold-containing family B member 4) longevity factor. Reducing BPIFB4 levels in

recurrent MB cells diminishes their aggressiveness both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, with the ERK1/2 and

p38α proteins most affected by BPIFB4 knockdown(105). These findings align with previous

studies demonstrating that targeting ERK (a downstream target of MEK) and p38-MAPK signaling

with liposomal honokiol induces ROS-mediated apoptosis in MB cell line models(106).

The regorafenib-MEK inhibitor combination inhibits cancer progression both directly, by targeting

cancer-driving genes, and indirectly, through modulation of the TME. MEK inhibition protects

tumor-infiltrating CD8+ T cells from exhaustion driven by chronic TCR stimulation while preserving

cytotoxic activity(107). Regorafenib promotes a tumor suppressive microenvironment by

promoting Macrophage M1/M2 polarization and by decreasing expression of PD-L1 and

increasing expression of MHC-I class genes in tumor cells(77,108,109). These observations are

consistent with our finding that regorafenib-MEK inhibitor therapy promotes an antitumor TME in

G3 MB. Combination therapy-induced up-regulation of CD8+ T cell immunotherapy targets could

explain the resistance observed, as well as offer a potential solution: adding an immune

checkpoint blockade, such as PD-L1/PD1, LAG3, or TIM3. At present, no immunotherapy has

been approved for G3 MB tumors, which are typically immunotherapy-resistant and considered

immunologically "cold". Adjunctive regorafenib-MEK inhibitor therapy could sensitize these

tumors to immunotherapy, providing a path forward for that treatment modality in G3 MB.

This study establishes SINBA as a powerful tool for uncovering synergistic drug combinations

that target critical hidden drivers in high-risk MB and beyond. A regorafenib + MEK inhibitor

combination based on SINBA's predictions was found to disrupt key oncogenic pathways and

actively reprogram the TME towards an anti-tumor state, presenting a compelling therapeutic

strategy for G3 MB. Future directions include further refinement of SINBA's drug-target database

as well as translational investigations aimed at bringing the regorafenib + MEK inhibitor

combination into clinical use. Further studies should evaluate the combination as an adjunct to

standard chemotherapy, radiation, and immune checkpoint inhibitors, particularly the latter given

MB's immune-cold nature and the combination's TME-modulatory effects. To maximize efficacy

and address potential resistance, investigations should also be made into this combination's

impact on tumor cell plasticity and dynamic immune system interactions.

Authors' Disclosures

The authors declare no competing interests.

Authors' Contributions

J.Y. and J.L. conceptualized the study; J.L., X.Y. and M.Z. performed all the experiments with

B.B., B.M.J., W.L., and X.F.; J.L. performed all the data analysis with X.Y., M.Z., X.D., H.Z., B.M.J.,

L.Y., B.B.F.III, A.W. and R.J.; T.C., G.W.R., M.F.R., T.E.M. and A.G. provided relevant intellectual

input and edited the manuscript. J.L., X.Y., and M.Z. interpreted the results. J.L., X.Y., M.Z. and

J.Y. wrote the manuscript. All the authors reviewed and commented on the manuscript.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. SINBA leverages gene activity data and knowledge-based drug databases to predict and guide screening of synergistic drug pairs for high-risk medulloblastoma

A, Overview of the SINBA workflow for identifying synergistic drug combinations in medulloblastoma. Preparatory steps include using SJARACNe to generate a disease-specific gene interaction network and NetBID2 to identify subtype-specific driver genes. SINBA then selects drugs for single-agent screening before predicting synergistic drug pairs for combination testing. Finally, combination screening and synergy analysis identify promising drug pairs for validation. **B,** Breakdown of the Brain Penetrant Database (BPdb), a manually curated repository of potential and clinically validated blood-brain barrier penetrating (BBB+) drugs. SINBA integrates the BPdb with five additional drug-gene interaction databases for comprehensive target annotation. **C,** An optimized driver pair matrix based on SINBA's predictions of synergy *in silico*. Seed drivers (columns) and partner drivers (rows) are listed with their respective drugs. Delta Z-scores indicate the predicted synergy of each driver pair. **D,** Synergy analysis of the results of 10-dose combination screening. Synergy is expressed as a Zero Interaction Potency (ZIP) score. Data are represented as the mean ± SEM.

See also Supplementary Figures S1, S2 and S3.

Figure 2. Synergistic and on-target effects of MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combination in human G3 MB models

A, Left panel shows the combined activities of BRAF and MAPK11 in five human MB cell lines. Right panel shows those cell lines' drug sensitivity scores for trametinib (TRA) plus regorafenib (REG). **B,** Ranked ZIP scores for two regorafenib + MEK inhibitor (trametinib or mirdametinib) combinations in human MB cell lines. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

C, Cell growth inhibition contour plots and synergy landscapes for drug-dose combinations of

regorafenib and trametinib (left) and regorafenib and mirdametinib (right) in D341 cells. **D,** Cell

growth inhibition contour plots and synergy landscapes for drug-dose combinations of regorafenib

and trametinib (left) and regorafenib and mirdametinib (right) in MB002 cells. E, Western blot

analysis comparing total and phosphorylated MEK, ERK, p38, and BRAF following single agent

and combination treatment with regorafenib + trametinib (left) or regorafenib + mirdametinib (right)

at indicated time points.

See also Supplementary Figure S4.

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Figure 3. MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combination has synergistic anti-tumor efficacy *in*

***vivo* with G3 cell line model**

A, Schematic of experimental design for drug administration and imaging in CD-1 nude mice

implanted intracranially with D341, PDX5950, or DAOY tumor cells (created with BioRender.com).

Mice were randomized to receive vehicle (p.o.), mirdametinib (5 mg/kg or 0.5 mg/kg, p.o.),

regorafenib (10 mg/kg, p.o.), or the combination, starting one week post-implantation and

continuing three times per week for six weeks. IVIS or MRI imaging was performed weekly starting

one week after surgery. **B,** Representative *in vivo* bioluminescent images of mice bearing

orthotopic D341 tumors from weeks 1 to 5 post-implantation. **C,** Quantification of bioluminescence

signal (BLI) at week 2 post-treatment in the D341 model, showing significant tumor growth

reduction in the combination group. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. **D,** Kaplan–Meier survival

curves for mice implanted with D341 cells and treated as described in (B). Group sizes (n) are

indicated in the risk table; log-rank test results: $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$; ns, not

significant. **E,** Left: Representative IHC staining for cleaved caspase-3 in D341 tumors. Right:

Quantification of cleaved caspase-3-positive cells. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. $*P < 0.05$;

$**P < 0.01$.

See also Supplementary Figures S5 and S6.

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Figure 4. MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combination has synergistic anti-tumor efficacy *in*

***vivo* with patient derived orthotopic xenograft model**

A, Left panel shows the combined activities of BRAF and MAPK11 in normal cerebellum and

human G3 MB PDOX models. Right panel shows their drug sensitivity scores for trametinib (TRA)

plus regorafenib (REG). **B,** Top: Heatmap of PDX5950 cell viability with regorafenib and MEK

inhibitor combinations. Bottom: Dose–response curves for regorafenib in combination with fixed

concentrations of trametinib or mirdametinib. **C,** Kaplan–Meier survival curves for mice implanted

with PDX5950 and treated as described in Figure 3A. Group sizes (n) are indicated in the risk

table; log-rank test results: ***$P < 0.001$; ns, not significant. **D,** MRI-quantified tumor volumes at

week 4 post-treatment. *$P < 0.05$. **E,** Left: Representative IHC staining for cleaved caspase-3 in

PDX5950 tumors. Right: Quantification of cleaved caspase-3-positive cells. Data are represented

as mean ± SEM. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$.

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Figure 5. MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combination therapy targets on UBC_GCP

common progenitor and UBC progenitor like tumor cells

A, Re-annotation of the normal glutamatergic neuronal lineage, projected onto a UMAP

embedding using scRNA-seq data from Lu et al. **B,** Expression patterns of key marker genes

defining glutamatergic lineage cell states. **C,** Cell state annotation of Medulloblastoma tumor cells

(patient scRNA-seq data, GSE156053*; Riemondy et al*.) using the normal developmental

reference from A. Visualization restricted to tumor cells. **D,** Proportional distribution of tumor cell

states across medulloblastoma patient subgroups. **E,** Feature and violin plots showing driver

combination activities and predicted drug sensitivity scores within tumor populations. **F,** UMAP

visualization of orthotopically implanted D341 tumor cells (in CD-1 mice) from treated mice,

annotated with cell states using the normal developmental reference. **G,** Proportional distribution

of tumor cell states across treatment groups. **H-J,** Single-cell feature plots (**H**) and violin plots (**I,**

J) of driver activities and drug sensitivity scores across treatment arms (**I**) and predicted cell states

(**J**).

See also Supplementary Figures S7 and S8.

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Figure 6. The combination of MEK inhibitor and regorafenib is effective in CTD, an

immunocompetent syngenetic mouse model of G3 MB

A-B, Top: Heatmap of the CTD syngenetic mouse tumor cell viability treated with regorafenib and

MEK inhibitor combinations. Bottom: Dose-response curves of regorafenib with fixed

concentrations of trametinib (left) or mirdametinib (right). **C,** Western blot analysis of total and

phosphorylated Mek, Erk, p38, and Braf in CTD cells following treatment at indicated time points.

D, Schematic of experimental design for drug administration and MRI imaging in C57BL/6J mice

(created with BioRender.com). Seven days after intracranial implantation of CTD cells, mice were

randomized into four treatment groups and treated three times per week for six weeks with vehicle

(p.o.), mirdametinib (0.5 mg/kg p.o.), regorafenib (10 mg/kg p.o.), or the combination. **E,** MRI-

measured tumor volumes across treatment groups. Unpaired two-sided t tests were used; **$P <$

0.01. **F,** Kaplan–Meier survival curves for mice treated as described in (D). Group sizes (n) are

indicated in the risk table; log-rank test results: *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ns, not

significant.

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Figure 7. MEK inhibition combined with regorafenib remodels tumor cell states and the

tumor microenvironment in the CTD syngenetic mouse model

A, Schematic of experimental design for generating scRNA-seq data from the CTD syngeneic

model preclinical study (created with BioRender.com). **B,** UMAP visualization of the cells from

the CTD model treated with monotherapy or combination therapy *in vivo*, with cells colored by

their annotated cell types. **C,** UMAP plot of tumor cell states in the four treatment groups. **D,**

Proportional distribution of tumor cell states across treatment groups. **E,** Volcano plot of

differentially expressed genes in tumor cells from the MIR_REG combination group versus other

treatments. **F,** Functional enrichment of top upregulated genes (avg_log2FC > 1, adjusted p <

0.05) in tumor cells from the MIR_REG combination group. **G,** Antigen presentation module

scores in tumor cells across treatment groups; two-sided t tests were used to compare

combination treatment with other groups. *P < 0.05, **P < 1.0e-10, ***P < 1.0e-20. **H,**

Proportional distribution of Cd45+ immune cells across treatment groups. **I,** Log2 fold-change in

abundance of immune cell populations for each treatment group relative to the vehicle control.

J, Ratio of T effector (Teffector) to T regulatory (Treg) cells across treatment groups. **K,**

CellChat-inferred ligand–receptor communication probabilities from monocytes to Teffector and

Treg cells.

See also Supplementary Figures S9 and S10.

MEHTODS

1241

Chemicals

Regorafenib monohydrate (HY-10331A), Trametinib (HY-10999), and Mirdametinib (PD0325901,

HY-10254) were obtained from MedChemExpress (MCE). For in vitro studies, each compound

was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; FisherScientific, BP231-100) to a final stock

concentration of 10 mM. For in vivo preclinical studies, the compounds were formulated as follows.

1. Regorafenib: The free base equivalent of regorafenib was calculated using a correction factor

of 1.0373 for its monohydrate form. The drug was first dissolved in an 80% non-aqueous vehicle

consisting of propylene glycol (PG, 42.5%), polyethylene glycol 400 (PEG400, 42.5%), and

Pluronic F68 (15%) (v/v/v) by heating to 60 °C with agitation and vortexing. The solution was then

brought to final volume with ultra-pure water at room temperature, yielding a clear formulation for

oral gavage at a concentration of 3 mg/mL, administered at 10 mL/kg. 2. Trametinib: A 3 mg/mL

stock solution was prepared in DMSO. For oral administration, the stock was diluted to 1% DMSO

in a vehicle consisting of 10% Cremophor RH40, 10% PEG400, and 80% ultra-pure water,

resulting in a final dose concentration of 0.03 mg/mL, delivered at 10 mL/kg. 3. Mirdametinib: The

compound was formulated at 2.5 mg/mL in an aqueous suspension containing 1%

methylcellulose and 1% Tween 80. The formulation was prepared using sonication to ensure

uniform dispersion and administered by oral gavage at a dose volume of 10 mL/kg.

1259

1260 **The SINBA algorithm to identify synergistic drug pairs for G3 MB**

1261 The SINBA package is available on GitHub with a detailed tutorial

1262 (https://github.com/jyyulab/SINBA). Below, we outline the steps used to identify synergistic

1263 therapeutics for Group 3 medulloblastoma (G3 MB) using SINBA.

1264

1. Construction of medulloblastoma-specific gene-gene interaction network

To reconstruct medulloblastoma-specific interactomes (MBi), we applied the SJARACNe

algorithm(41,121) to a curated microarray dataset, DKFZ_SJ, comprising 407 medulloblastoma

patient samples. Using Gene Ontology classifications, we compiled a list of 11,239 transcription

factor (TF) genes and signaling molecules to serve as hub genes in the MBi. Separate

transcription factor (TF) and signaling molecule (SIG) networks were generated using SJARACNe.

In this final network, drivers were linked to their downstream targets through edges based on

gene–gene mutual information derived from their expression patterns. The reconstructed MBi

consisted of 38,621 probe nodes and 1,567,381 interactions, representing 12,495 hub probes

(corresponding to 7,155 genes) and their downstream target probes.

1275

2. Identification of G3-Specific Drivers

Hub gene activities for each sample in the DKFZ_SJ dataset (407 MB patients, 4 normal

cerebellum) were inferred using NetBID2 package(45) function **cal.Activity** (es.method =

"weightedmean"), which integrates gene expression profiles with the MBi. G3-specific drivers

were selected based on the following criteria, resulting in 75 candidates:

• Adjusted p-value for G3 vs. other subgroups < 1e-5, with Z-score > 0.

• Adjusted p-value for G3 vs. normal cerebellum < 1e-3, with Z-score > 0.

• Regulon size between 50 and 500.

1284

3. Refinement of G3-Specific Drivers

To refine the list, we used SINBA's built-in Brain Penetrant database (BPdb) to filter for druggable

drivers, yielding 45 seed drivers targeted by 69 compounds. TF and SIG networks were merged

using the SINBA function **get.combined.network** to prepare for activity calculations and driver-

pair predictions. Driver pairs were generated either manually or by unbiasedly combining seed

drivers with all druggable hub genes using the **combineNet2Target_list** function.

Following seed drug library screening, 20 drugs (targeting 20 seed drivers) with EC20 < 10 µM or

the solo agent targeting on the interesting seed drivers.

1293

4. Prediction of Driver Pairs and Drug Pairs

Driver-pair predictions were performed by combining the TF and SIG networks and pairing the 20

seed drivers with all druggable MBi hub genes using the **combineNet2Target_list** function.

Activities for single drivers and driver pairs were calculated using **cal.SINBA.Activity**. Driver pairs

were ranked using **get.SINBA.DE.2G**, which computes statistical values comparing G3 with other

subtypes and normalizes p-values into Z scores (Z.pair). Z scores for seed (Z.seed) and partner

drivers (Z.partner) were calculated similarly. The delta.Z score was defined as:

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$$\mathrm{delta.\,Z} = \frac{\mathrm{Z.\,pair(G3.\,vs.\,other\ subtype)}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

1303
$$- \frac{\mathrm{Z.\,seed(G3.\,vs.\,other\ subtype)} + \mathrm{Z.\,partner(G3.\,vs.\,other\ subtype)}}{2}$$

1304

1305 A genetic algorithm(122) (implemented in the function **find_max_sum_submatrix**) was then

1306 employed to optimize the maximum sum of delta.Z scores (*in silicon* synergistic scores) for G3

1307 vs. other subtypes. The final matrix layout consisted of 20 seed drivers × 16 partner drivers. BPdb

1308 was then used to convert driver pairs into drug pairs.

1309

SINBA-guided drug combination screening

1. Single-Drug Dose–Response Testing

A total of 90 compounds (69 predicted seed drugs and 21 partner drugs) identified by the SINBA

algorithm were screened. Compounds were tested in 10-point dose-response curves (10 µM to

0.47 nM, 1:3 serial dilution) against the HDMB03 cell line. Cell culture conditions, tumor

dissociation protocols, and density optimization followed established methods(123). HDMB03

cells were seeded in 384-well plates. After 24 hours, compounds were pin-transferred (Biomek

FX Workstation; Beckman Coulter) with negative (0.08% DMSO) and positive control (1.6 μM

staurosporine; MedChemExpress, HY-15141). Cell viability was assessed 7 days post-treatment

using CellTiter-Glo® (Promega, G7572). Dose-response curves were fitted using the drc

package(120) with four-parameter log-logistic function to estimate EC_{20}, EC_{50} values, which

defined low- and high-dose conditions (with fixed defaults of 1 μM and 6 μM, respectively, for

drugs lacking EC_{20} or EC_{50} values).The four-parameter log-logistic function is given by the

expression:

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$$f(x) = c + \frac{d - c}{1 + \exp\left(b(\log(x) - \log(e))\right)}$$

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2. Two-dose combination testing

To prioritize the drug pairs testing for synergy, 320 SINBA-predicted drug pairs were tested in

384-well plates (64 wells reserved for controls). Each pair included four conditions: drug1 low

dose+ drug2 high dose; drug1 high dose + drug2 high dose; drug1 low dose + drug2 low dose;

drug1 high dose + drug2 low dose. 7 days after treatment, viability was measured (CellTiter-Glo®,

Promega) and normalized to controls. Combination effects were quantified as:

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$$Combo_{effect} = Ecombo - \frac{Edrug1 + Edrug2}{2}$$

1336

1337 3. 10-dose combination screening

1338 32 prioritized pairs were tested in full dose-response matrices (10×10 concentrations, 10 mmol/L

1339 to 0.14 nmol/L). Drugs were added simultaneously, and viability was assessed after 7 days.

1340   Synergy score were calculated using the synergyFinder package(110) with zero interaction

1341   potency (ZIP) model(32).

1342

Medulloblastoma Patient SINBA Shiny App

We developed a medulloblastoma-specific SINBA Shiny app to provide a comprehensive

resource for exploring MB patient data(https://yulab-stjude.shinyapps.io/SINBA_MB). The app

includes pre-built MBi networks, curated six drug-gene interaction databases, driver and driver-

pair activity profiles, gene expression profiles, and patient clinical outcomes. Users can flexibly

select druggable drivers using six integrated drug-gene interaction databases and explore

potential synergistic driver pairs. This tool is designed to support hypothesis generation and

facilitate the identification of therapeutic targets in medulloblastoma research.

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Cell culture and transfection

G3 MB human cell line HDMB03 and MB002 were generously provided by Dr. Till Milde and Dr.

Jae-Youn Cho, respectively(124,125). PDX model SJMBG3-12-5950 (PDX5950) was utilized as

described in the published work(58). Human SHH subgroup DAOY cell line was purchased from

American Tissue Culture Collection (ATCC, HTB-186). Human G3 cell lines D341, D283, D425

and mouse model CTD(74) were generously provided by Dr. Richard Q. Lu. Human cell lines and

PDX model were cultured as neurospheres in supplemented neurobasal medium per established

protocol(126). All lines underwent quarterly mycoplasma testing (MycoAlert™, Lonza) and

maintained <10 passages post-thaw.

1361

1362   To generate the luciferase-expressing D341 cell line, cells were infected with a lentiviral vector

1363   (CL20SF2-Luc2aYFP) containing the firefly luciferase and yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) genes

1364   at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 20. Following infection, cells were sorted based on YFP

1365   fluorescence to select for positively transduced cells.

1366

1367   The mouse model CTD was cultured using previously published methods. Briefly, CTD cells were

1368   grown in DMEM/F-12 medium supplemented with HEPES buffer, sodium pyruvate, non-essential

1369   amino acids, GlutaMax (Thermofisher Cat# 35050061) and B-27 supplement (Thermofisher Cat#

1370   17504044) at 37°C and 5% CO2. A total of 1×10^6 CTD cells were infected with 1μl of virus (titer

1371 4×10^{10}) for 48h. Then YFP+ cells were sorted by fluorescent-activated cell sorting (FACS).

1372

Drug signature score calculation in medulloblastoma tumors

Gene signatures induced by regorafenib and trametinib treatment in the central nervous system

were obtained from the iLINCS database (https://www.ilincs.org/ilincs/;regorafenib: CTRS_2230;

trametinib: CTRS_2295; Table S15). Differentially expressed genes were identified using cutoffs

of |logFC| > 1.5 and p-value < 0.01. This analysis identified 103 upregulated and 42

downregulated genes following regorafenib treatment, and 32 upregulated and 28 downregulated

genes following trametinib treatment. The upregulated and downregulated gene sets from both

treatments were merged to represent the combined effects of the drug pair.

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To calculate MEK inhibitor plus regorafenib signature scores in MB tumor cells, gene expression

profiles were first converted to activity profiles by integrating the medulloblastoma-specific

interactome (MBi) for bulk or single-cell RNA-seq samples. Activity profiles were standardized

using z-transformation. Upregulated and downregulated gene sets were analyzed separately

using the NetBID2 function **cal.Activity.GS** (es.method = "ssgsea"). For each sample, the drug

pair signature score was calculated by subtracting the ssGSEA score of the upregulated gene set

from that of the downregulated gene set, quantifying sensitivity to the combination treatment.

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Ex vivo **evaluation of MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combination efficacy by AlamarBlue**

assay

The viability of D341, MB002, D283, D425, DAOY, SJMBG3-12-5950 (PDX5950), and CTD cells

were assessed in the presence of MEK inhibitors (trametinib or mirdametinib/PD901) in

combination with regorafenib using full dose-response matrices (10×10 concentrations, ranging

from 10 mmol/L to 1 nmol/L Drugs were transferred into 384-well plates using the Echo 650 series

acoustic liquid handler for precise nanoliter-scale dispensing.

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Cells were seeded into the drug-treated plates at a density of 1×10^3 cells per 30 µL of medium

and incubated for seven days under standard culture conditions. After seven days, cell viability

was measured using the AlamarBlue assay. Briefly, 10% AlamarBlue reagent was added to the

cells in complete medium, and the plates were incubated for 1-4 hours according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Absorbance was measured using a plate reader to quantify cell viability.

The calculation of synergistic effects was performed as described in the SINBA-guided high-

throughput screening section.

1405

Drug treatment and western blot

Human G3 cell lines or mouse mode CTD cells were seeded into 6-well plates and treated with

regorafenib, either alone or in combination with trametinib or mirdametinib, at the indicated

concentrations. After 3 days of treatment(72 h), cells were harvested and lysed in RIPA buffer

supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors (#78440, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for

20 minutes. Total protein extracts were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto

polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore, USA) using the Trans-Blot Turbo™ transfer

system (Bio-Rad, USA).

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The PVDF membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in TBS-T for 1 h at room

temperature. Following blocking, the membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary

antibodies (Cell Signaling Technology). After washing three times with TBS-T, the membranes

were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (ABclonal) for 1 h at room

temperature. Protein bands were visualized using an enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) kit

(ABclonal) and imaged with the Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP Imaging System.

1421

Pharmacokinetics of regorafenib, mirdametinib and trametinib in mice

The plasma and brain pharmacokinetic (PK) profile of regorafenib was evaluated in normal female

Crl:CD1 (ICR) nude mice (7 to 11 weeks old; Charles River Laboratories, Stock Number 086).

Regorafenib monohydrate (MedChem Express, CAT# HY-10331A, LOT# 09764) was suspended

in 80% (propylene glycol 42.5% / polyethylene glycol 400 42.5% / Pluronic F68 15%) and 20%

ultra-pure water (Millipore), at 1 mg/mL for a 10 mg/kg free base equivalent dose. Terminal

samples, one from each mouse, were collected over a 24-hour post-dose period by cardiac

puncture using a 1 mL syringe, the blood placed in a Sarstedt Microvette K3EDTA 500 μL tube

and immediately separated to plasma. The carcass was then perfused with PBS, the brain

extracted, rinsed, and placed in a microcentrifuge tube. All samples were immediately stored on

dry ice and transferred to -80 °C until analysis. Remaining regorafenib dosing suspension was

submitted for verification of potency, and chemical and physical stability during the study period.

1434

1435 For brain exposure studies of trametinib and mirdametinib, 10 mmol/L stock solutions were initially

1436 prepared in DMSO. These stocks were subsequently diluted to a final concentration of 1 mmol/L

1437 using a sequential dilution method with 30% polyethylene glycol 400 (PEG400) and 60%

1438 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Intravenous dosing was performed at 5 mL/kg. Samples were

1439 collected as regorafenib study.

1440

Brain exposure was assessed by determining the unbound brain-to-plasma partition ratio ($K_{p,uu}$),

a critical parameter in evaluating central nervous system (CNS) drug penetration and distribution.

$K_{p,uu}$, derived from the total brain-to-plasma partition ratio (K_p), was calculated using Equation (1),

as previously described(51). Unbound drug exposures were estimated based on measured total

drug concentrations in plasma and brain, in combination with experimentally determined fractions

unbound in plasma ($f_{u,plasma}$) and brain tissue ($f_{u,brain}$). Plasma and brain concentration-time data

for the agents were summarized, with the mean values subjected to standard noncompartmental

analysis (NCA) using Phoenix WinNonlin 8.1 (Certara USA, Inc., Princeton, NJ). The apparent

plasma-to-brain partition coefficient (Kp) in mice was estimated as the ratio of the area under the

concentration-time curve (AUC) in brain to the AUC in plasma.

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$$K_{p,uu} = K_p \times \frac{f_{u,brain}}{f_{u,plasma}} = \frac{AUC_{brain} \times f_{u,brain}}{AUC_{plasma} \times f_{u,plasma}} \qquad (1)$$

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***In vivo* evaluation the efficacy of mirdametinib plus regorafenib**

Luciferase-positive D341 cells (30,000 cells/mouse), PDX5950 (SJMBG3-12-5950) tumor cells

(500,000 cells/mouse), DAOY cells (500,000 cells/mouse) and luciferase-positive CTD cells

(1,000,000 cells/mouse) were resuspended in 5 µL Matrigel (BD Biosciences, 356234) and

stereotactically implanted into the cortices of 7–11-week-old female CD-1 nude mice or male

C57BL/6J mice (for CTD models; The Jackson Laboratory, Cat. 000664). Tumor growth was

monitored weekly using bioluminescence imaging (BLI) with a PerkinElmer IVIS system or

magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), as previously described(123). Treatment was initiated one

week after implantation surgery. Mice were randomized into treatment groups and continuously

dosed for six weeks with vehicle, mirdametinib, regorafenib, or the combination of mirdametinib

and regorafenib. Regorafenib was administered at a fixed dose of 10 mg/kg across all models,

while mirdametinib was dosed at 5 mg/kg for D341 and DAOY models and 0.5 mg/kg for PDX

SJMBG3-12-5950 and CTD models. For combination therapy tested with D341 model, involving

regorafenib (10 mg/kg), mirdametinib (5 mg/kg), and irradiation, radiation was delivered using the

Small Animal Radiation Research Platform (SARRP, Xstrahl Life Sciences). An 8 mmx 11 mm

treatment field was delivered to the brain using opposed lateral beams 0.5 Gy/day for 5 days to a

total dose of 2.5 Gy. Detailed irradiation protocols have been previously published(127).

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Mice that reached the experimental endpoint were euthanized, and tumors were harvested and

snap-frozen for molecular analysis. Mice were excluded from the study if they died prematurely,

failed to develop tumors, or required humane euthanasia due to unrelated health conditions

without tumor burden. All experiments were conducted in accordance with the National Institutes

of Health's Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the St. Jude

Children's Research Hospital (SJCRH) Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC

protocol #3078).

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1482   Toxicity was assessed weekly by measuring body weight and performing endpoint blood work.

1483   Complete blood counts were obtained from whole blood treated with ethylenediamine tetra-acetic

1484   acid (EDTA) using a Forcyte Hematology Analyzer (Oxford Scientific), which employs impedance

1485   and laser technology. Serum diagnostic chemistry panels were analyzed using the Trilogy

1486   chemistry analyzer (Drew Scientific).

1487

Visualization Web Portal for Single-Cell Glutamatergic Lineage Developmental Reference

and Medulloblastoma Patient Data

To facilitate data exploration and visualization, we developed two interactive web portals: one for

the glutamatergic lineage reference (https://scminer.stjude.org/study/Glutamatergic-lineage) and

one for medulloblastoma patient data (https://scminer.stjude.org/study/GSE155446). The portals

were built with JavaScript and Vue.js for the frontend, Java and Spring Boot for the backend, and

Neo4j and MySQL databases for efficient data management. The web portal provides access to

three main functionalities: dataset presentation, data visualization, and data downloading.

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For glutamatergic lineage analysis, we curated a public scRNA-seq dataset of the human fetal

cerebellum generated with the 10X Chromium platform(66). From this dataset, glutamatergic

lineage cells were filtered by selecting cell populations annotated as "01xNSC,"

"06xGCP_progenitor," "07xGCP_1," "08xGCP_2," "09xGranule_cell," "10xUBC_progenitor,"

"11xDiff.UBC," and "11xUBC" in the original study. To account for major sequencing batch effects,

present in the dataset, UMAP-level batch correction was performed using Harmony prior to

downstream clustering and visualization. Unsupervised Leiden clustering, combined with

previous annotations and manual curation informed by known lineage markers, resulted in the

identification of seven distinct glutamatergic lineage cell types: neural stem cells (NSC), rhombic

lip progenitors (RL_pro), unipolar brush cell and granule cell precursor common progenitors

(UBC_GCP_pro), unipolar brush cell progenitors (UBC_pro), granule cell precursors (GCP),

granule cells (GC), and unipolar brush cells (UBC).

1509

1510   For medulloblastoma patient data, single-cell RNA-seq profiles from 28 pediatric tumors (1 WNT,

1511   9 SHH, 7 Group 3, 11 Group 4; GEO accession GSE155446) were processed using the Seurat

1512   workflow, with batch correction via Harmony. Cell type annotations were adopted from the original

1513   publication or re-annotated using the glutamatergic lineage reference.

1514

Both portals integrate single-cell expression profiles with the medulloblastoma-specific

interactome (MBi), utilizing the scMINER algorithm(73) to generate activity profiles. Users can

query both gene expression and activity profiles for any given list of driver genes. The portal

supports various visualization tasks, including clustering UMAPs, heatmaps, bubble plots, violin

plots, and network plots, enabling users to explore lineage-specific patterns and driver activity in

a user-friendly environment.

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Pseudotime trajectory analysis for the glutamatergic lineage cells

The differentiation trajectory of glutamatergic lineage cells was reconstructed using Slingshot(115)

(v2.10) and Monocle 3(128) (v1.3). The UMAP projection of glutamatergic lineage cells was

imported from a Seurat object for downstream analysis. For pseudotime calculation with Slingshot,

the slingshot function was applied to compute the arc length from the starting point (neural stem

cells, NSC) to all projected points along the principal curve, assigning pseudotime values to each

cell. To construct the trajectory with Monocle 3, sample-based batch effects were corrected using

the align_cds function. The UMAP projection was imported from the Seurat object, and the

differentiation trajectory was generated using the learn_graph function. NSC cells were selected

as the starting point for the pseudotime trajectory. The trajectory, aligned with the UMAP

projections, was visualized using the plot_cells function in Monocle 3.

1533

Deconvolution of Glutamatergic Lineage Developmental States in Bulk RNA-seq Samples

of MB Patients or PDOX

To prepare the dataset for deconvolution, we normalized the reference glutamatergic lineage

single-cell counts to 1×10^6 and used the seven cell type annotations as input for ReDeconv

package(71) built-in functions **get_initial_Signature_Candidates** and

Get_signature_gene_matrix. The following parameters were applied:

• L_topNo = 200

• L_max_pv = 0.05

• L_min_fold_change = 2.0

• L_CellType_CellNo_LB = 30

• L_NoSep_sampleNo_UB = 2

1545

After generating the glutamatergic lineage cell type signature gene matrix, we applied the

ReDeconv function to deconvolute glutamatergic lineage developmental state proportions in bulk

RNA-seq samples from public medulloblastoma patient datasets and patient-derived orthotopic

xenograft (PDOX) bulk RNA-seq data, which were quantified as FPKM. The seven cell type

signature matrix served as input for this deconvolution process, allowing us to estimate the

relative proportions of developmental states in each bulk RNA-seq sample.

1552

Single-cell RNA-seq profiling of human cell line D341 and mouse model CTD *in vitro*

Cells from either the mouse syngeneic G3 MB model (CTD) or the human G3 MB cell line (D341)

were dissociated with Accutase (Stemcell Technologies, Cat# 07922) at 37°C for 5 minutes. Then

we input 8000 cells with 80% viability to the workflow of 3' gene expression of 10x genomics. The

10x Genomics Chromium controller instrument was used for Gel Bead-in-Emulsion (GEMs)

preparation. Gel Bead-in-Emulsion (GEM) generation was performed using the Chromium

Controller, followed by single-cell library preparation using Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3′ Kit

v3.1 (PN-1000269), Chromium Next GEM Chip G Single Cell Kit (PN-1000127) and Dual Index

Kit TT Set A (PN-1000215). cDNA and final barcoded sequencing libraries were constructed

following the manufacturer's guidelines and subsequently assessed for quality and concentration

using Tapestation.

1564

Single-cell RNA-seq profiling of human model and mouse model after treatment in

preclinical study

In vivo-implanted D341 mouse tumors were harvested at the endpoint. Tumor tissues were

minced and digested at 37°C for 30 minutes using the Human Tumor Dissociation Kit (Miltenyi

Biotec, catalog no. 30-095-929). Red blood cells were removed by treatment with ACK lysis buffer

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, catalog no. A1049201). The digested tissues were then passed through

a 70 μm cell strainer to obtain a single-cell suspension. Approximately 8,000 cells with over 80%

viability were selected and processed using the Flex Gene Expression workflow from 10x

Genomics for downstream analysis.

1574

Mouse CTD tumors were harvested at end point. Mouse tissues were minced and digested at

37°C for 1 h (1mg/mL papain, 10 μg/mL DNase I, 10% heat-inactivated FBS in RPMI) to dissociate

cells. Red blood cells were lysed with ACK lysis buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, catalog no.

A1049201). Then tissues were passed through 70 μm cell strainer to get single-cell suspension.

Then cells were incubated with CD16/32 antibody (Miltenyi Biotec, Cat#130-092-575) for 20

minutes on ice to block Fc receptors. Next, they were stained with PE-CD45 antibody (Biolegend,

Cat# 157603) on ice for 20 minutes and DAPI (1ug/ml) on ice for 3 minutes. Then live immune

cells (CD45+) and tumor cells (YFP+) were sorted by FACS and combined for downstream library

preparations.

1584

Then we input 8000 cells with 80% viability to the workflow of Flex gene expression of 10x

genomics. The 10x Genomics Chromium controller instrument was used for Gel Bead-in-

Emulsion (GEMs) preparation. Gel Bead-in-Emulsion (GEM) generation was performed using the

Chromium Controller, followed by single-cell library preparation using GEM-X Flex Sample

Preparation v2 Kit (PN-1000781), GEM-X Flex Gene Expression Chip Kit (PN-1000791), GEM-X

Flex Gene Expression Mouse Transcriptome probe kit (PN-1000786) and Dual Index Kit TT Set A

(PN-1000215). cDNA and final barcoded sequencing libraries were constructed following the

manufacturer's guidelines and subsequently assessed for quality and concentration using

Tapestation.

1594

Single-cell RNA-seq data analysis

Raw sequencing data generated from the Illumina NovaSeq platform were processed using the

Cell Ranger pipeline (version 8.0.1, 10X Genomics). This pipeline performed demultiplexing,

alignment to the reference genome (hg GRCh38 or mm39), and barcode processing to produce

gene–cell matrices for downstream analysis. To ensure consistent filtering, datasets from in vivo

samples treated with either vehicle or drug were merged into a single dataset.

1601

Unsupervised clustering of single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) data was performed using

the R package Seurat(111) (version 5.3.0). Cells were filtered based on quality metrics, excluding

those with low or high unique molecular identifier (UMI) counts, low or high gene numbers, or

elevated mitochondrial gene expression (>10%). Gene expression levels were normalized to

10,000 UMIs per cell and log-transformed by adding 1 to the expression matrix. Highly variable

genes (top 2000) were identified using Seurat's "vst" method, which were subsequently used for

principal component analysis (PCA). The first 30 principal components (PCs) were utilized for

dimensionality reduction via uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) and

clustering. Cell type markers were applied to annotate tumor cell types within each cluster.

1611

1612   **Drug signature score calculation in normal immune cells**

1613   Context-matched gene signatures induced by regorafenib and mirdametinib were curated from

1614   bone marrow dataset (regorafenib: SCP_87407; mirdametinib: SCP_86814; Table S15) using

1615   cutoffs of |logFC| > 1.5 and p-value < 0.05. This yielded 48 upregulated and 55 downregulated

1616   genes for mirdametinib, and 58 upregulated and 93 downregulated genes for regorafenib.

1617

1618   For normal cells, gene expression values in each single cell were standardized, and the drug

1619   signature score was calculated by subtracting the ssGSEA score of the upregulated gene set

1620   from the ssGSEA score of the downregulated gene set for the mirdametinib-regorafenib

1621   combination.

1622

Cell–cell interaction analysis

Cell–cell interaction analysis was conducted using samples from 16 mice (4 mice per treatment

arm) profiled with the 10x Flex Gene Expression platform. Interactions were analyzed using

CellChat (V2.1.2), focusing on secreted signaling ligand-receptor pairs from the CellChatDB

database. The selected cell types included: "Tcm," "Teffector," "Tex," "Tfh," "Th17," "Treg,"

"Mono," "Macrophage" "Microglia" and "Tumor" The number and strength of inferred interactions

were analyzed between the 10 selected cell types. Differential interaction strength was compared

between each treatment arm and the control group. Additionally, the relative interaction strength

and information flow for specific receptor-ligand signaling pathways were assessed.

1632

Data Availability

The 10x Genomics single-cell RNA-seq data generated in this study are available from NCBI GEO

under accession numbers GSE308633, GSE308635, GSE308649, and GSE308692. SINBA

package is available on GitHub (https://github.com/jyyulab/SINBA). Additional resources include

the SINBA medulloblastoma portal (https://yulab-stjude.shinyapps.io/SINBA_MB), the normal

glutamatergic lineage developmental reference portal

(https://scminer.stjude.org/study/Glutamatergic-lineage), and the medulloblastoma patient

scRNA-seq portal (https://scminer.stjude.org/study/GSE155446). 10x Genomics scRNA-seq data

from developing human cerebellum and medulloblastoma patients were obtained from Luo et

al.(66) and are also available via the China National GeneBank Data Base (CNP0002781).

Additional medulloblastoma patient 10x scRNA-seq data were downloaded from GEO

(GSE155446), and Smart-seq2 scRNA-seq data from GEO (GSE119926).

 Supplementary Figures

 Figure S1. Druggable hidden drivers in high-risk medulloblastoma

A, Heatmap displaying druggable hidden driver activities and expressions in three

medulloblastoma cohorts. **B,** Druggable hidden driver genes identified by the SINBA algorithm

were evaluated for association with overall survival in the GSE85217 cohort. MB Patients were

stratified by high (>75th percentile) versus low (<25th percentile) gene expression or activity.

Kaplan–Meier survival analysis; p values calculated by log-rank test. **C,** Kaplan–Meier curves

showing overall survival of MB patients stratified by BRAF or CDK7 activity or expression.

D, BRAF activity, mRNA expression, total protein and phosphorylated BRAF (S1264) levels

across MB subgroups and normal samples. **E,** CDK7 activity, mRNA expression, total protein and

phosphorylated CDK7 (S164/T170) levels across MB subgroups and normal samples. **F,** Kaplan–

Meier curves showing overall survival of MB patients stratified by MYC activity or expression.

G, MYC activity, mRNA expression, total protein and phosphorylated MYC (T365) levels across

MB subgroups and normal samples.

For (**D**), (**E**), and (**G**), unpaired two-sided t tests were performed between G3 MB and other

subgroups. For (**C**) and (**F**), P value was calculated by log-rank test.

1662

Figure S2. SINBA-guided multi-step drug screening identifies potential therapeutic

combinations for high-risk medulloblastoma

A, Seed and partner drugs with half-maximal effective concentrations (EC50) below 10 µM.

B, Summary of HTS results from the seed drug and partner drug libraries. **C,** Overview of two-

dose combination screening outcomes. **D,** Representative contour plots showing HDMB03 cell

growth inhibition across varying concentrations of trametinib, axitinib or ponatinib in combination

with regorafenib.

1670

Figure S3. Pharmacokinetic profile of the MEK inhibitors and regorafenib

A, Pharmacokinetic profile of regorafenib: plasma and brain concentrations measured over 24 hours post-dose with the statistical analysis of regorafenib plasma and brain concentration–time (Ct) profiles. **B-C**, Pharmacokinetic profiles of trametinib and mirdametinib: plasma and brain concentrations measured over 4 hours post-dose. **D,** Chemical proteomic profiling of clinical kinase inhibitors, showing predicted interaction targets of trametinib, mirdametinib, and regorafenib. **E,** Comparative analysis of driver activity within the KEGG MAPK signaling cascade between G3 and normal samples in the DKFZ_SJ cohort. Nodes are color-coded according to Z-score (normalized p value) differentials reflecting G3 versus normal cerebellum. Genes targeted by trametinib and regorafenib are accentuated in magenta.

For (**A**), (**B**), and (**C**), each time point data are represented as mean ± SEM.

Figure S4. Drug sensitivity and synergy analysis for MEK inhibitor and regorafenib combinations in medulloblastoma models

A, Schematic representation of the drug sensitivity calculation framework, leveraging CNS-specific drug signatures from the iLINCS database to identify responsive medulloblastoma models. Refer to the Methods section for further details. **B,** Surface plots of ZIP synergy score landscapes for trametinib plus regorafenib (left) and mirdametinib plus regorafenib (right) in the DAOY cell line. **C,** Surface plots of ZIP synergy score landscapes for trametinib plus regorafenib (left) and mirdametinib plus regorafenib (right) in the D425 cell line. **D,** Contour plots of cell viability and surface plots of ZIP synergy score landscapes for trametinib plus regorafenib (left) and mirdametinib plus regorafenib (right) in D283 cells.

Figure S5. The MEKi + regorafenib combination lacks synergistic efficacy in the SHH model DAOY and shows no significant toxicity in mice

A, Kaplan–Meier survival curves for mice implanted with DAOY cells and treated as in Figure 3A.

Group sizes (n) are indicated in the risk table; log-rank test: ns, not significant. **B,** Quantified

bioluminescence imaging (BLI) for each treatment group in the DAOY model at week 3 post-

treatment. Data are mean ± SEM. **C,** Weekly body weight changes in D341-bearing mice after

surgery. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. **D,** Endpoint toxicity assessment by complete

blood counts (n = 2–4 per group) in the D341 study; dashed lines indicate normal reference

ranges. **E,** Weekly body weight changes in PDX5950-bearning mice after surgery. Data are

represented as mean ± SEM. F, Endpoint toxicity assessment by complete blood counts (n = 2–

4 per group) in the PDX5950 study.

For (**B**) unpaired two-sided t tests were used. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001; ns, not significant.

For (**D**) and (**F**), one-way ANOVA was performed among treatment groups.

1707

Figure S6.   Evaluating the combination of mirdametinib, regorafenib, and radiation

therapy in the D341 Model

A, Schematic of experimental design for drug administration and bioluminescence imaging (IVIS)

in CD-1 nude mice (created with BioRender.com). Mice with intracranial D341 cell implants were

randomized into four treatment groups: vehicle (p.o.), drug combination (Comb: mirdametinib at

5 mg/kg p.o. and Regorafenib at 10 mg/kg p.o.), radiation therapy (RT: 0.5 Gy/day for 5

consecutive days), concurrent RT + drug combination (RT_Con), or sequential RT + drug

combination (RT_Seq). Treatments commenced one week post-implantation and continued for

six weeks. **B,** Kaplan–Meier survival curves for mice treated as described in (A). Group sizes (n)

are indicated in the risk table; log-rank test results: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001. **C,**

Quantified bioluminescence imaging (BLI) measurements for each treatment group in the D341

model at week 3 post-treatment enrollment. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Unpaired two-

sided t tests were used. *P < 0.05, ns, not significant. **D,** Weekly body weight changes in D341-

bearing mice after surgery. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. E, Endpoint toxicity

assessment by complete blood counts (n = 2–4 per group) in the D341 study as shown in (**A**).

1723

Figure S7. Enrichment of UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro like tumor cells in G3 and G4 MB

revealed by scRNA-seq

A, UMAP plot showing developmental trajectories of normal glutamatergic lineage neurons

inferred by Slingshot. **B,** UMAP plot of pseudotime trajectories generated by Monocle3, with cells

colored by inferred developmental time. **C-D,** UMAP plots displaying medulloblastoma tumor

subgroup and cell type annotations from the original study (GSE156053; Riemondy et al.). **E,**

UMAP plot of tumor cell state and normal cell types (GSE156053). **F-G,** UMAP plots of two

medulloblastoma patient scRNA-seq datasets, annotated by MB subgroup or cell type. **H-I,**

Proportional distribution of tumor cell states in individual medulloblastoma patients.

1733

Figure S8. UBC_GCP_Pro like tumor cells exhibiting the highest driver activities and drug

signature scores

A, Transcriptomic deconvolution of RNA-seq profiles via the ReDeconv algorithm across three

independent medulloblastoma patient cohorts and a PDOX dataset, stratified by cellular

subpopulations as delineated in Figure 5A. **B,** Feature plot of driver combination activities and

drug signature scores in malignant cells and normal immune cells (GSE156053). **C-D,** Feature

and violin plots of BRAF and MAPK11 expression in tumor cells (GSE156053).

E, Feature and violin plots of driver combination activity and drug signature scores in the normal

reference. **F,** Feature and violin plots of BRAF and MAPK11 expression in the normal reference.

G, UMAP of D341 cell clusters and tumor cell states. **H,** Proportional distribution of tumor cell

states in D341. I, Feature and violin plots showing driver combination activities and predicted drug

sensitivity scores across tumor cell sate.

For (**D**), (**E**), and (**F**), unpaired two-sided t tests were used to compare progenitor-like

UBC_GCP_pro and GCP_pro cells with mature-like UBC cells. For (**I**), unpaired two-sided t tests

were used to compare UBC_GCP_pro with UBC_pro cells.

1749

Figure S9. Effects of combination therapy on CTD tumor cells and tumor

microenvironment

A, Tumor cell states in CTD mapped using normal reference marker genes (Figure 5A), with bar

plot showing proportions of CTD cell states. **B,** Feature and violin plots of driver combination

activities and predicted drug sensitivity scores across tumor cell states in the CTD model. Two-

sided t tests were used to compare RL_pro with UBC_GCP_pro and UBC_pro. *P < 0.05, **P <

1.0e-10, ***P < 1.0e-20. **C,** Dot plot showing marker gene expression patterns in immune cell

types and tumor cells. **D,** Feature and violin plots of driver combination activities and predicted

drug sensitivity scores across treatment arms from CTD preclinical study. **E,** Violin plots of driver

combination activities and predicted drug sensitivity scores across tumor cell states. **F,** Dot plot

showing antigen presentation gene expression in tumor cells across the four treatment groups.

G, Gene set enrichment analysis of M2-macrophage related genes in macrophages, comparing

combination treatment versus other treatment groups.

1763

Figure S10. The combination of MEK inhibition and regorafenib reconfigures the tumor

microenvironment

A, Dot plot of mirdametinib and regorafenib drug signature scores in immune cells across four

treatment groups. **B,** Violin plot of mirdametinib and regorafenib drug signature scores across

immune cell types; two-sided t test comparing Treg cells with other immune cells. **C,** Volcano plot

of differentially expressed genes in CD8+ T cells from the MIR_REG combination group versus

other treatments. **D,** Dot plot showing immune therapy–related target gene expression in CD8+ T

cells across treatment groups. **E,** Module scores for immune therapy target genes; two-sided t

tests comparing combination treatment with other groups. *P < 0.05, **P < 1.0e-10, ***P < 1.0e-

20. **F,** Feature plot of Il18 expression in immune cells from the CTD model. **G,** Violin plot of Il18

expression across immune cell types; two-sided t test comparing monocytes with other immune

cells. **H,** Feature plots of Il18r1 and Il18rap expression in immune cells from the CTD model. **I,**

Dot plot of Il18r1 and Il18rap expression in T cells across four treatment groups. **J-K,** Feature and

violin plots of Ccl3, Ccl4, and Ccr5 expression in CD8+ T cells across treatment groups; two-sided

t test comparing combination treatment with other groups.

Supplementary Tables

1780

Table S1. Unique genes, drugs, interactions, and drug phases in the six built-in drug-gene

interaction databases, related to Figure 1.

Table S2. Bulk RNA-seq profiles from medulloblastoma patient cohorts, related to Figure

1, Supplementary Figure S1 and S8.

Table S3. The correlation between seed-driver activity or expression with MB patient

survival, related to Supplementary Figure S1.

Table S4. Seed drug and partner drug libraries for HTS, related to Figure 1 and

Supplementary Figure S2.

Table S5. Two-dose combination screening, related to Figure 1 and Supplementary Figure

S2.

Table S6. 10-dose combination screening, related to Figure 1.

Table S7. Normal glutamatergic lineage neuron developmental reference 10x scRNA-seq

data QC, related to Figure 5.

Table S8. MB patients sample information from the public single-cell RNA-seq datasets,

related to Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S7, and S8.

Table S9. GSE155446 MB patient 10x scRNA-seq data QC, related to Figure 5,

Supplementary Figure S7 and S8.

Table S10. Hovestadt et al. MB patient SMART-seq2 data QC, related to Supplementary

Figure S7.

Table S11. Luo et al. MB patient 10x scRNA-seq data QC, related to Supplementary Figure

S7.

Table S12. D341 *in vivo* 10x scRNA-seq data QC table, related to Figure 5.

Table S13. CTD *in vivo* 10x scRNA-seq data QC table, related to Figure 7, Supplementary

Figure S9 and S10.

Table S14. M1/G2 microphage signature gene sets, related to Supplementary Figure S9.

Table S15. Trametinib, regorafenib and mirdametinib drug signature genes sets, related to

Figure 2, 4, 5 and Supplementary Figure S4, S8, S9 and S10.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 5

H

BRAF+MAPK11

Drug signature score

I

J   Figure 5

BRAF+MAPK11

Drug signature score

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

UP signature	UP gene	Down signature	Down gene number
CTRS_2230_regorafenib_up	103	CTRS_2230_regorafenib_down	42
CTRS_2295_trametinib_up	32	CTRS_2295_trametinib_down	28

B

Mean ZIP = -17.22 | P=8.52e-22

Mean ZIP = -21.44 | P=1.98e-34

DAOY

C

Mean ZIP = -1.58 | P=1.82e-2

Mean ZIP = -9.61 | P=3.76e-08

D425

D

D283

Mean ZIP = 16.01 | P = 1.45e-01

D283

Mean ZIP = 1.54 | P = 7.88e-01