CXCR2 expression during melanoma tumorigenesis controls transcriptional programs that facilitate tumor growth *^{1,2}Yang J, *^{1,2}Bergdorf K, *^{1,2}Yan C, ^{1,2}Luo W, ³Chen SC, ³Ayers D, ³Liu Q, ³Liu X, ⁴Boothby M, ⁴Groves SM, ²Oleskie AN, ⁶Zhang X, ⁷Maeda DY, ⁷Zebala JA, ²Quaranta V,

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19 Abstract:

Background: Though the CXCR2 chemokine receptor is known to play a key role in cancer growth and response to therapy, a direct link between expression of CXCR2 in tumor progenitor cells during induction of tumorigenesis has not been established.

Methods: To characterize the role of CXCR2 during melanoma tumorigenesis, we 23 generated tamoxifen-inducible tyrosinase-promoter driven Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{-/-} and 24 NRas^{Q61R}/INK4a^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{-/-} melanoma models. In addition, the effects of a CXCR1/CXCR2 25 antagonist, SX-682, on melanoma tumorigenesis were evaluated in Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} and 26 NRas^{Q61R}/INK4a^{-/-} mice and in melanoma cell lines. Potential mechanisms by which Cxcr2 27 affects melanoma tumorigenesis in these murine models were explored using RNAseq, 28 mMCP-counter, ChIPseq, and gRT-PCR; flow cytometry, and reverse phosphoprotein 29 analysis (RPPA). 30

Results: Genetic loss of *Cxcr2* or pharmacological inhibition of CXCR1/CXCR2 during melanoma tumor induction resulted in key changes in gene expression that reduced tumor incidence/growth and increased anti-tumor immunity. Interestingly, after *Cxcr2* ablation, *Tfcp2I1*, a key tumor suppressive transcription factor, was the only gene significantly induced with a log_2 fold-change greater than 2 in these three different melanoma models.

Conclusions: Here, we provide novel mechanistic insight revealing how loss of *Cxcr2* expression/activity in melanoma tumor progenitor cells results in reduced tumor burden and creation of an anti-tumor immune microenvironment. This mechanism entails an increase in expression of the tumor suppressive transcription factor, *Tfcp2I1*, along with alteration in the expression of genes involved in growth regulation, tumor suppression, stemness, differentiation, and immune modulation. These gene expression changes are coincident

- 42 with reduction in the activation of key growth regulatory pathways, including AKT and
- 43 mTOR.
- 44 Keywords: melanoma, CXCR2, tumor immune microenvironment, genomic
- 45 analysis, genetic mouse models

47 Introduction

Chemokines and their receptors have been shown to play an essential role in regulating tumor growth, progression, metastasis, and response to immunotherapy (1, 2, 3, 4). Though chemokines were initially identified as chemoattractants used to guide leukocyte migration, there has been increasing evidence that they can regulate other functions in a broader array of cell types, including cancer cells (5).

The CXCR1/CXCR2 ligand-receptor axis has been widely characterized as a driver of 53 54 aggressive behavior in many cancer types, including breast, prostate, melanoma, lung, 55 colorectal, pancreatic, and renal cancers(6). CXCR1/CXCR2 ligands, including CXCL1-56 3, 5-8 are produced by endothelial cells, tumor-associated macrophages, cancer-57 associated fibroblasts, adipocytes, and cancer cells(6). These CXCR1 and CXCR2 ligands play a significant role in the recruitment of neutrophils and myeloid-derived 58 suppressor cells (MDSCs) to the tumor microenvironment (TME), both of which are 59 60 associated with poor outcomes(7, 8, 9). In addition to altering the tumor immune microenvironment, these chemokine ligands can also activate phosphatidylinositol-3-61 kinase (PI3K), phospholipase-Cβ, calcium mobilization, mitogen-activated protein 62 kinase (MAPK), protein kinase B (AKT), transcription factors like NF-kB, and gene 63 expression on tumor cells. These chemokine responses have been linked to tumor cell 64 survival, proliferation, migration, as well as angiogenesis(6, 10, 11). 65

Many cancer cells exhibit induction or increased expression of multiple ligands for both CXCR1 (CXCL1-3, 5-8) and CXCR2 (CXCL1-3, 5 and 7). Moreover, CXCR1 and CXCR2 are differentially expressed in human tissues, though in mouse, CXCR2 is the

69 predominant receptor mediating response to the murine chemokine ligands during inflammation, angiogenesis, and tumor growth (CXCL1,2,3 and 5, also known as KC, 70 MIP2 α , MIP2 β , and LIX)(12, 13). In addition to a function in the attraction of 71 72 hematopoietic cells that influence the tumor microenvironment and tumor progression, it 73 has been suggested that these receptors may exert autocrine effects on tumor growth. 74 In the case of melanoma, mouse xenograft models provide compelling evidence that tumor cells take advantage of CXCR2 ligand expression to either suppress the anti-75 tumor immune response or to induce tumor growth and angiogenesis, alter the TME, 76 77 and facilitate metastasis (3, 14)

The CXCR1/CXCR2 signaling nexus directly influences the sensitivity of tumor cells to chemotherapies by altering pathways associated with apoptosis and multidrug resistance (15, 16), resulting in a poor prognosis in human cancer studies (17, 18). The past decade has witnessed the generation and development of antagonists to CXCR1 and CXCR2, and multiple clinical trials are underway investigating the therapeutic potential of targeting this signaling axis in inflammatory disorders and cancers (NCT03161431, NCT04245397, NCT03400332) (19, 20, 21, 22).

We previously demonstrated that targeted deletion of *Cxcr2* in myeloid cells or systemic treatment with the CXCR1/CXCR2 antagonist SX-682 conferred anti-tumor immunity via reduction of MDSC infiltration into the TME and enhanced CD8+ T cell activation (9). However, it remains controversial as to whether there is a direct function of either or both CXCR1 and CXCR2 on the growth of the cancer cells, and if so, which of these receptors are involved and what mechanisms are employed. To clarify the concept of an autocrine role for CXCR2 and its ligands in melanoma progenitor cells, we used

92 inducible, autochthonous models of malignant melanoma in mice. Using two distinct modes of triggering the formation of malignant melanoma (23, 24) (25), we found that 93 growth. and outcome accompanied changes 94 tumor onset. in the tumor 95 microenvironment and gene expression when Cxcr2 was deleted in melanoma precursor cells. Similar results were identified when Cxcr1/Cxcr2 were inhibited with SX-96 682 during tumorigenesis. Remarkably, an analysis of common gene expression 97 changes due to loss or inhibition of Cxcr2 during tumorigenesis converged on one, but 98 only one, gene -- the tumor suppressive transcription factor *Tfcp211*. These data indicate 99 that a major mechanism by which Cxcr2 inhibition regulates melanoma tumor growth is 100 via induction of a key transcription factor with tumor suppressive activity, Tfcp211. 101

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103 Methods

104 Establishment of inducible melanoma mouse models

All procedures involving animals were approved by the Vanderbilt University Institutional 105 Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). We utilized the inducible Braf^{V600E}/PTEN^{/-} 106 107 melanoma model in C57BL/6 mice (23), where the underlying genetic background includes Tyr-Cre^{ER+}:: Braf^{CA}::Pten^{lox4-5/Lox4-5}. CXCR2^{f/f} mice (C57BL/6-CXCR2^{tm1RMra/J}) 108 109 were obtained from Jackson Laboratories (#024638) and bred to mT/mG mice (#007907, Jackson Laboratories), which harbor a two-color fluorescent Cre-reporter 110 allele to enable GFP-based tumor imaging (Figure S2A,C) (26). In crossing the 111 Braf^{V600E}/PTEN^{/-} mice with CXCR2^{fl/fl} mT/mG mice, Tyr-Cre^{ER+}::Braf^{CA}::Pten^{lox4-5/Lox4-} 112 ⁵::mT/mG::Cxcr2^{fl/fl} mice and Cre^{ER+}:: Braf^{CA}::Pten^{lox4-5/Lox4-5}::mT/mG::Cxcr2^{WT} mice were 113 generated. Upon administration of 4-HT (#6278, Sigma), Cre-recombinase expression 114

is induced in tyrosinase (*Tyr*) expressing cells, leading to expression of the *Braf^{V600E}*transgene and deletion of exons 4 and 5 of *Pten* specifically in tyrosinase expressing
melanocytes (Figure S2B)(23). Palpable tumors arise within one month post 4-HT
induction (Figure S2B, C). Tyr-Cre targeting of melanocytes in hair follicles was verified
by H&E staining and GFP expression (Figure S2D).

To generate an inducible NRas mutant/Ink4a deletion/CXCR2 knockout melanoma 120 mouse model, we utilized the TpN^{61R} model from Burd et al., which recapitulates the 121 genetics of NRas^{Q61R}/INK4a^{-/-} mutant human melanoma and demonstrates sensitivity to 122 UV-induced melanoma (25). In this model, expression of mutant NRas and loss of Ink4a 123 are under the control of the Tyr-promoter enhancer (Tyr-Cre^{ER}::NRas^{Q61R}::Ink4a^{-/-}). 124 These mice were crossed with C57BL/6 Cxcr2^{##} mice. Heterozygous offspring were 125 Tyr-Cre^{ER}::NRas^{Q61R}::Ink4a^{fl/fl}::Cxcr^{fl/fl} 126 crossed to generate and Tyr-Cre^{ER}::NRas^{Q61R}::Ink4a^{fl/fl}::Cxcr2^{WT} littermates. Newborn mice (1-2 days of age) receive 127 one topical administration of 2µl of 20mM 4HT on the back followed by exposure to 4.5K 128 J/m2 UVB radiation (312NM 2X8 Watt tubes& Filter, Cat. # EB-280C) on day three. 129 Tumor development was followed for 5 months. All other standard methods are in 130 the Supplemental Materials. 131

- 132
- 133 Results

CXCR2 Correlates with Poor Prognosis in Patient Populations and Response to Checkpoint inhibitors

Using the available Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) cohort, we evaluated *CXCR1*, *CXCR2*, and *CXCL1-3*, 5 and 8 (CXCR1/CXCR2 ligands) expression in nevi and

138 melanoma. CXCR1 and CXCR2 mRNA exhibited a trend toward increased expression in melanoma compared to nevi, but these differences were not statistically significant 139 (Figure 1A). However, CXCL1, CXCL2, CXCL3, CXCL5 and CXCL8 mRNAs were 140 significantly upregulated in melanoma samples compared to benign nevi (Figure 1B). 141 Furthermore, there were no significant differences in CXCR1 and CXCR2 expression 142 among nevi and melanoma tumors when stratified by BRAF or NRAS mutation status 143 (Figure S1A, B). However, since the number of samples available for analysis of 144 mutation status was small, these findings should be interpreted cautiously. 145

CXCR2 has been associated with increased tumor growth and poor prognosis across 146 multiple cancers(6). To define the relationship between CXCR2 expression and the 147 148 clinical prognosis of melanoma patients, we examined clinical data from the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA), and the skin cutaneous melanoma (SKCM) dataset using Gene 149 Expression Profiling Interactive Analysis (GEPIA). Survival analysis comparing patients 150 151 with high CXCR2 expression (n=114) to patients with lower CXCR2 expression (n=107) 152 indicates that CXCR2 expression correlates with decreased overall survival of 153 melanoma patients (p=0.035, Figure 1C). Evaluation of survival in a patient cohort 154 treated with anti-PD-1 therapy also suggests that patients with high CXCR2 expression 155 (n=24) exhibited poor prognosis in response to anti-PD-1 when compared with patients 156 with low CXCR2 expression (n=23, p<0.01; Figure 1D) (27). Finally, analysis of another 157 immune checkpoint inhibitor-treated cohort showed that responding patients had significantly lower CXCR2 expression than non-responders (Figure 1E, (p<0.05) (28). 158 159 These data indicate that CXCR2 expression correlates with poor therapeutic response 160 in melanoma patients.

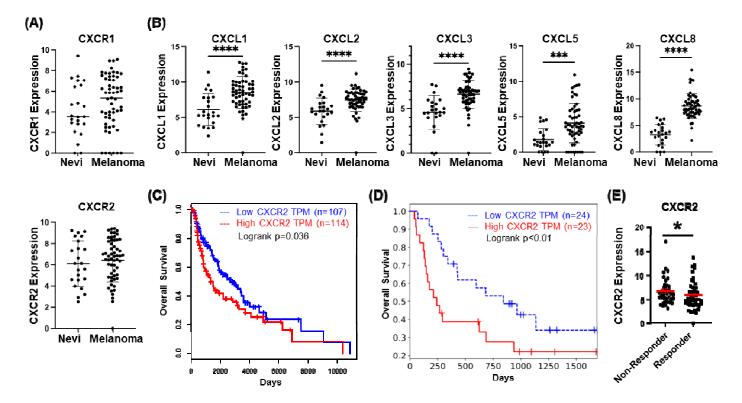


Fig 1. CXCR2 is associated with tumorigenesis and poor prognosis. a GEO dataset analysis of expression of CXCR1 and CXCR2 in nevi as compared to melanoma lesions (not significant, Welch's t-test). **b** GEO dataset analysis of expression of CXCL1, CXCL2, CXCL3, CXCL5 and CXCL8 in nevi and melanoma tissues (significance determined by Welch's t-test). **c** Overall survival plot of melanoma patients from the TCGA SKCM dataset indicates significantly improved survival (p=0.035, log-rank test) in the lowest quartile of CXCR2 expression (blue, n=107) compared to the highest quartile (red, n=114). **d** Analysis of survival of 25 melanoma patients treated with anti-PD1 in relation to high (red) or low (blue) expression of CXCR2 [p<0.01, log-rank test; (27)]. **e** Re-analysis of the Riaz RNA-seq database shows CXCR2 expression is lower in melanoma patients who responded to anti-PD1 treatment (p<0.05, Welch's t-test).

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163 CXCR2 Influences Tumor Differentiation Status and Enhances Tumor Growth

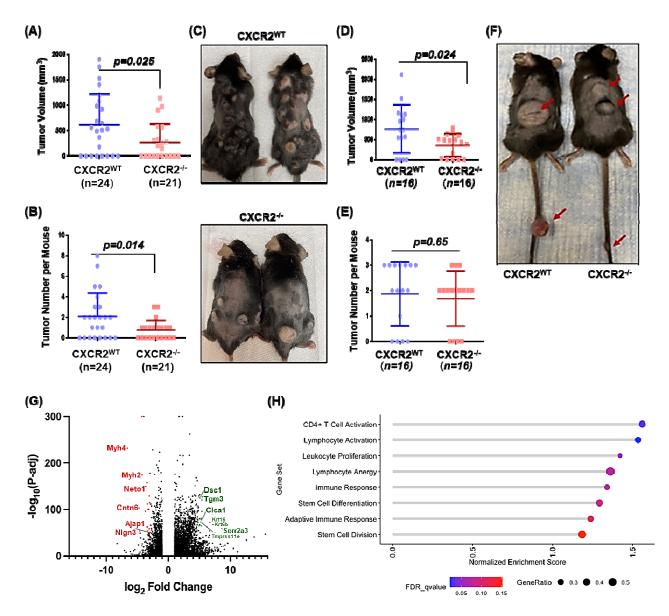
To evaluate the role of CXCR2 in Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} melanoma tumorigenesis, we crossed 164 C57BL/6 Tyr-CreER+::Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{fl/fl}::mT/mG:: mice $(Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-})$ (23) with 165 Cxcr2^{fl/fl} C57BL/6 mice allele (24) produce Tvr-166 carrying а to CreER+::Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{fl/fl}::mT/mG::Cxcr2^{-/-} 167 and Tyr-*CreER+::Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{fl/fl}::mT/mG::Cxcr2^{WT}* littermates. Four-week-old mice 168 were treated with 4-OH tamoxifen (4HT) to induce the tyrosinase promoter-driven Cre-169 recombinase. The resulting melanoma tumors that developed over 36 days were 170 counted and measured. We observed that tumor burden and incidence (Figure 2A-C) 171 were significantly reduced in *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}* mice with melanocyte targeted deletion of 172 Cxcr2 (Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}) (271±361mm³, n=21) in comparison to Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} mice 173 expressing CXCR2 (Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT}) (615 ± 609 mm³, n=24, p<0.05). The tumor 174 number per mouse was also reduced upon melanocytic Cxcr2 deletion (0.7±0.9 vs. 175 2.1±2.3, p<0.05). These data indicate that the Cxcr2 signal transduction pathway plays 176 a role in the induction and growth of $Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}$ melanoma. 177

178 To determine whether Cxcr2 is also important in Nras/Ink4a melanoma tumors, we crossed Tyr-CreER+::NRas^{Q61R}/Ink4a^{-/-}::mT/mG:: mice (34) with the Cxcr2^{fl/fl} mice (24). 179 New-born pups (1-2 days old) were exposed to 4-HT, followed by ultraviolet (UV) 180 irradiation on day three, and tumor growth was evaluated over five months. We 181 observed significantly reduced tumor volume with deletion of $Cxcr^2$ (360±285mm³) 182 when compared to NRas/Ink4a $Cxcr2^{WT}$ mice (764±601mm³) (Figure 2D-F, p<0.05, 183 n=16). However, in contrast to the Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} model, the number of tumors per 184 mouse was not significantly different between $Cxcr2^{-/-}$ (1.69±1.08) and $Cxcr2^{WT}$ mice 185

(1.88±1.26, p=0.654). As the *NRas* GEM model requires UV irradiation in addition the
 genetic alterations, it is possible that UV irradiation induces additional oncogenic
 pathways that function independent of Cxcr2.

To elucidate the mechanism by which Cxcr2 perturbation in melanocytes could alter the 189 initiation and growth of Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} (Braf/Pten) melanoma, we examined the 190 transcriptome of tumors arising in Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} (n=7) and Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} (n=8) 191 mice via RNA sequencing (RNAseq) analysis (Figures 2G, S3A, S4). Interestingly, gene 192 set enrichment analysis revealed that loss of Cxcr2 expression in Braf/Pten tumors 193 resulted in a significant increase in expression of genes involved in CD4+ T cell 194 activation and lymphocyte activation, with a trend toward increased leukocyte 195 proliferation, immune response, and stem cell differentiation (Figure 2H). However, 196 there is also a paradoxical change in genes involved in lymphocyte anergy. Several 197 genes were upregulated in *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumors, including those that are immune 198 199 related, associated with stem cell differentiation, and those involved in tumor 200 suppression. This gene analysis also revealed downregulation of genes involved in 201 growth, proliferation, and cell cycle; immune-related genes; motility and cell adhesion; 202 differentiation/stemness and tumor suppression (Figure S3A). Together, these RNA sequencing data imply that $Cxcr2^{-/-}$ tumors may become less cohesive/dense, with 203 diminished invasive potential and growth signaling as modeled by Eikenberry et al. (29). 204

205



²⁰⁶ Fig 2. CXCR2 knockout decreases melanoma tumor burden. *Tyr-Cre^{ER+}:: Braf^{CA/+}::Pten^{lox4-5/lox4-}* ⁵::mT/mG C57BL/6 mice were crossed with floxed Cxcr2 mice to obtain mice with inducible tumors with or without CXCR2 expression Thirty-six days after 4-HT administration, **a** skin tumour volume and **b** count were recorded, and **c** mice were photographed (significance determined by Welch's t-test). Similarly, Tyr-Cre^{ER+}::NRas^{Q61R}::Ink4a^{-/-}::mT/mG mG mice were crossed with floxed Cxcr2 mice, and resulting pups were treated with 4-HT on days 1 and 2 prior to UV irradiation on day 3 to initiate tumor formation (n=16/genotype). **d** Tumors were measured, **e** counted, and **f** mice were photographed (significance determined by Welch's t-test). RNA was extracted from *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{-/-}* and *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{WT}* tumors and subjected to RNAseq analysis. g A volcano plot showing fold change and significance of differential gene expression in Cxcr2^{-/-} tumors compared to Cxcr2^{WT} tumors. h Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of RNAseq data identifies 8 gene sets enriched in Cxcr2^{-/-} tumors. Point size indicates the gene ratio (percent of genes from the gene set contributing to the enrichment score) and point color represents the FDR a-value.

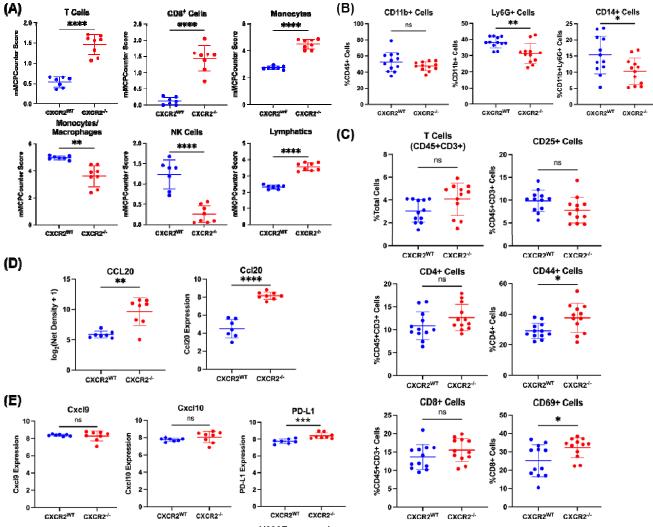
207 We next evaluated the RNAseq data from Braf/Pten mice with or without loss of CXCR2 expression in melanocytes and identified the most differentially expressed genes that 208 are associated with favorable or unfavorable outcome in melanoma patients. 209 We 210 identified the top twenty growth related genes with reduced expression and the top twenty genes associated with inhibition of tumor growth and favorable outcome based 211 on their log₂ fold change and -log₁₀ p-value (Figure S4). Key growth stimulatory (Figure 212 4A) and tumor suppressive genes (Figure 4B) are indicated by red arrows. Genes in 213 214 common in both enrichment analyses in Figure S3A and Figure S4 include upregulation of the tumor suppressors Tmprss11e, Adamts18 and Tqm3, as well as induction of the 215 216 pyroptosis regulating gene GSDMc and the epithelial-specific Ets transcription factor 1 (Elf3). Commonly down-regulated genes include activators of the lectin pathway of the 217 218 complement system (Fcna), myosin light chain kinase 4 (MLK4), and pathogen 219 recognition receptors (Cd209). These changes are plausible contributors to difference in tumor growth observed when Cxcr2 is targeted in melanocytes during transformation. 220

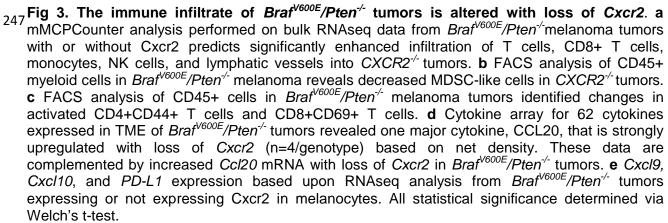
221 CXCR2 Contributes to an Immunosuppressive Melanoma Tumor 222 Microenvironment

While GSEA identified enrichment of stem cell and growth-associated gene sets in *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}* mice, it also revealed induction of gene sets associated with CD4+ T cell activation, lymphocyte activation, and leukocyte proliferation (Figure 2H). These results prompted analysis of the immune cell infiltrate between *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT}* and *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumor-bearing mice. We first utilized the murine Microenvironment Cell Population counter (mMCPcounter, (30)), an immune deconvolution algorithm developed for bulk murine RNA sequencing data. mMCPcounter predicted an increase

in CD3+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, monocytes, lymphatic vessels, and eosinophils, as well 230 as a decrease in mast cells, NK cells, and endothelial cells (p<0.05) (Figures 3A, S5A), 231 suggesting enhanced anti-tumor immunity in the Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}TME. To analyze the 232 233 immune environment in vivo, we defined the profile of CD45+ cells from Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} and Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} tumor-bearing mice using FACS analysis. In 234 agreement with the mMCPcounter predicted leukocytic infiltrates, we observed that 235 deletion of Cxcr2 in melanocytes undergoing transformation skewed the TME toward 236 FACS analysis of the CD45+ cells in the tumors of 237 anti-tumor immunity. Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} mice revealed a decrease in the immunosuppressive Ly6G+CD11b+ 238 (p<0.01) and CD14+ G-MDSC (p<0.05) cells with no change in total CD11b+ cells 239 (Figure 3B), in addition to a trend toward decreased CD25^{hi}CD45+CD3+ regulatory T 240 cells and a trend toward an increase in the frequency of CD3+CD8+T cells. There was 241 also a significant increase in memory CD44+CD4+ T cells (p<0.05) and activated 242 CD69+CD8+ T cells (p<0.05) within the Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} tumors (Figure 3C, S5D). 243 FACS analysis of peripheral blood cells revealed no significant change in any immune 244 population (Figure S5B). 245

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248 The identified differences in immune cell infiltrate are highly suggestive of altered cytokine signaling within the TME. Therefore, a 62-cytokine array was performed on 249 Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} (n=4) and Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} (n=4) tumor lysates. CCL20, an 250 251 inflammatory chemokine that is highly chemotactic for CCR6-expressing lymphocytes and dendritic cells, is strongly upregulated (24-fold) in the Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} TME 252 (Figure 3D). In addition, RNAseq analysis revealed a significant increase in PD-L1 253 expression in tumors from Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} mice compared to Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} mice 254 (Figure 3E). Furthermore, M-CSF, eotaxin, and MIP-2 were slightly increased, which 255 could contribute to myeloid cell infiltration, and there was a slight decrease in IL-1ß in 256 the tumors from Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} mice as compared to tumors from Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} 257 mice (Figure S5C). These data suggest that targeted deletion of *Cxcr2* in melanocytes 258 259 during tumorigenesis results in a marked increase in Ccl20 and additional subtle changes in the cytokine milieu of the TME. 260

CXCR1/CXCR2 Antagonist SX-682 Inhibits *Braf^{v600E}/Pten^{-/-}* and *NRas^{Q61R}/Ink4a^{-/-}* Melanoma Tumor Growth and Promotes Anti-Tumor Immunity

Having established the importance of Cxcr2 in the development, growth, and TME of 263 Braf/Pten melanoma tumors, we sought to evaluate the therapeutic potential of systemic 264 Cxcr1/Cxcr2 inhibition. Thus, chow containing the Cxcr1/Cxcr2 antagonist SX-682 (31) 265 was administered to four-week-old mice. After two weeks of eating vehicle control or 266 SX-682 containing chow, 4-HT was applied to the backs of the mice for three 267 successive days. Following a month of continuous feeding on control or SX-682-268 containing chow, we observed that mice fed SX-682-containing chow exhibited a trend 269 toward reduction in tumor volume compared to mice fed vehicle control chow (Figure 270

4A, p=0.07, 802.5±724.01mm³ for control; 230.20±373.21 mm³ for SX-682). Moreover, 271 there was a trend toward decreased tumor formation in SX-682-fed mice (p=0.145), 272 where only 40% of SX-682-fed mice developed tumors compared to 75% of control-fed 273 mice (Figure 4B). Similarly, NRas^{Q61R}/Ink4a^{-/-} (NRas/Ink4a) mice were fed chow 274 containing SX-682 or control chow, and tumors that developed over five months were 275 counted and measured. We observed that SX-682 treatment significantly suppressed 276 tumor growth (p=0.041, Figure 4C) but only trended toward a decrease in tumor 277 278 incidence (p=0.111, Figure 4D).

279 RNA sequencing analysis of control and SX-682 treated tumors from Braf/Pten mice identified nearly 3000 differentially expressed genes with many trends similar to those 280 observed in *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumors. A volcano plot shows that a significant number of 281 genes were strongly up or down-regulated (\log_2 fold change of > 3) with a very high 282 level of significance (-log₁₀(P-adj)>50) (Figure 4E). Upregulated genes include those 283 284 involved in regulation of growth, proliferation, and cell cycle; tumor suppression; differentiation/stemness; immune regulation; and motility and adhesion. Genes 285 downregulated in response to Cxcr1/Cxcr2 antagonism with SX-682 include those 286 287 involved in cell adhesion and cell proliferation, cell cycle and growth (Figure S3B).

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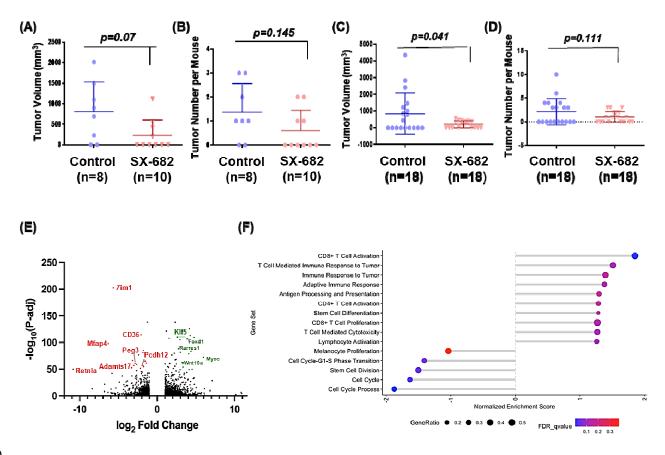
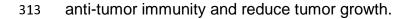


Fig 4. SX-682 affects Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} and **NRas**^{Q61R}/Ink4a^{-/-} **tumorigenesis**. **A,b** Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} and **c,d** NRas^{Q61R}/Ink4a^{-/-} mice were fed chow containing SX-682 or vehicle continuously through tumor formation, and tumors were measured and counted. Significance was determined using a Welch's t-test. **e** A volcano plot showing fold change and significance of differential gene expression between tumors from SX-682-fed and control-fed Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} mice. **f** Gene set enrichment analysis of SX-682 treated or control Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-} tumors identifies gene sets enriched in SX-682 treated tumors (positive normalized enrichment score) or enriched in control tumors (negative normalized enrichment score).

290 GSEA of the tumors from Braf/Pten mice treated with SX-682 revealed significant increases in CD8+ T cell activation, with trends toward increased T cell-mediated 291 immune response to the tumor, immune response to tumor, adaptive immune response, 292 293 antigen processing and presentation, CD4+T cell activation, stem cell differentiation, CD8+ T cell proliferation, T cell-mediated cytotoxicity, and lymphocyte activation. There 294 were significant decreases in genes involved in melanocyte proliferation, cell cycle 295 process, cell cycle, stem cell division, and cell cycle G1-S transition (Figure 4F). 296 mMCPcounter analysis of the tumor RNAseq data predicted an increase in CD8+ T 297 cells (Figure 5A) and monocytes (Figure S6A), and a decrease in B-derived cells and 298 cells of the lymphatics (p<0.01) in tumors from the SX-682-treated Braf/Pten mice 299 (Figure S6A). 300

FACS analysis of SX-682 treated Braf/Pten tumors revealed a trend toward increased 301 CD8+ T cells (p=0.17), no change in CD11b+ cells, and a significant decrease in 302 303 CD11b+Ly6G+ cells (p<0.001) (Figures 5B, C). Additional FACS analysis of tumor 304 CD45+ cells showed a decrease in CD4+CD3+ cells (p<0.05) in tumors from the SX-305 682 chow-fed mice (Figure S6C). In peripheral blood, there was a significant decrease 306 in CD44+ CD4+ T cells and CD62L+ CD4+ T cells and a trend toward increased CD69+ 307 CD8+ T cells from mice fed SX-682 chow (p=0.059; Figure S6B). In addition, a cytokine 308 array of tumor lysates (n=4 for each genotype) revealed a marked reduction in Vegf, 309 indicating a reduction in tumor angiogenesis, and an increase in $Tnf\alpha$, indicating a more 310 inflammatory tumor microenvironment (Figure 5D). Moreover, RNAseq analysis of 311 Braf/Pten tumors revealed that SX-682 induces expression of Cxcl9, Cxcl10, and Pd-I1

312 (Figure 5E). Altogether, these data indicate that SX-682 alters the TME to stimulate



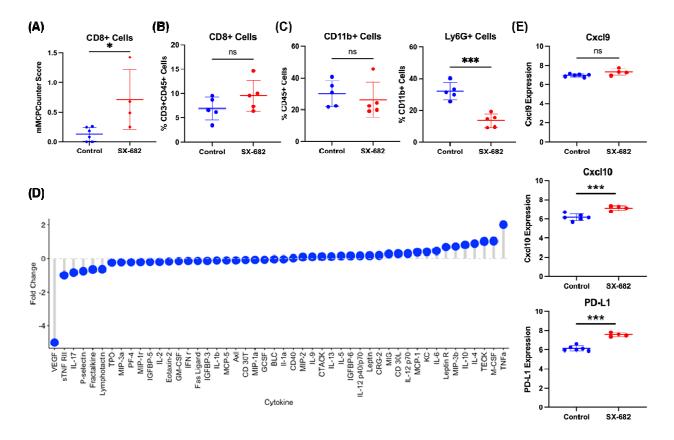


Fig 5. SX-682 alters the immune profile of *Braf*^{V600E}/*Pten*^{-/-} **melanoma.** a mMCPCounter analysis of bulk RNAseq data predicts enrichment for CD8+ T cell infiltrate into tumors following treatment with SX-682 (p<0.05). b FACS analysis confirms a trend toward increased CD8+ T cells in SX-682 treated *Braf*^{V600E}/*Pten*^{-/-} melanoma. c FACS analysis of CD45+ myeloid cells indicated a significant decrease in immunosuppressive CD11b+Ly6G+ cells, but no change in total CD11b+ cells. d A cytokine array was performed on control and SX-682 treated tumors, identifying a notable decrease in Vegf and an increase in Tnfα. e *Cxcl9, Cxcl10,* and *Pd-l1* expression based upon RNAseq analysis from SX-682 or control treated tumors. All statistical significance determined via Welch's t-test.

315 SX-682 Treatment of Melan-A, B16F0, and B16F10 Cells Reveals Tumor Cell-316 Specific Gene Modulation

317 Our murine experiments involved bulk RNA sequencing of tumors that contain tumor cells in addition to stromal and immune cells. To identify the specific effect of SX-682 318 treatment on tumors without the contribution of other cell types, we investigated the 319 320 effect of SX-682 on non-tumorigenic Melan-A cells, tumorigenic B16F0 cells, and metastatic B16F10 cells in vitro. First, we evaluated Cxcr2 expression and found that 321 B16F0 and B16F10 cells express significantly more Cxcr2 than Melan-A cells, as 322 evaluated by mRNA levels and surface protein labeling (Figure 6A, B). We then 323 analyzed the effect of SX-682 (5 μ M) on the growth of these cells and observed that SX-324 325 682 treatment resulted in a small but significant inhibition of growth in B16F0 and B16F10 cells in vitro based on the percentage of cells staining positively for KI-67 326 (Figure 6C) and cell number (Figure S7A). In addition, SX-682 treatment of B16F0 and 327 328 B16F10 cells in vitro also reduced production of both Cxcl1 (KC) and vascular 329 endothelial growth factor (Vegf) as evaluated by cytokine array (Figure 6D), again indicating the potential for SX-682 to impact the immune profile of the TME. 330

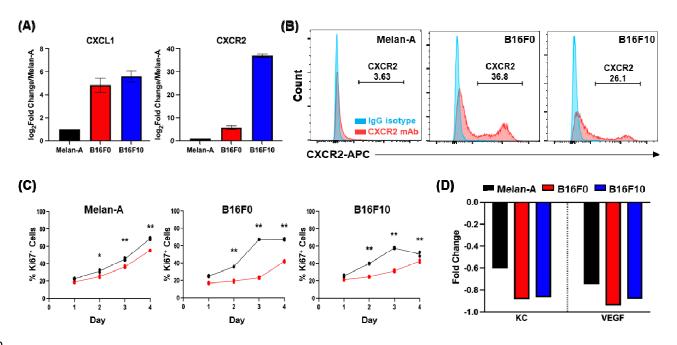
To identify tumor cell-specific transcriptional changes following SX-682 treatment, we performed RNA sequencing on each of the three cell lines. Of the total differentially expressed genes, expression of 4024 genes was altered in all three lines. An additional 860 genes were differentially expressed in both tumorigenic B16F0 and B16F10 lines in response to SX-682 (Figure S3C and S7B). Commonly upregulated genes include those involved in apoptosis and cell stress response and suppression of gluconeogenesis. In contrast, commonly down-regulated genes include those involved

338 in methylation, RNA splicing, and cell cycle processes (Figure S3C and S7B). Reverse phosphoprotein analysis (RPPA) identified SX-682-induced 339 decreases in phosphoproteins involved in growth (Akt, Braf, pS445-Braf, Cdc2-pY15, Cdc6, Gsk-3b, 340 341 mTor, mTor pS2448, Mmp14, Pax8, and S6), as well as SX-682-induced increases in immunomodulatory proteins (Sting, Pd-1, Pd-11, Trim25, and Annexin I); proteins 342 involved in the regulation of apoptosis (Puma, Blc2, Bcl2A1, BclxL, Smac); tumor 343 suppressors (Tsc2, Wtap); and cell cycle regulators (Cdc25, Cdc42, Plk1, Egfr, 344 345 Pras40 pT246). Of interest, β -catenin expression is increased following SX-682 treatment. This is counter-intuitive for SX-682 inhibition of tumor growth, as the Wnt/β-346 catenin pathway often drives melanoma tumor growth and metastasis. However, we 347 observed that the phosphorylated forms of β -catenin (pT41 and pS45) that enable its 348 349 ubiquitin-mediated degradation are increased as well. This indicates that β -catenin is 350 marked for degradation, thus diminishing the potential for enhanced tumor growth. 351 There were also increases in proteins involved in motility: myosin-lia, Pak, Cdc-42, 352 myosin lia_pS1943, and Hmha1 (Figure S7C, D). Finally, there were only subtle changes in cytokine expression in response to SX-682 treatment in vitro, and these 353 were inconsistent across the three cell lines (Figure S7E). Altogether, these results 354 355 suggest that multiple compounding signals are induced in cells treated with SX-682, including a decrease in growth signaling, modulation of apoptosis, enhanced anti-tumor 356 immunity, and altered cell cycle processes. 357

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Fig 6. Tumor cell-specific impacts of SX-682. CXCL1 and CXCR2 expression on Melan-A, B16F0, and B16F10 cells based on **a** the NCBI database and **b** CXCR2 expression in Melan-A, B16F0 and B16F10 cells based on flow cytometry. **c** Cell lines were treated with 5 μM SX-682 (or DMSO control) for 4 days prior to staining with Pacific Blue-Ki67 for FACS analysis. The percentage of positive staining cells was significantly decreased in the SX-682 treated cells for all cell lines (analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Benjamini and Hochberg (BH) correction for multiple tests). **d** Cytokine array of SX-682-treated Melan-A, B16F0 and B16F10 cells shows that SX-682 treatment reduced the expression of KC and VEGF in all three cell lines.

362 *Tfcp2l1* distinguishes the Cxcr2^{WT} from the Cxcr2 Perturbed Phenotype

To better understand the complex transcriptional reprogramming that occurs when 363 CXCR2 activity is diminished via knockout or with SX-682 treatment, we compared 364 differentially expressed genes in *Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumors, SX-682-treated tumors, and 365 SX-682-treated tumorigenic B16F0 and B16F10 cell lines compared to controls. We 366 367 noted that based upon our search for genes with a minimum of a log2 fold change >2 and a p-value <0.05, only one gene stood out as significantly upregulated across all four 368 models compared to the respective controls: Transcription factor CP2 like-1(Tfcp211) 369 (Figure 7A, B). To verify the RNA sequencing results, we performed RT-PCR analysis 370 of RNA samples from MelanA, B16F0, and B16F10 cells to determine Tfcp2I1 371 expression. With this assay, we show that SX-682-treatment elevates Tfcp211 372 expression in the tumorigenic cell lines (Figure S9). 373

374 Tfcp2l1 is a transcription factor that contributes to the maintenance of stemness in 375 pluripotent stem cells and can also exhibit tumor suppressive activity (32, 33, 34, 35, 36). The Krupple-like Factor (KLF) family of transcription factors works with and can be 376 induced by Tfcp2l1 to modulate induction and maintenance of naïve pluripotency in 377 mouse primordial germ cells (37, 38, 39). It has been previously reported that *Tfcp211* is 378 positively associated with expression of pluripotency genes including Nanog, Oct4, 379 Sox2, and Esrrb in mouse embryonic stem cells (42). However, our data suggest a 380 complex relationship between Cxcr2 perturbation and Tfcp2l1-related gene expression. 381 In the Braf/Pten model, stemness marker Esrrb and neural crest markers Foxd3 and 382 Sox10 were decreased when Cxcr2 was deleted. In contrast, stemness markers 383 Tfcp211, Klf4 and Hmga2, were increased. In SX-682 treated Braf/Pten model, there 384

385 was a trend toward a decrease in stemness marker *Esrrb*, a significant decrease in the neural crest marker Sox10, and a small but significant decrease in the melanoblast 386 marker Mitf (Figures 7C, S8A-L). The melanocyte differentiation marker Tyr was 387 increased in both the CXCR2^{-/-} and the SX-682 treated Braf/Pten mouse models. In the 388 B16F0 and B16F10 cells, RT-PCR analysis revealed that stemness markers Esrrb, 389 Hmga2, Myc, Sox2, neural crest marker Sox10, and melanoblast marker Mitf were 390 significantly decreased in response to SX-682-treatment in vitro. Foxd3 was significantly 391 decreased in B16F10 and trended toward significant reduction in B16F10. In contrast, 392 stemness markers Tfcp211, Nanog and Notch1 were increased, while there was a 393 decrease in Tyr expression (Figure S9). Altogether, these data imply that with ablation 394 of Cxcr2 activity, there is an increase in some stemness markers, a decrease in neural 395 396 crest markers, and a trend toward a decrease in melanoblast markers. However, there is variability in the mix of these markers from model to model. In the mouse models, 397 tyrosinase (Tyr) continues to be highly expressed, though in the B16 cell cultures, SX-398 399 682 decreased its expression.

To support the relevance of upregulation of the transcription factor, Tcfp211, in 400 401 association with loss of CXCR2 signaling, we performed an orthogonal approach based 402 on weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA). WGCNA was applied to the RNA-seq data from these tumors to generate groups of highly correlated genes, or 403 gene modules, that functionally distinguish Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-} and Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{WT} 404 tumors (Figure S10). Using an ANOVA test between sample conditions, we found six 405 distinct modules that significantly distinguish the transcriptional programs of Cxcr2^{WT} 406 and *Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumors (Figure S10). Gene ontology (GO) analysis showed each module is 407

enriched in distinct functions: the Cxcr2^{WT}-upregulated modules are enriched in GO 408 terms such as protein localization to mitochondrion (blue), aerobic respiration and 409 oxidative phosphorylation (green and brown, respectively), and signaling (yellow), while 410 the Cxcr2^{-/-}-upregulated modules are enriched for GPCR signaling (red) and skin 411 development (turquoise,). These changes in gene expression may result as an 412 adaptation to the loss of CXCR2 function. 413 Interestingly, the WGCNA module membership score (kME) indicated that Tfcp2l1 is central to the turguoise module (kME 414 = 0.854) and significantly upregulated in the $Cxcr2^{-/-}$ samples (FDR-adjusted 415 p=0.0000286) (Figure 7D). 416

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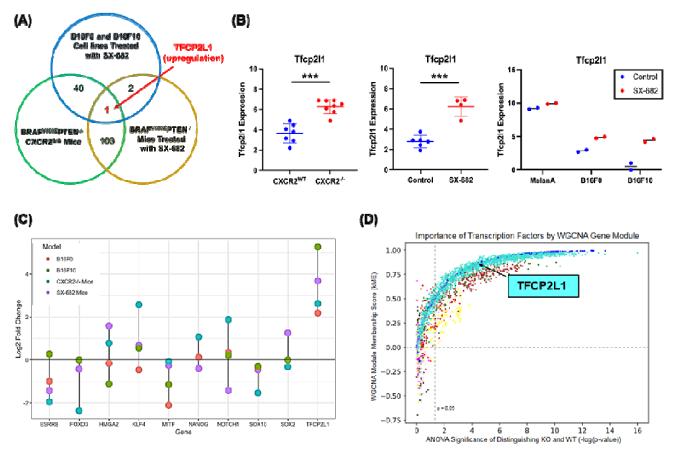


Fig 7. *Tfcp2l1* is commonly upregulated across three models of CXCR2 perturbation. a, b In comparing expression data from *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{-/-}* tumors. *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}* tumors treated with SX-682, and B16F0 and B16F10 cell lines treated with SX-682, *Tfcp2l1* was consistently upregulated compared to appropriate controls (as determined by Welch's t-test). c Log₂ fold change for *Tfcp2l1* and related genes across experimental groups based upon RNAseq analysis. d Identification of transcription factors central to Weighted Correlation Network Analysis (WGCNA) co-expressed gene modules (by kME) and significantly differentially expressed between *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{-/-}* and *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{WT}* tumors. TFs are colored by gene module and show varying levels of centrality to each module and importance in distinguishing WT and KO tumors. Turquoise dots represent transcription factors that are up in the *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{WT}* tumors and blue dots represent transcription factors that are up in the *Braf^{V600E}/Pten^{-/-}/Cxcr2^{WT}* tumors. 420 Finally, to define the activity of Tfcp2l1 following CXCR2 perturbation, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation and sequencing analysis (CHIPseq) on B16F0 421 tumorigenic melanoma cells following treatment with vehicle or SX-682. In identifying 422 423 promoters bound by Tfcp2l1 in each condition in addition to RNAseq data, we can delineate SX-682-induced gene set enrichment. Interestingly, enrichment analysis of 424 425 Tfcp2l1-bound genes revealed that SX-682 treatment increased expression of genes associated with the adaptive immune system and response to hormones (Figure S11A). 426 SX-682 treatment also enriched Tfcp2l1 binding to and repression of genes involved in 427 428 the RAF/MAPK cascade, β -catenin independent Wnt signaling pathways, and catabolism (Figure S11B). When data from RNAseq, RPPA, and ChIPseq analysis were 429 examined using Metascape, key regulatory pathways emerged as commonly associated 430 with CXCR2 loss of function (Figure S11C, D). These data are consistent with the 431 observed reduction in tumor growth when CXCR2 signaling is blocked and suggest that 432 changes in gene expression are associated with Tfcp2l1 transcriptional control. 433

434 Does CXCL1 activation of normal melanocytes suppress the TFCP2L1 435 transcriptional program?

To gain insight into how CXCL1 activation of CXCR2 regulates the expression of stemness and differentiation markers, RNAseq analysis was performed on normal human epidermal melanocyte (NHEM) cultures treated with CXCL1 or with CXCL1 and SX-682 (Figure S12). CXCL1 supplementation was utilized in this model to recreate the enhanced baseline CXCR2 activation of tumorigenic cells. Consistent with this, CXCL1 increased the proliferation of NHEM cells *in vitro* (Figure S12A). Moreover, CXCL1 treatment increased expression of a number of genes, and this effect was lost with SX-

682 treatment (Figure S12B, white oval). For example, CXCL1 treatment of NHEM cells 443 induced a trend toward increased expression of MITF, BMP6, WNT5A, and SOX10, and 444 the addition of SX-682 reversed this trend. Moreover SX-682 treatment resulted in 445 induction of expression of a host of genes that are lowly expressed in control and 446 CXCL1 treated NHEM cells (Figure S12B, yellow box) and suppresses expression of 447 many highly expressed genes in control and SX-682-treated NHEMs (Figure S12B, 448 orange box). SX-682 also induced a trend toward elevated TFCP2L1, KLF4, FOXD3, 449 FOXD1, and CCL20 expression over that produced by CXCL1 alone (Figure S12C). 450 These data clearly show that loss of CXCR2 activity dramatically alters gene 451 expression, resulting in reduced CXCL1-induced proliferation of NHEM. In addition to 452 the effects on stemness and differentiation markers, we also found that several 453 454 chemokines, interleukins (Table S1), and TNF-related cytokines and interferons (Table S2) were altered when NHEMs were treated with combined CXCL1 and SX-682. SX-455 682 treatment increased expression of inflammatory genes CCL20, IL18R1, IL1RL1 and 456 457 decreased expression of chemokines associated with macrophage and MDSC recruitment (CCL2, CCL7, CCL8, CXCL1, CXCL12, CXCL6 and IL33) as well as TNF 458 family members involved in MAPK activation, osteoclastogenesis, and B cell activation 459 (C1QTNF2, TNFRSF21, TNFSF11, and TNFSF13B). 460

Taken together, our data from both tumor models and *in vitro* studies show that CXCR2 activation is associated with activation of the MAPK cascade, AKT, and WNT signaling, expression of chemokines that recruit MDSCs and protumor macrophages, and enhanced tumor growth. In contrast, loss of CXCR2 or inhibition of CXCR1/CXCR2 in melanoma progenitor cells is associated with expression of genes associated with

inflammation, T cell recruitment, pluripotency, and reduced tumorigenicity. The
 mechanism for these changes in gene expression are in part due to induction of
 Tfcp2l1, a transcription factor that regulates genes that suppress tumorigenicity.

470 **Discussion**

The CXCR1 and CXCR2 receptors are G protein-coupled receptors that generate downstream signals including PI3K and AKT, often implicated in growth (6, 11, 40, 41, 473 42). The role of CXCR2 in cell motility has been well characterized, and the signals generated through this receptor leading to activation of AKT and ERK also modulate cell proliferation and growth(43, 44).

476 CXCR1 has been reported to be important for the renewal of a population of stem cell-477 like cells in human breast cancer (45). In mice, CXCR2 controls functions normally 478 regulated by CXCR1 in humans, thus it is plausible that CXCR2 may also modulate 479 stemness. Here, we examined the role of CXCR2 in melanocyte tumorigenesis and 480 observed that loss of CXCR2 in tyrosinase-expressing melanocytes reduced melanoma 481 tumor burden in *Braf/Pten and NRas/Ink4a* murine melanoma and modulated the 482 expression of melanocyte stemness and differentiation markers.

We observed that the mechanism by which loss of Cxcr2 activity during melanocyte 483 tumorigenesis resulted in reduced tumor growth in Braf/Pten mice was due to major 484 485 changes in gene expression, with decreased expression of genes involved in proliferation and increased expression of genes associated with tumor suppression. T 486 487 cell recruitment and differentiation, and apoptosis. These gene expression data from RNAseg analysis were further supported by phospho-proteomic data. We observed that 488 489 loss of Cxcr2 activity in tumor cells resulted in a change in the tumor immune microenvironment, with increased CD8+ T cells and reduced macrophages and MDSC-490 like cells. When Cxcr1/Cxcr2 were antagonized in Braf/Pten mice and tumorigenic 491

melanoma cell lines via treatment with SX-682, similar alterations in the gene
 expression profiles were achieved, and this was accompanied by development of anti tumor immune microenvironment.

When we looked for genes significantly induced in Cxcr2^{-/-} tumors, SX-682 treated tumors, and B16F0 and B16F10 cell lines, one common gene emerged: *Tfcp2I1*. *Tfcp2I1* is a crucial transcription factor that induces the expression of genes associated with stemness in embryonic stem cells (32). As such, we probed the relationship between Tfcp2I1, differentiation along the melanocyte lineage, and cancer stem cells within melanoma.

501 Much of our understanding of melanocyte lineage came from *in vitro* studies that 502 involved the differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells along a neural crest lineage, then on to form melanocytes (46). Wnt ligands and Bmp4 induce the early transition of 503 504 Oct4+Nanog+ pluripotential cells into Sox10+ neural crest cells. Exposure to 505 endothelins and Bmp4 promotes neural crest cell differentiation to Mitf+cKit+ melanoblasts, and these can be terminally differentiated to Tyr+Oca2+ melanocytes 506 through continued exposure to Wnt ligands, Bmp4, and induction of intracellular cAMP 507 (47). In the melanoma models used in our studies, the targeted alterations in gene 508 (*Braf/Pten/Cxcr2^{-/-}*) occur in tyrosinase 509 expression expressing melanocytes. Interestingly, while loss of CXCR2 expression or activity was not associated with 510 reduction in tyrosinase in our mouse models, we noted a decrease in the expression 511 neural crest markers Sox10 and Foxd3 in tumors that developed when Cxcr2 activity 512 513 was ablated. In addition, there was an increase in expression of some markers 514 associated with pluripotency or stemness.

515 While we do see consistent Tfcp211 induction across all our models of Cxcr2 perturbation, trends in Tfcp2l1-regulated genes are not as clear. There is a trend toward 516 increased Klf4, Hmga2, Notch1, Myc, and Stat3 expression which would suggest that 517 518 tumors with loss of Cxcr2 are less differentiated. However, Esrrb, which has been established as a direct target of Tfcp2l1 binding and induction in ESCs (39), is 519 significantly decreased in our Cxcr2^{-/-} tumors. The implications of this shift in stemness 520 markers in relation to melanoma aggression, treatment sensitivity, and overall prognosis 521 522 is currently unknown.

Our finding that loss or inhibition of Cxcr2 activity in melanocytic cells results in changes 523 in markers associated with stemness, neural crest cells, and melanoblasts in 524 association with a reduction of tumor formation and growth is somewhat paradoxical. 525 However, human melanoma tumors are quite heterogeneous (48), with stem-like cell 526 populations as well as more differentiated populations expressing MITF, TYR, and 527 528 MELANA. Of note, nests of stem-like melanoma cells have been identified in metastatic 529 lesions in head and neck cancer patients and shown to express NANOG, OCT4, SOX2, KLF4, AND cMYC (48). Moreover, melanocytes and melanoma cells have been 530 531 dedifferentiated to iPSCs by transfecting in Oct4, c-Myc, and Klf4 expression vectors. 532 The resulting iPSCs express Nanog and Oct4 and can be differentiated into fibroblast-533 like cells (49). Our data suggest that loss of CXCR2 signaling may reduce sub-534 populations of melanoma cells expressing the neural crest marker Sox10 and stem cell marker Esrrb but increases populations with the stemness markers Klf4, Hmga1, and 535 *Tfcp2I1.* Moreover, the gene expression pattern in the six functionally enriched states of 536 537 tumor cells previously established by single-cell transcriptomics: melanocytic, neural

crest-like, antigen-presenting, RNA processing, stem-like, and stress-like appear to be
 altered with loss of Cxcr2 signaling, especially in the melanocytic state (50).

540 **Conclusion**:

We demonstrate that targeted deletion of *Cxcr2* in tyrosinase-expressing melanoma 541 precursor cells concurrent with induction of the Braf^{V600E} transgene and loss of Pten 542 expression or induction of *NRas*^{Q61R} and loss of *Ink4a*, resulted in a significant reduction 543 of melanoma burden. Notably, we also observed reduced expression of genes involved 544 545 in growth, increased expression of genes involved in tumor suppression, and promotion 546 of an anti-tumor immune environment when Cxcr2 was deleted in tyrosinase-expressing 547 melanoma precursor cells during transformation. Importantly, we show that the 548 CXCR1/CXCR2 antagonist, SX-682, accomplishes a similar reduction in melanoma tumor burden, establishes an anti-tumor immune microenvironment, and significantly 549 550 alters the transcriptional profile of melanoma cells when delivered during the 551 transformation process. A key mechanism for these transcriptional changes involves increased expression of Tfcp2l1, a predicted tumor suppressive transcription factor 552 when Cscr2 activity is blocked. 553

554 Our data support combining CXCR1/CXCR2 antagonists with immunotherapy for 555 melanoma patients. Consistent with this concept, we have shown that the antagonism 556 of Cxcr2 upregulates PD-L1 expression and enhances the response of melanoma cells 557 to anti-PD-1(9). Moreover, CXCR1/CXCR2 antagonists combined with anti-PD-1 are 558 currently in clinical trials for the treatment of melanoma (NCT03161431). Moving

forward, it will be essential to identify the subset of patients most likely to respond to this
 combination therapy and to develop protocols for maximal response.

561 List of abbreviations

CXCR2, C-X-C Motif Chemokine Receptor 2. Ink4a, inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinase 562 563 4a. Pten, phosphatase and tensin Homolog. TFCP2L1, Transcription Factor CP2 Like 1. 564 MDSC, myeloid-derived suppressor cells. TME, tumor microenvironment. PI3K, phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase. MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase. AKT, protein 565 566 kinase B. NF-KB, nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells. KC, 567 keratinocyte chemoattractant. MIP-2, macrophage-inflammatory protein-2. LIX1, limb 568 and CNS expressed 1. TCGA, the cancer genome atlas. GEPIA, gene expression 569 profiling interactive analysis. GSEA, gene set enrichment analysis. WGCNA, weighted gene co-expression network analysis. PD-1, programmed cell death protein 1. CRE, cis 570 regulatory element. 4-HT, Hydroxytamoxifen. mT/mG, a cell membrane-localized 571 572 Tomato (mT) and EGFP (mG) as a two-color fluorescent Cre-reporter allele. RNAseq, 573 RNA sequencing. Tmprss11e, transmembrane serine protease 11e. Adamts18, ADAM metallopeptidase with thrombospondin type 1 motif 18. Tgm3, transglutaminase 3. 574 GSDMc, gasdermin C. Elf3, E74 like ETS transcription factor 3. Fcna, ficolin A. MLK4, 575 myosin light chain kinase 4. FACS, fluorescence activated cell sorting. M-CSF, 576 macrophage colony-stimulating factor. VEGF, Vascular endothelial growth factor. 577 578 RPPA, reverse phosphoprotein analysis. mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin. MMP, matrix metalloproteinase. PAX8, paired box gene 8. STING, stimulator of interferon 579 580 genes. TRIM25, tripartite motif containing 25. PUMA, p53 upregulated modulator of 581 apoptosis. BclxL, B-cell lymphoma-extra large. Smac, second mitochondrial activator of

caspases. TSC2, tuberous sclerosis complex 2. WTAP, Wilms tumor suppressor 1 582 583 associated protein. PLK1, polo like kinase 1. PRAS40, the proline-rich AKT substrate of 40 kDa. HMHA1, minor histocompatibility protein HA-1. KLF, krupple-like factor. Nanog, 584 585 nanog homeobox. Oct4, octamer-binding transcription factor 4. Sox2, SRY-box transcription factor 2. Esrrb, estrogen related receptor beta. Notch1, notch receptor 1. 586 Hmga2, high mobility group AT-hook 2. Foxd3, forkhead box D3. ANOVA, analysis of 587 variance. CHIPseq, chromatin immunoprecipitation and sequencing analysis. NHEM, 588 589 normal human epidermal melanocyte. MELANA, melanocyte antigen.

591 **Declarations**

592 **Ethical approval and consent to participate**

593 Animal studies were approved by the Vanderbilt Institutional Care and Animal Use 594 Committee (IACUC) and were performed in accordance with Vanderbilt IACUC 595 guidelines.

596 **Consent for publication**

597 Not applicable.

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614 Author Contributions

J Yang performed the animal experiments, K Bergdorf analyzed the RNAseg data, C 615 Yan analyzed human datasets from multiple sources, e.g., GEO, TCGA, TIDE, Riaz et 616 al., 2017, and Chen et al., 2016, S-C Chen and D Ayers performed the biostatistical 617 analysis, Q Liu, X Liu extracted the raw RNAseg data and provided analysis. W Luo 618 helped with the ChIP-seq experiments, M Boothby provided immunology expertise, S M 619 620 Groves, AN Oleskie, and V Quaranta assisted with the transcription factor analysis, JA Zebala and DY Maeda provided expertise for SX-682 experiments, A Richmond 621 designed the study, oversaw the gathering and interpretation of data, all the authors 622 623 contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

624 **Competing interests**

JA Zebala and DY Maeda are affiliated with Syntrix Pharmaceuticals and provided the drug for these studies. The other authors do not have any competing interests to disclose.

628 Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the GeneExpression Omnibus under accession GSE223290.

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