T.C. REPUBLIC OF TURKEY HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES

TO EXAMINE THE ROLE OF HYPOXIA ON ANTI-TUMOUR IMMUNITY

Rüveyda AYASUN, MD

Tumor Biology and Immunology Program DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY THESIS

> ANKARA 2021

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2021

ONAY SAYFASI

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES TO EXAMINE THE ROLE OF HYPOXIA ON ANTI-TUMOUR IMMUNITY

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YAYIMLAMA VE FİKRİ MÜLKİYET HAKLARI BEYANI

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ETHICAL DECLARATION

In this thesis study, I declare that all the information and documents have been obtained in the base of the academic rules and all audio-visual and written information and results have been presented according to the rules of scientific ethics. I did not do any distortion in data set. In case of using other works, related studies have been fully cited in accordance with the scientific standards. I also declare that my thesis study is original except cited references. It was produced by myself in consultation with advisor and co-advisor (Assoc.Prof. Füsun Özmen and Prof. Dr. Susan Kaech, respectively) and written according to the rules of thesis writing of Hacettepe University Institute of Health Sciences.

Rüveyda AYASUN, MD

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ABSTRACT

Ayasun, R., To examine the role of hypoxia on anti-tumour immunity, Hacettepe University Graduate School of Health Sciences, Tumor Biology and Immunology Program, Doctor of Philosophy Thesis, Ankara, 2021. Inhibition of tumor angiogenesis has been extensively utilized in the treatment of metastatic colorectal cancer and renal cell carcinoma. Complete disruption of tumor angiogenesis results in hypoxia which promotes tumor metastasis and treatment resistance. Although angiogenesis inhibitors are successful to some extent, majority of patients experience the recurrence and acquired resistance. Spatial and temporal changes in tumor microenvironment sculpt the anti-tumor immune response. However, little is known how tumor oxygenation and vessel normalization in vivo influence immune infiltration in YUMMER melanoma tumors. We hypothesized that tumor vessel structure implicates in immune cell composition in melanoma. Therefore, we utilized a previously well-defined mouse model which targets one copy of *Phd2* gene. Haplodeficiency of *Phd2* normalizes the endothelial alignment and improves pericyte coverage of blood vessels, thereby increasing tumor perfusion and oxygenation. We demonstrated that mitigation of "true" hypoxia through blood vessel normalization improves anti-tumor immunity, thereby delaying tumor growth. In addition, our study highlighted that disruption of hypoxia using *Phd2* haplodeficient mouse model re-shaped tumor microenvironment through improved CD4+ and CD8+ T cell infiltration, recruitment of pro-inflammatory macrophages, and diminished infiltration of PD-L1^{hi} anti-inflammatory macrophages. Subsequently, tumor growth is delayed in a T cell dependent manner. In conclusion, *Phd2* haplodeficiency restores tumor oxygenation and enhances anti-tumor immune cell infiltration in melanoma tumors.

Key Words: hypoxia, Phd2, vessel normalization, melanoma, anti-tumour immune response

ÖZET

Ayasun, R., Hipoksinin anti-tümör immün yanıt üzerine etkisinin araştırılması, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü Tümör Biyolojisi ve İmmünolojisi Programı, Doktora Tezi, Ankara, 2021. Anjiojenez inhibitörleri metastatik kolorektal kanser ve renal hücreli karsinoma tedavisinde cok önemli bir yer edinmektedir. Fakat tümör anjiojenezinin tamamen ortadan kaldırılması ile tümör hipoksisi oluşmaktadır. Solid tümörlerde hipoksinin uzak metastazda ve anti-kanser tedavilere dirençte önemli bir rol aldığı bilinmektedir. Buna istinaden anjiojenez inhibitörü kullanan pek çok kanser hastasında da anjijenez inhibitörlerinin etkinliği kısıtlı kalmakta olup tedaviye karşı kazanılmış direnç ve hastalık rekürrensi en sık karşılaşılan problemlerden biridir. Tümör mikroçevresindeki lokalize ve zamansal değişimler antitümör immün yanıtları şekillendirmektedir. Buna rağmen in vivo tümör oksijenizasyonunun ve damar normalizasyonunun melanomaya karşı immün yanıtı nasıl etkilediği tam olarak anlaşılamamıştır. Çalışmaya damar yapısının YUMMER melanoma modelinde immün kompozisyonu etkilediği hipotezi ile başladık. Bunu gösterebilmek için Phd2 haplodefektli fareleri kullandık. Bu defekt sayesinde damarlardaki perisit hücre ile çevrili olma oranı artmış ve endotel hücre dizilimi normalize olmuştur. Sonuç olarak oksijenizasyon artmıştır. Artan oksijenizasyonu takiben CD4+ ve CD8+ T hücre infiltrasyonu ve pro-inflamatuar makrofaj infiltrasyonunun arttığı görülmüştür. Bunun yanında yüksek oranda PD-L1 eksprese eden anti-inflamatuar makrofaj infiltrasyonu da azalmıştır. Bu bulgularla paralel olarak tümör büyümesi T hücre bağımlı bir mekanizma ile yavaşlamıştır. Sonuç olarak fare melanoma modelinde Phd2 haplodefekti tümör oksijenizasyonunu restore etmekte ve anti-tümör immün infiltrasyonu iyileştirmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: hipoksi, Phd2, damar normalizasyonu, melanoma, anti-tümör immün yanıtlar

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ONAY SAYFASI	iii
YAYIMLAMA VE FİKRİ MÜLKİYET HAKLARI BEYANI	iv
ETHICAL DECLARATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
ABSTRACT	vi
ÖZET	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF TABLES	xv
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2.GENERAL INFORMATION	3
2.1. Melanoma	3
2.2. Tumor Microenvironment	4
2.3. Hypoxia	4
3. MATERIALS AND METHODS	8
3.1. Materials	8
3.1.1. Mouse breeding and tumor induction	8
3.1.2. Cell lines	8
3.1.3. Cell Culture and RPMI Medium	9
3.1.4. Flow cytometry reagents	9
3.1.5. Histology reagents	10
3.1.6. Tumor digestion and TIL analysis	10
3.1.7. Immunofluorescence Staining	11
3.1.8. Flow Cytometry Instruments	11
3.2. Methods	12
3.2.1. Animals	12
3.2.2. Tumor induction	12
3.2.3. Pimonidazole pulsing	13

3.2.4. Staining for surface and intracellular proteins for flow cytometry	
analysis	13
3.2.5. Statistics	14
4. RESULTS	15
4.1. Immunofluorescence staining of CD31 in PHD2 haplodeficient mice with	
YUMMER 1.7 tumors.	15
4.2. Assessment of vessel maturation in PhD2 haplodeficient mice via	
immunofluorescence staining of VE-Cadherin	17
4.3. Investigation of pericyte-coverage and tight junction in <i>PHD2</i> ^{+/-} mice	18
4.4. Analysis of immune infiltration within hypoxic and normoxic tumor regions	20
4.5. Analysis of anti-tumor T cell infiltration in PHD2 ^{+/-} and WT mice	22
4.6. Assessment of T cell dependency of tumor growth in PHD2 ^{+/-} mice	24
4.7. Quantitative analysis of tumor infiltrating T cells in PHD2 ^{+/-} and WT mice	27
4.8. Characterization of T cell phenotype in PHD2 ^{+/-} and WT mice	29
4.9. Functional analysis of T cells in PHD2 ^{+/-} and WT mice	32
4.10. Dissecting tumor associated macrophage infiltration by hypoxia ablation	
via PHD2 haplodeficiency	35
4.11. Analysis of PD-L1 expression on myeloid cells in PHD2 ^{+/-} and WT mice	37
5. DISCUSSION	39
6. CONCLUSIONS AND REMARKS	48
7. REFERENCES	49
8. APPENDICES	
APPENDIX-1: Ethical approval for Thesis Studies	
APPENDIX-2: Thesis Originality Report	
APPENDIX-3: Digital Receipt	
9. CURRICULUM VITAE	

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

α-SMA	Alpha smooth muscle actin		
Ab	Antibody		
Ag	Antigen		
APC	Antigen presenting cells		
BFA	Brefeldin A		
BOLD	Blood oxygen level-dependent imaging		
BSA	Bovine serum albumin		
Са	Calcium		
CD	Cluster of differentiation		
CSF	Colony stimulating factor		
CTL	Cytotoxic T lymphocyte		
CTRL	Control		
DC	Dendritic cell		
ddH₂O	Double distilled water		
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium		
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfide		
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid		
EDTA	Ethylene diamine tetracetic acid		
ELISA	Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay		
FACS	Fluoresecence activated cell sorting		
FBS	Fetal bovine serum		
FDA	Food and Drug Administration		
FDG	18-Fluoro-deoxy-glucose		
FIH1	Factor inhibiting HIF1		
FITC	Fluorescein isothiocyanate		
HIF-1α	Hypoxia inducible factor		
HLA	Human leukocyte antigen		
HMGB1	High mobility group box protein 1		
IFN	Interferon		

IFP	Interstitial fluid pressure		
IL	Interleukin		
i.m	Intramuscular		
i.p.	Intraperitoneal		
i.v.	Intravenous		
Lag3	Lymphocyte activation gene		
LCMV	Lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus		
LLC	Lewis lung cancer		
LN	Lymph node		
LPS	Lipopolysaccharide		
mAb	Monoclonal antibody		
MDSC	Myeloid derived suppressor cells		
МНС	Major histocompatibility complex		
ММР	Matrix metalloprotease		
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid		
NF-KB	Nuclear factor kappa B		
NO	Nitric oxide		
ОСТ	Optimal Cutting Temperature Compound		
РВМС	Peripheral blood mononuclear cells		
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline		
PD-1	Programmed death-1		
PD-L1	Programmed death-ligand 1		
PFA	Paraformaldehyde		
PHD2	Prolyl hydroxylase-2 Radiation 1.7		
RPMI 1640	Roswell Park Memorial Institute 1640		
s.c.	Subcutaneous		
ТАМ	Tumor associated macrophage		
TCR	T cell receptor		
Th	Helper T cell		
TIL	Tumor infiltrating lymphocyte		

TME	Tumor microenvironment
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
Treg	Regulatory T cells
VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor
VHL	Von Hippel Lindau
WT	Wild type
YUMMER 1.7	Yale University Mouse Melanoma Exposed to Radiation
ZO-1	Zonula occludens-1

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
2.1.	Oxygen dependent HIF signalling	6
2.2.	Hypoxia and Acidosis as a result of Impaired Perfusion Promote Tumor Development and Therapy Resistance	7
3.1.	YUMMER 1.7 cell line	9
4.1.	Effect of <i>PHD2</i> haplodeficiency on vessel elongation in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors.	16
4.2.	Impact of Phd2 haplodeficiency on vessel maturation in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors.	17
4.3.	Effect of <i>PHD2</i> haplodeficiency on vessel normalization in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors.	19
4.4.	Immunofluorescence staining of tumor infiltrating lymphocytes within hypoxic and normoxic tumor locations.	22
4.5.	Immunofluorescence staining of T cells in WT and <i>PHD2^{+/-}</i> mice.	24
4.6.	Vessel normalization delays tumor growth in <i>PHD2^{+/-}</i> mice in a T cell dependent manner.	26
4.7.	Disruption of hypoxia promotes T cell infiltration within melanoma tumors.	28
4.8.	Improving oxygenation through blood vessel normalization does not alter T cell phenotypes in melanoma tumors.	31
4.9.	Hypoxia reduction by haplodeficiency of PHD2 helps unleash IFN γ production of TILs.	34
4.10.	Hypoxia ablation impairs the infiltration of M2-like tumor promoting macrophages, however promotes inflammatory macrophage infiltration into melanoma tumors.	36
4.11.	Hypoxia reduction decreases the expression of PD-L1 on myeloid cells in melanoma tumors.	38

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1.	Blocking buffer reagents	11
3.2.	Immunofluorescence Antibodies	11
3.3.	Flow Cytometry Antibodies	12

1. INTRODUCTION

Malignant proliferation of melanocytes in the epidermis gives rise to melanoma and is a challenging disease as it is capable of metastasizing throughout the body. At early stage of the disease, patients can be treated with chemotherapy following to surgical excision. However, these therapeutic options do not yield survival benefit at later disease course. The lack of effective treatment options urge clinicians to develop new therapeutics. Recently, it has been highlighted that immune check point inhibitors provide a survival benefit to patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), bladder cancer, and melanoma to some extent. Overall survival metastatic melanoma patients was 6 to 9 months under traditional treatments. Targeted therapies such as vemurafenib (B-raf inhibitor) as well as chemotherapy agents have shown promising results, however, survival benefits are far from clinical significance (1). Nevertheless, T cell based-immune check point inhibitors (ICIs) are now approved by Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and are used first line treatment for several cancers consisting of melanoma, renal cell carcinoma etc. Recently, some patients with melanoma exhibit remarkable responses to ICIs (2) regardless of its highly metastatic aspect. However, one of the major obstacles clinicians face with is that not every patient responds immunotherapy, instead majority of patients develop resistance over the course of treatment (3). In addition to acquired resistance, some of the patients must discontinue immunotherapy due to life-threatening adverse effects. Therefore, novel approaches are warranted for patients who are not responsive to ICIs.

It is now appreciated that cancer cells co-exist in a chaotic environment with neighboring stromal and immune cells. Moreover, cancer cells' interactions with components of the tumor microenvironment (TME) impact their growth and metastasis (4). In this complexity, when tumors reach a certain size, they incite new blood vessel formation which is termed as angiogenesis in order to cope with their increased oxygen and nutrient demand. Angiogenetic tumor vessels are disorganized and fragile by virtue of aberrations in their endothelial lining (i.e, misalignment) and pericyte coverage (5). Losing of hierarchical architecture; and an abnormal endothelial alignment contributes to the pro-carcinogenic and immunosuppressive TME. This dysregulation maintains a cancer cell's permissive environment characterized by hypoxia. Subsequently, this chaotic environment generates a physical barrier to T cell infiltration (4). Recent studies have demonstrated that blood endothelial cells as well as lymphatic endothelial cells within TME can effectively suppress recruitment, adhesion, extravasation, and functionality of T cells (6, 7). Besides, macrophages are prominent cell types within most tumors and their differentiation into pro-inflammatory macrophages may be hampered by oxygen shortage (8). Moreover, some studies have highlighted the implication of hypoxia in upregulating PD-L1 expression on myeloid derived suppressor cells (MDSC) (9). It has been demonstrated previously that PD-L1^{hi} F4/80^{hi} macrophages show anti-inflammatory features. In contrast, TNF α -producing macrophages are F4/80^{int} Ki67⁺ suggesting that they are M1 like proinflammatory macrophages (10).

2.GENERAL INFORMATION

2.1. Melanoma

Melanoma arises from the melanocytes in the epidermis and accounts for 5% of patients who are diagnosed with cancer each year. Even though it has a favorable outcome when diagnosed early in the disease course, melanoma has a dismal prognosis with 25% of survival rate in patients with advanced metastatic disease (11). Historically, melanoma patients underwent surgical excision, if resectable, followed by chemotherapy. However, toxicities-associated with cytotoxic treatments sometimes outweigh the clinical benefit. Therefore, in an era of precision medicine, novel treatment options (e.g. targeted therapy, immunotherapy) are emerging to improve outcome in patients with advanced metastatic melanoma. Recently, nextgeneration-sequencing (NGS) has revolutionized the cancer treatment by enabling the identification of actionable targets implicated in disease progression (12). For instance, melanoma patients whose tumors harboring BRAF V600E mutation exclusively responded to BRAF inhibitors (eg, vemurafenib and dafrafenib) with the response rates of more than 50% (13, 14). Nonetheless, patients who were administered small molecule inhibitors eventually became resistant to given medications due to compensatory mechanisms (15). Although further investigations regarding resistance to BRAF inhibitors are underway, cancer researchers have zeroed in targeting neighboring cells within TME instead of genetically unstable and adaptable cancer cells. More recently, exploiting the patient's own immune system against cancer has been recognized as a 5th pillar of cancer treatment along with radiotherapy, chemotherapy, targeted therapy, and surgery. Moreover, FDA has approved several immunotherapy agents as first-line treatment for various cancer types which have been attributed as hard-to-treat diseases previously. For instance, nivolumab was approved by FDA for the first-line therapy of patients with unresectable or metastatic melanoma with the objective response rates (ORR) of 32% in December 2014 (1, 16).

2.2. Tumor Microenvironment

TME consists of a variety of cell types and nutrients. Cellular components of TME include cancer associated fibroblasts (CAF), lymphocytes, dendritic cells (DC), MDSC, tumor associated macrophages (TAM), and extracellular matrix (ECM). Moreover, components of TME continuously cross-talk with cancer cells as well as each other, in turn proceed tumor progression even metastasis (17). When tumors reach a certain size, cancer cells induce vessel formation which is termed as angiogenesis. Angiogenetic vessels are disorganized and are unable to deliver sufficient nutrient and oxygen within solid tumors. This shortage creates hostile microenvironment for cancer cells and adjacent structures. Even though it seems beneficial for tumor cells, it is contradictory for other cell types residing in tumors such as immune cells. Hypoxia, which refers to oxygen shortage, is a well-known aspect of solid tumors and has been extensively studied thus far. Hypoxia contributes tortuous vessel formation, glucose metabolism, stemness feature of cancer cells, and resistance to radiotherapy as well as chemotherapy. However, majority of studies have done by utilizing in vitro models due to paucity of in vivo model which allows us manipulate tumor oxygenation. Recently, researchers uncovered that to supplementary oxygenation decreases tumor metastasis and facilitates influx of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in given tumor models. For instance, how "true hypoxia" shapes microenvironment. In some studies, researchers have demonstrated that evofosfamide which disrupts hypoxia within tumors may potentiate immune check point blockade efficacy. However, evofosfamide is not specific to target hypoxia but also a chemotherapeutic drug which mediates unspecific cell death. Besides its potential beneficial effect on anti-tumor response, there are controversial studies wherein researchers showed that in vitro cultured T cells under hypoxic condition efficiently prime within tumors and cause delayed tumor progression.

2.3. Hypoxia

Hypoxia which refers low oxygen tension has been a well-known aspect of solid tumors for decades. Initially, hypoxia has been described in the context of

resistance to radiotherapy (18). In 1904, Hahn and Schwarz were able to demonstrate that diminished blood flow abrogated the influences of low energy X-rays. Furthermore, Crabtree and Cramer demonstrated that oxygen was an essential element of the response of cells to irradiation in 1930. They have found that hypoxic cancer cells were 3 times resistant to irradiation when compared to the aerobic cells (19).

Although hypoxia has been extensively discovered in the context of cancer, vast majority of discoveries neglected the importance of the measurement of partial oxygen pressure within the tumor tissue. Physiologically, tissue oxygenation is dependent on metabolic demands and requirements of organs and can fluctuate accordingly. Growing body of literature have suggested that physiologic normoxia and atmospheric oxygen level are distinct notions and cannot be used interchangeably. Even though brain is one of well-perfused organs throughout the body, partial oxygen pressure of brain parenchyma was measured around 35 mmHg (4.6%) under normal circumstances (20). This value is nowhere near to atmospheric oxygen level, which is named normoxia (ie, 20% of oxygen). Not surprisingly, **in vitro** cell culture systems are performed in approximately 20% of oxygen. Whereas corresponding pO₂ values in human organs range between 1% to 11%. It is critical to recognize that misinterpretation complicated by the differences between physiological and atmospheric normoxia may result in misleading.

In the presence of oxygen, prolyl hydroxylase enzymes (PHD) hydroxylate the master transcriptional regulator of hypoxia (HIF1 α), thereby rendering HIF1 α susceptible for ubiquitination by VHL. Subsequently, ubiquitinated HIF1 α is degraded by proteasomes. In contrast, PHD enzymes are inhibited in the absence of oxygen. Consequently, HIF1 α molecules are stabilized and translocate to the nucleus to promote metastasis, cell survival, glycolysis, angiogenesis, and immune responses as depicted in Figure 1 (21). The state of insufficient oxygen availability is defined as hypoxia. In the presence of oxygen shortage, the cellular oxygen sensor proteins, prolyl hydroxylases (PHD), are inhibited, in turn, hypoxia-inducible factors translocate to the nucleus. Similar to the PHD proteins, under inadequate oxygen supply, FIH1

(factor inhibiting HIF1) function is inhibited, resulting in disruption of hydroxylation of asparagine residues and allowing for increased HIF transcriptional activity (21-25). On the other hand, T cells stimulated with cognate antigens and costimulatory molecules upregulate their HIF-1 α expression via oxygen-independent mechanisms (26). Subsequently, hypoxia activates the NF- κ B pathway. Surprisingly, in T cells, stimuli that activate NF-κB such as cognate antigen also induce the expression of HIF-1a protein. Upon TCR stimulation, HIF-1 α protein stabilization occurs which can be reinforced by concurrent hypoxic exposure. In addition, IL-6 can induce HIF-1 α stabilization in T cells. It is unclear whether it is related with coupling of TCR stimulation or increased oxygen consumption of activated T cells. Tumor hypoxia induces the chemokine CCL28 expression, which preferentially induces the recruitment of Treg cells. In addition, HIF-1 α can induce the transcriptional activation of FoxP3, to promote the differentiation of Treg cells. VHL-deficient thymocytes constitutively express HIF-1 α , resulting in detrimental effect on normal thymocyte development and differentiation. Moreover, removal of Ca from the cytoplasm via HIF1a-induced increase in SERCA2 Ca pumps following TCR cross-linking. HIF-1 α defective T cells had increased cytokine production including IFNy and IL-2. Besides its role in hypoxia, HIF-1 α may have a crucial role in T cell activation and differentiation.



Figure 2.1. Oxygen dependent HIF signalling (Adapted from Wilson 2014 (21))

Hypoxic signal plays a fundamental role in vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-induced angiogenesis. As the tumor growth outpaces the vasculature's capability to perfuse tumor microenvironment, master transcriptional regulator of hypoxic response (ie, HIF1 α) increases glucose utilization of cancer cells through anaerobic glycolysis. On the other hand, greater glucose utilization by cancer cells results in glucose-depleted microenvironment for neighboring cells (eg, immune cells, fibroblasts, and endothelial cells).

Within 70 to 150 micron of tumor vasculature, rapidly dividing cancer cells consume vast majority of oxygen, thereby resulting in oxygen shortage for the tissue compartments further away from the vasculature. Thus, spatial and temporal heterogeneity in terms of oxygenation is inevitable within the tumor tissue.

Oxygen availability within tumors has a broad range of implications in cancer treatment including chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and recently immunotherapy.





3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Materials

3.1.1. Mouse breeding and tumor induction

Phd2^{+/-} mice have been bred as previously described (5). Phd2^{+/-} mice were provided by the laboratory of Massimiliano Mazzone. Tumor induction was performed subcutaneously (28). Mice matched for age and sex were used for the experiments. Phd2^{+/-} mice were co-housed with controls whenever possible. Tumor volumes were calculated by the caliper. All mice were housed in Salk Institute Animal Resources Center in pathogen-free conditions. Each animal experiments were performed according to the approved protocols of the Salk Institute Animal Care and Use Committee. For tumor induction, YUMMER1.7 and MC38 cells were harvested at 60%–85% confluence. Cells were trypsinized with 0.25% trypsin for 1 min before deactivation with media containing 10% serum. They were then washed twice with sterile 1× PBS. Cancer cells were counted with an Invitrogen Countess or a hemocytometer. Cells resuspended in 100 µl of sterile PBS were inoculated subcutaneously into a shaved rear flank by using an insulin syringe.

3.1.2. Cell lines

YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells were derived from YUMM cell lines which were obtained from *Braf^{V600E}Cdkn2a^{-/-}* Pten^{-/-} mice and subsequently irradiated three times (**Figure 2.1**). YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells were gift from Marcus Bosenberg Lab at Yale University. YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells were passaged in 1:1 DMEM F-12 supplemented with 1% L-glutamine, 1% non-essential amino acids, 10% FBS, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (28). MC38 and murine melanoma cells were passaged in DMEM F-12 supplemented with 10% FBS. 2.1.7. In 500 mL DMEM F-12 media; 5 mL L-glutamine, 5 mL non-essential amino acids solution, 50 mL FBS (heat-inactivated), and 5 mL Pen/Strep added for the preparation of 10% cell culture media.



Figure 3.1. YUMMER 1.7 cell line

3.1.3. Cell Culture and RPMI Medium

DMEM F-12 supplemented with L-glutamine, high glucose, sodium pyruvate, and HEPES (Catalog # 11330057) and RPMI-1640 with HEPES buffer, L-glutamine, and high glucose (Catalog # A1049101) were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific, USA. Non-essential amino acids solution (Catalog # 11140050), L-glutamine (Catalog # 25030-081) and Pen/Strep (5,000 units/mL Penicillin and 5,000 µg/mL Streptomycin; Catalog # 25070-063) were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific, USA. Heat inactivated FBS (56° for 30-min; Catalog # 10082147) and 1X PBS (Catalog # 10010023) were also supplied from ThermoFisher Scientific, USA.

3.1.4. Flow cytometry reagents

Single-cell suspensions from harvested tissues (eg, tumors and spleens) were pre-incubated with anti-Fc receptor antibody (2.4G2) on ice for 15 min in complete RPMI with 10% serum. The cells were then stained with the desired antibodies on ice for 30 min. For the cytokine analysis, cells were fixed and permeabilized in buffer. They were then stained with antibodies to detect intracellular cytokines. For gating, compensation was performed with splenocytes before being manually confirmed and compared with previous experiments. Samples were acquired on LSRII flow cytometers. Data were analyzed with Flowjo (Flowjo, LLC., Ashland, OR). Antibodies against CD45 (A20), CD8 (53-6.7), CD4 (GK1.5), CD11b (M1/70), Ly6C (HK1.4), Ly6G (1A8-Ly6G), PD-1 (29F.1812), and Foxp3 (FJK- 16s) were purchased from eBioscience. Antibodies against CD4 (RM4-5), F4/80 (BM8), PD-L1 (10F.9G2), TNF- α (MP6-XT22), and IFN- γ (XMG1.2) were supplied from Biolegend. LIVE/DEAD red was purchased from Invitrogen. Hypoxia staining was detected by intracellular staining of pimonidazole adduct (Hypoxyprobe).

3.1.5. Histology reagents

In some experiments, after pimonidazole pulsing, tumor tissues were dissected and fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at 4° C overnight and snap frozen in Optimal Cutting Temperature Compound (OCT) (Tissue-Tek). Tissue blocks were then sectioned (Cryostat microtome). Tissue was blocked in blocking buffer, stained with CD4 (RM4-5), CD8 (53-6.7), hypoxyprobe (Hypoxyprobe) and DAPI (Life Technologies). Inorder to avoid bleaching, sections were mounted with ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (Life Technologies). Sections were imaged with a Zeiss LSM 710 Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope and analyzed with ImageJ.

3.1.6. Tumor digestion and TIL analysis

21 days after tumor induction, when tumors reached the end point (1 or 2 cm³ in each experiment), the mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with pimonidazole (80 mg/kg, Hypoxyprobe) in sterile PBS 1.5 hours prior to sacrifice (29). In some experiments, mice were also administered either control vehicle (isotype control), anti-CD4 (GK1.5 10 mg/kg every day), and anti-CD8 (TIB210 10 mg/kg every 3 days) for total of 10 treatments. Mice were sacrificed according to institutional guidelines. Tumor tissues and spleens were harvested and manually disrupted, and then digested in complete RPMI with 2% serum, 0.5 mg/ml collagenase IV, and 0.1 mg/mL DNase I in a 37°C incubator for 20 min. To remove debris, cell suspensions were filtered through a 70 µm cell strainer. To give the total number of the cells of interest, the percentage of the cells measured by flow cytometer is multiplied back against the

total cell count. This number is then divided by the tumor weight to calculate density (# cells per milligram of harvested tissue).

3.1.7. Immunofluorescence Staining

In some experiments, after pimonidazole pulsing, tumor tissues were harvested and fixed in 2% PFA at 4°C overnight and snap frozen at -80°C in OCT (Tissue-Tek). Tumors were sectioned 7 μ m thickness in the Cryostat microtome at -°25C. Cut sections were blocked in blocking buffer at room temperature for 1 hour. All the reagents required to prepare blocking buffer were shown in Table 1. Fluorescence-labelled antibodies used for the immunofluorescence staining of tumor sections are listed in Table 2.

Table 3.1. Blocking buffer reagents

Name	Catalog #	Dilution
Bovine serum albumin	PI37525	0.2%
Sodium azide	S2002	0.05%
Triton	X100	0.3%
Rat serum	31888	10%
Purified mouse Fc block	101302	1:100

 Table 3.2.
 Immunofluorescence Antibodies

Name	Clone	Dilution
Anti-mouse CD4	RM 4-5	1:100
Anti-mouse CD8	53-6.7	1:100
Pimonidazole	Hypoxyprobe-1	1:200

3.1.8. Flow Cytometry Instruments

Fluorescence-labeled antibodies used for the staining of the cells are listed in Table 3. Dilutions were done in FACS buffer (2% FBS in PBS). Cell activation cocktail (without Brefeldin A) was purchased from Biolegend (Catalog # 423302). Brefeldin A was purchased from Biolegend to stop cytokine release form Golgi organelle (Catalog # 420601). LSR II and FACSDiva v8.0.1 (BD Biosciences, USA) software were used for the data acquisition. Data were analyzed by using FlowJo v10 (BD Biosciences, USA).

Name	Clone	Company	Dilution
Anti-mouse CD45	A20	eBioscience	1:500
Anti-mouse CD8	53-6.7	eBioscience	1:400
Anti-mouse CD4	GK1.5	eBioscience	1:400
Anti-mouse CD11b	M1/70	eBioscience	1:200
Anti-mouse Ly6C	HK1.4	eBioscience	1:200
Anti-mouse CD16/32	93	Biolegend	1:1000
Name	Clone	Company	Dilution
Anti-mouse Ly6G	1A8-Ly6G	eBioscience	1:200
Anti-mouse PD-1	29F.1812	eBioscience	1:200
Anti-mouse FoxP3	FJK-16s	eBioscience	1:100
Anti-mouse CD4	RM4-5	Biolegend	1:400
Anti-mouse F4/80	BM8	Biolegend	1:200
Anti-mouse PD-L1	10F.9G2	Biolegend	1:200
Anti-mouse TNF-α	MP6-XT22	Biolegend	1:100
Anti-mouse IFN-γ	XMG1.2	Biolegend	1:100
Anti-mouse LAG3	125221	Biolegend	1:200
Anti-mouse CD38	102728	Biolegend	1:200
Anti-mouse CD39	143806	Biolegend	1:200
Pimonidazole	HP2-200	Hypoxyprobe	1:500

Table 3.3. Flow Cytometry Antibodies

3.2. Methods

3.2.1. Animals

4 to 8 weeks old wild type or *PHD2*^{+/-} adult male C57BL/6 littermate mice were housed in the Salk Institute Animal Facility under the controlled ambient conditions (22±2°C) regulated with 12-hour light/dark cycles. Mice were provided with sufficient food and water. All procedures were conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals and approved by Animal Care and Use Committee (ACUC) of the Salk Institute.

3.2.2. Tumor induction

4 to 8 weeks old wild type or $PHD2^{+/-}$ adult male C57BL/6 littermates were subcutaneously injected with 0.5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells in 100 µL sterile PBS by using insulin syringe. For the consistent and ideal tumor growth, the cells that injected should be at 70-80% confluence at the day of tumor induction.

3.2.3. Pimonidazole pulsing

To image tumor hypoxia, pimonidazole in PBS was administered intraperitoneally (80 mg/kg) to the mice 90-min prior to euthanasia. Subsequently, tumor hypoxia was imaged by staining with FITC-labelled anti-pimonidazole antibody (Hypoxyprobe). Pimonidazole is reductively activated in live hypoxic cells and forms stable adducts. Monoclonal antibody against Pimonidazole binds to these adducts enabling hypoxia detection by immunofluorescence staining.

3.2.4. Staining for surface and intracellular proteins for flow cytometry analysis

Staining of the mouse samples were performed on the 96-well plates. Cells were resuspended at 1×10^6 /mL in the 10% RPMI media. Samples were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 minutes. Cells were then resuspended in 100 µL staining buffer containing the fluorescent-labeled antibodies and anti-mouse CD16/32 as listed in Table 2 and incubated at 4°C for 30 minutes. Samples were washed with 100 µL of FACS buffer and centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 2 minutes. Flow cytometry staining was performed under dark condition to prevent quenching.

For intracellular cytokine staining, cells were pre-incubated with cell stimulation cocktail without Brefeldin A at 37°C for 30 minutes. Cell activation cocktail without Brefeldin A was diluted 1:500 in 10% RPMI media. After stimulation, cells were incubated with an additional 100 µL of Brefeldin A and cell activation cocktail mixture for 4^{1/2} hours. Brefeldin A and cell activation cocktail were diluted 1:500 in 10% RPMI media. Cells were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 2 minutes and washed with 1X PBS to remove Brefeldin A and cell activation cocktail. This step was followed by surface staining as described above. Following to surface staining, cells were incubated with 1:3 dilutions of the Fix/Perm concentrate (Catalog # 00-5123-43 eBioscience, USA) and Fix/Perm diluent (Catalog # 00-5223-56 eBioscience, USA) at 4°C for 30 minutes. Cells were then washed with 1X Permeabilization buffer (Catalog # 00-8333-56 eBioscience, USA). Following permeabilization, cells were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 minutes. 10X Permeabilization buffer was diluted in distilled water.

Subsequently, cells were resuspended in 100 μ L permeabilization buffer containing the fluorescence-labeled or appropriate isotype control antibodies as listed in Table 2 and incubated at 4°C for 30 minutes. To remove unbound antibodies, cells were washed with 1X Permeabilization buffer. Consequently, cells were resuspended with 200 μ L FACS buffer. As a negative control, unstimulated cells were incubated with Brefeldin A in 1:1000 dilution without prior cell activation step.

Single stained samples were prepared with Compensation Beads (Catalog # 01-2222-42 eBioscience, USA) for each fluorochrome used in the staining of the samples. Unstained controls were prepared from fixed mouse splenocytes. These controls were used to set Voltages and compensations adjusted by using these single stained beads and unstained splenocytes. Acquired event number was between 100,000-1,000,000 for mouse samples.

3.2.5. Statistics

Statistical analyses of the data were performed by using GraphPad Prism 6.0c. Student's two-tailed t-tests was used to compare two different groups. Differences between more than 2 groups were assessed by One-Way ANOVA test.

For vessel elongation studies, statistical analyses were done on logtransformed data of length of single blood vessels. Tumor sizes were measured by caliper. Three dimensions were taken for the calculation of tumor volume. Equation used in the calculation of tumor volume: 0.5 * L*W*H.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Immunofluorescence staining of CD31 in *PHD2* haplodeficient mice with YUMMER 1.7 tumors.

Immunofluorescence staining of the sections for CD31, which is an endothelial cell marker, revealed that WT tumors induce punctuated, disorganized, and discontinuous blood vessel formation. Whereas, in *PHD2^{+/-}* mice, the wall of blood vessels was demarcated with clearly defined boundaries and continuous alignment. In turn, these changes resulted in a more regular vessel structure (**Figure 4.1 A and B**). Quantification of maximum elongation demonstrated that blood vessels in *PHD2^{+/-}* mice were significantly more elongated than the blood vessels in WT mice (**Figure 4.1 C**).



В.



A.

Figure 4.1. Effect of PHD2 haplodeficiency on vessel elongation in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors. WT and PHD2^{+/-} littermates were induced with 0.5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells. At day 21 after tumor induction, tumor tissues were harvested and fixed in 2% PFA at 4°C overnight and snap frozen at -80°C in OCT (Tissue-Tek). Tumors were sectioned 7 μ m thickness in the Cryostat microtome at -°25C. Cut sections were stained for CD31 (red). *; p<0.05, **; p<0.01; ***; p<0.001, ****; p<0.0001

4.2. Assessment of vessel maturation in PhD2 haplodeficient mice via immunofluorescence staining of VE-Cadherin

To investigate whether tumor vessels are more mature and tighter in *PHD2*^{+/-} mice, VE-Cadherin staining was performed. Cut tumor sections were stained for VE-Cadherin, which is a maturation marker for endothelial cells. The tumor vessels covered by VE-Cadherin⁺ cells were more prevalent in *PHD2*^{+/-} mice (Figure 4.2 A and B). These findings demonstrated that PhD2 haplodeficiency promotes blood vessel maturation and elongation.

WT

A.

Phd2+/-



Figure 4.2. Impact of Phd2 haplodeficiency on vessel maturation in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors. WT and PHD2^{+/-} littermates were induced with 0.5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells. At day 21 after tumor induction, tumor tissues were harvested and fixed in 2% PFA at 4°C overnight and snap frozen at -80°C in OCT (Tissue-Tek). Tumors were sectioned 7 μm thickness in the Cryostat microtome at -°25C. Cut sections were stained for VE-Cadherin (white).

4.3. Investigation of pericyte-coverage and tight junction in PHD2^{+/-} mice

The above findings suggest that phenotypic features of tumor vessels of WT and *PHD2*^{+/-} mice are distinct. To further confirm this finding, cut tumor sections were stained with CD146, CD31, and α -smooth muscle actin (α -SMA) antibodies. As shown in Figure 4.3 A and B, co-staining of CD146, CD31, and α -SMA was observed in *PHD2*^{+/-} mice. Whereas, in WT mice, tumor vessel was not stained for CD146, which is an indicator of cell-cell interaction between endothelial cells (30).



Phd2+/-



Β.

Figure 4.3. Effect of PHD2 haplodeficiency on vessel normalization in mice with YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors. WT and PHD2^{+/-} littermates were induced with 0.5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells. At day 21 after tumor induction, tumor tissues were harvested and fixed in 2% PFA at 4°C overnight and snap frozen at -80°C in OCT (Tissue-Tek). Tumors were sectioned 7 µm thickness in the Cryostat microtome at -°25C. Cut sections were stained for CD146 (red), CD31 (purple), and α-SMA (green).

WT

4.4. Analysis of immune infiltration within hypoxic and normoxic tumor regions

To analyse hypoxic localization of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, mice with established subcutaneously grown YUMMER 1.7 tumors were pulsed with Hypoxyprobe-1 (80 mg/kg). After 90 minutes of labeling, tumors were fixated in 2% PFA and snap-frozen. Subsequently, 7 μ m cryosections were prepared and immunofluorescence staining was performed. For tumor infiltrating lymphocyte analysis, cut tumor sections were stained with pimonidazole, CD4+, and CD8+ antibodies. Using a molecular in vivo hypoxia marker (i.e hypoxyprobe), Figure 4.4 A and B demonstrate that CD4⁺ T cells were excluded from hypoxic tumor regions. Tumor infiltrating CD4⁺ T cells preferentially localized within non-hypoxic tumor regions. Statistical comparison between hypoxic and non-hypoxic locations of CD4+ T cells seen in the representative images in Figure 4.4 A and B (scale bar, 150 μ m) is shown in the histogram in Figure 4.4 D and E, similar to CD4+ T cell localization, CD8+ T cells were excluded from hypoxic tumor regions. Statistical comparison between hypoxic locations of CD8+ T cells seen in the representative images in Figure 4.4 D and E, similar to CD4+ T cell localization, CD8+ T cells were excluded from hypoxic tumor regions. Statistical comparison between hypoxic locations of CD8+ T cells seen in the representative images in Figure 4.4 D and E, similar to CD4+ T cell localization, CD8+ T cells were excluded from hypoxic tumor regions. Statistical comparison between hypoxic locations of CD8+ T cells seen in the representative images in Figure 4.4 D and E (scale bar, 150 μ m) is shown in the histogram in Figure 4.4 P.


Non-hypoxia region

C.

0·

Hypoxia region



Figure 4.4. Immunofluorescence staining of tumor infiltrating lymphocytes within hypoxic and normoxic tumor locations. Representative images show exclusion of anti-tumor T cells from hypoxic tumor regions. After in vivo labeling of hypoxic tissue regions by 80 mg/kg of Pimonidazole, cut tumor sections were stained with 1:200 dilution of FITC-conjugated pimonidazole antibody (green). Anti-tumor T cell infiltration was examined by staining with 1:100 dilution of fluorescence conjugated anti-mouse CD4+ and CD8+ antibodies (red). n=3 mice. *; p<0.05, **; p<0.01; ***; p<0.001, ****; p<0.001

4.5. Analysis of anti-tumor T cell infiltration in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice.

Having observed that *PHD2* haplodeficiency improved vessel structure and diminished hypoxia within tumors, comparison of T cell infiltration was performed by immunofluorescence staining. Above findings confirmed that CD4+ and CD8+ T cells were excluded from poorly oxygenated tumor regions. In parallel to these findings, improved CD8+ T cell infiltration was observed in *PHD2^{+/-}* mice (Figure 4.5 A and B). Background staining was assessed by appropriate isotype control staining (Figure 4.5 C). Quantification of CD8⁺ T cells in WT and *PHD2^{+/-}* mice indicated that vessel

normalization facilitated CD8+ T cell infiltration in $PHD2^{+/-}$ mice (Figure 4.5 D). Similarly, CD4+ T cell staining was performed (Figure 4.5 E and F) along with appropriate isotype control staining (Figure 4.5 G). Although there was a slight increase in CD4+ T cell infiltration in $PHD2^{+/-}$ mice compared to WT mice, the difference was not significant (Figure 4.5 H).



Figure 4.5. Immunofluorescence staining of T cells in WT and *PHD2^{+/-}* mice. Representative images show improved infiltration of CD4 and CD8 T cells. After in vivo labeling of hypoxic tissue regions by 80 mg/kg of Pimonidazole, cut tumor sections were stained with 1:200 dilution of FITC-conjugated pimonidazole antibody (green). Anti-tumor T cell infiltration was examined by staining with 1:100 dilution of fluorescence conjugated anti-mouse CD4+ and CD8+ antibodies (red). n=3 mice.

4.6. Assessment of T cell dependency of tumor growth in PHD2^{+/-} mice.

YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma tumors are responsive to immunotherapy due to their high immunogenicity (28). To determine whether or not haplodeficiency of PHD2 has an impact on tumor growth, we injected 0,5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 cells into WT and PHD2+/- littermates subcutaneously and then monitored tumor growth by caliper every 3 days. We found that tumors injected into PHD2+/- mice are substantially smaller than WT (**Figure 4.6 A and C**). This data was supported by tumor

weight. Data pertaining to tumor weight was pooled from 5 independent experiments as shown in different color (**Figure 4.6 B**). To better understand the role of T cells in PHD2+/- mice, we depleted both CD4+ and CD8+ cells by in vivo blocking antibodies and demonstrated that delayed tumor growth depends on T cells (**Figure 4.6 D and E**).



Α.



Β.



Figure 4.6. Vessel normalization delays tumor growth in *PHD2^{+/-}* mice in a T cell dependent manner. Tumor measurements of age-matched male PHD2+/- and WT littermates inoculated with 0,5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells. The data is representative of five independent experiments. Mice inoculated with YUMMER 1.7 cells began receiving 200 ug CD4+ (GK 4.5) and CD8+ (TIB210) T cell depletion antibodies twice a week starting on day 7. The data represents one experiment (n=3). Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

4.7. Quantitative analysis of tumor infiltrating T cells in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice.

Mice bearing 21-day pre-implanted YUMMER 1.7 tumors are sacrificed and then tumor infiltrating immune cells are isolated. Total cell # is determined by Accuri cell counting and normalized to tumor weight. CD8+ T cell density is calculated by dividing total live cell # to tumor weight (**Figure 4.7 A**). CD4+ T cell density is measured by dividing total live cell # to tumor weight (**Figure 4.7 B**) Our data suggested that disruption of tumor hypoxia promotes CD4+ and CD8+ T cell infiltration within melanoma tumors in mice.



Α.





Figure 4.7. Disruption of hypoxia promotes T cell infiltration within melanoma tumors. CD4+ and CD8+ T cell densities of PHD2+/- and WT littermates inoculated with 0,5 x 10⁶ YUMMER 1.7 murine melanoma cells. Following to tumor isolation, tumors are weighed and total live cell # is counted by Accuri. Total CD4+ and CD8+ T cell numbers are calculated according to % of cells measured by flow cytometry and total live cells counted by Accuri. Density is calculated by dividing total CD4+ and CD8+ T cell # to tumor weight. Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

4.8. Characterization of T cell phenotype in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice

After demonstrating delayed tumor growth via reduced hypoxia, we sought to determine the impact of disruption of hypoxia on tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) in vivo. It has been previously uncovered by our lab and others that T cells in the TME are metabolically disadvantage and there has been a metabolic tug-of-war between cancer cells and immune cells (31, 32). Flow cytometry analysis of CD8+ T cells (CTLs) from PHD2+/- and CTRL mice bearing YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors revealed that exhaustion markers on CTLs such as PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39 were unaltered (**Figure 4.8 A and B**). These markers on TILs may indicate not only exhaustion state but also activation state of TILs, thereby we then asked whether cytokine production could be rescued by hypoxia reduction (33). Exhaustion is not a fixed term; however, it could be better examined by functional markers like proliferation and functionality (34).







В.

Figure 4.8. Improving oxygenation through blood vessel normalization does not alter T cell phenotypes in melanoma tumors. Representative flow cytogram depicting PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39 expression on TILs from YUMMER 1.7 bearing mice. Quantification of PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39 expression on TILs. Data are pooled from at least six independent experiments. Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

4.9. Functional analysis of T cells in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice

Although tumor burden is significantly reduced due to improved oxygenation, we could not detect significant difference in terms of expression of exhaustion markers. Nonetheless, exhaustion is not only defined by surface markers instead, it is a reversible state of cells and should be determined along with functionality. In order to better understand whether infiltrated T cells are functional, we examined cytokine production of TILs. CD8+ T cells infiltrating PHD2+/- mice exhibit partially improved IFN γ production (**Figure 4.9 A and C**). However, the percentage of IFN γ + TNF α + CD8+ T cells was unaltered. (**Figure 4.9 B and C**). The data are pooled from three independent experiments.







Β.



Figure 4.9. Hypoxia reduction by haplodeficiency of PHD2 helps unleash IFN γ production of TILs. Representative flow cytogram depicting IFN γ and TNF α production of CD8⁺ T cells. IFN γ production by CD8+ T cells is partially rescued by mitigation of hypoxia. Intriguingly, neither percentage of TNF α^+ CD8⁺ T cells nor IFN γ^+ TNF α^+ double producers significantly altered. Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

4.10. Dissecting tumor associated macrophage infiltration by hypoxia ablation via PHD2 haplodeficiency.

We then sought to dissect the effect of diminished hypoxia on myeloid cell composition within melanoma tumors. As previously described, cancer cells recruit immature myeloid cells and force them differentiate into suppressive TAMs and MDSCs (35). This polarization is mediated by factors enriched within less oxygenated tumor regions. We hypothesized that disruption of hypoxia via blood vessel normalization might compromise the capacity of melanoma tumors to recruit antiinflammatory macrophages. To test this hypothesis, we established 21-day YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors, and then examined the frequency of pro and antiinflammatory macrophages. We demonstrated that CD11b+ Ly6G- F4/80+ myeloid cells are abundant in melanoma tumors obtained from CTRL mice (Figure 4.10 A and **B**). F4/80^{hi} myeloid cells within melanoma tumors show suppressive features and their abundance is associated with accelerated tumor growth (10). Nevertheless, improved oxygenation partially lowered F4/80^{hi} myeloid cell recruitment in melanoma tumors. On the other hand, M1-like proinflammatory macrophages are scarce in tumors. Even though their abundance is relatively smaller than TAMs, they may help recruit, differentiate, and activate CD4+ as well as CD8+ T cells through cytokines. We demonstrated herein profoundly increased infiltration of CD11b+ Ly6G- Ly6C+ pro-inflammatory macrophages in given tumor model (Figure 4.10 A, B, and C). This data may explain increased CD4+ and CD8+ T cell infiltration in tumors harvested from PHD2+/- mice.







Figure 4.10. Hypoxia ablation impairs the infiltration of M2-like tumor promoting macrophages, however promotes inflammatory macrophage infiltration into melanoma tumors. Representative flow cytogram depicting the expression of F4/80 and Ly6C on CD11b⁺ Ly6G⁻ CD45⁺ cells. Quantification of F4/80+ and Ly6C+ myeloid cells. Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

4.11. Analysis of PD-L1 expression on myeloid cells in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice.

PD-1 expressing CD8+ T cells engage with PD-L1+ cancer cells, and myeloid cells in tumors. This results in blocking downstream signal transduction on cytotoxic T cells. It has been recently discovered that not only IFN γ but also HIF1 α induces the expression of inhibitory molecule PD-L1 in tumor cells, and TAMs (9). Based on the literature, we hypothesized that ablation of "true" hypoxia may help diminish PD-L1 expression in TAMs, in turn, impairs their suppressive capacity. To assess this, we established 21-day YUMMER 1.7 tumors, and then harvested tumor infiltrating immune cells and stained for PD-L1 along with F4/80. We demonstrated herein that reduced hypoxia substantially diminishes PD-L1 expression in F4/80+ cells (**Figure 4.11 A and B**).



Α.



- Β.
- **Figure 4.11.** Hypoxia reduction decreases the expression of PD-L1 on myeloid cells in melanoma tumors. Representative flow cytogram depicting PD-L1 expression in CD11b+ Ly6G- myeloid cells. Quantification of expression of PD-L1 in TAMs. Data are pooled from at least seven independent experiments. Each color represented independent experiments. Matched experiments are indicated by the same color.

5. DISCUSSION

Blood vessels in tumors are structurally and functionally aberrant (4). These structural aberrations result in hypoperfusion and hypoxia, which stimulate cancer cells to metastasize in different organs (36, 37). Under physiologic conditions, angiogenesis produces structurally intact and functioning blood vessels, thereby improving oxygenation (38). On the other hand, angiogenesis in the context of cancer is non-productive as the endothelial cell alignment is abnormal and blood vessels are blunted (39, 40). Consistent with Mazzone et al., we were able to demonstrate that blood vessels in PHD2 haplodeficient mice were significantly more elongated than WT mice (Figure 4.1). In addition, blood vessels in WT mice were blunted and fragile. In order to assess tumor vessel leakiness, which is a surrogate of vessel functionality, Texas-Red conjugated Dextran or FITC-conjugated lectin could be injected into mice (41, 42). Leaky and fragile vessel structure has been correlated with increased interstitial fluid pressure (IFP) in certain human cancers (eg, metastatic melanoma and breast cancer) (43-45). Instead of showing leakiness of tumor vessels, we stained tumor sections with fluorescence conjugated VE-Cadherin antibody to compare vessel maturation in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice (46). VE-Cadherin deficiency implicated in endothelial survival and adhesion (47, 48). Consistent with Mazzone et al.(5), PHD2 haplodeficient endothelial cells exhibit enhanced VE-Cadherin expression compared to WT (Figure 4.2). VE-Cadherin expression is regulated by HIF-2 α via oxygenindependent mechanisms (49, 50). In addition, VEGF-VEGFR2 downstream signaling implicated in loosening of tight junctions between endothelial cells such as VE-Cadherin and ZO-1 (50, 51). Among many others, alpha smooth muscle actin (α -SMA) is a pericyte marker (52). Importantly, pericyte coverage of tumor vessels has been accepted as a prognostic factor in colorectal cancer (53). Yonenaga et al. investigated that vessel maturation is as important as vascular density. Beyond that, immature vascularization was associated with distant metastasis. Given this background, we stained tumor sections with fluorescence conjugated α -SMA and CD-146 antibodies to further our understanding of vascular maturity. Strikingly, we found that α -SMA and CD-146 staining merged in PHD2^{+/-} endothelial cells obtained from YUMMER 1.7

tumor bearing mice but not in WT mice (Figure 4.3). Although there existed controversial knowledge pertaining to the implication of CD-146 expression on endothelial cells, this finding confirmed our initial hypothesis that PHD2 haplodeficiency enhanced endothelial cell integrity and maturation. In contrast to our finding, Jiang et al. highlighted that CD-146 plays a crucial role in angiogenesis in the context of tumor progression through binding to VEGFR-2 (54). However, growing body of literature demonstrated that CD-146 plays a key role in pericyte recruitment (55, 56). Yan et al. (57) recently highlighted that CD-146 binds to VEGF-C to control lymphangiogenesis. It has not been elucidated yet that whether PHD2^{+/-} endothelial cells show lymphatic or blood vessel features in tumor microenvironment. Further studies are warranted to shed light on how PHD2^{+/-} shapes the formation of conduits which may have an implication in lymphocyte infiltration. Given the misalignment of endothelial cells in the context of tumorigenesis, oxygen supply impaired. Vessel integrity and maturation is not only critical for adequate oxygen and nutrient supply to the tissues but also impacted extravasation of cancer cells and immune cells. It has been previously showed that improved endothelial cell alignment was associated with diminished tumor metastasis and enhanced drug delivery (58).

First anti-angiogenic therapy utilized by oncologists in 2004 upon receiving an approval by FDA for treatment-naive metastatic colorectal cancer in combination with chemotherapy (59). However, growing body of research suggested that anti-angiogenic treatments yielded a clinical benefit only for a limited window period which then was termed as normalization window (39, 60, 61). Blood vessel normalization typically begins within 1-2 days of starting anti-angiogenic treatment and lasts for 7-10 day. Beyond this window, VEGF blockades might increase tumor hypoxia, resulting in vessel sprouting (62). Above-mentioned studies have suggested that efficacy of anti-angiogenic treatments depended on scheduling and dosing that help normalize blood vessels rather than completely destroying angiogenesis (61). In parallel to this concept, *Zhou et al* (63) highlighted that lower than therapeutic dose of sunitinib in combination with temozolomide synergized to combat intractable brain tumors.

Anti-VEGF treatment may potentiate cancer immunotherapy by administering lower "vascular normalizing" doses of anti-angiogenic agents. PHD2 haplodeficiency normalized tumor blood vessels, thereby increasing PVC coverage and perfusion which lead to enhanced anti-tumor T cell infiltration. Together, these findings demonstrate that vessel normalization mediates improved immune cell infiltration and functionality. Lower "vascular normalizing" doses of anti-angiogenic treatment (10 or 20 mg/kg given every three days) redirect the TME from immunosuppressive to immunopermissive and potentiate the anti-cancer immunotherapy. Abnormal vasculature restrains anti-tumor T cell infiltration into tumor. In order to delineate the role of vascular normalization in T cell infiltration, extravasation experiment could be performed.

Hypoxia is a well-known aspect of solid tumors. It has been linked to poorer prognosis in majority of patients with solid tumors (64, 65). Although hypoxia has been extensively studied thus far by comparing the impact of 21% oxygen and 5-0.5% oxygen levels in vitro, tissue oxygenation in a living organism is far more complicated. Tissue oxygenation varies depending on the metabolic need and localization of the organ system. For instance, under normal circumstances, the epidermis of the skin has a partial oxygen pressure varying from 10% to 0.5% (66). It has been demonstrated that supplementary oxygenation of mice with aggressive form of lung cancer suggested that anti-tumor immune response was heightened when tumor hypoxia was disrupted (67). However, it remains to be determined how breathing 60% of oxygen influences tissue homeostasis throughout the body. Using a welldefined mouse model to reduce hypoxia and normalization of endothelial cell alignment, we were able to demonstrate that hypoxia reduction mounts anti-tumor immunity and slows tumor progression. Immune infiltration is one of the essential elements of desirable immunotherapy outcome. The Immunoscore developed by Galon et al (68) in 2006 proposed to classify tumors according to immune cell density (high vs low) and localization (tumor core vs margin) (69). Based on the immune infiltration, tumors are divided into 3 categories. These are immunologically cold, altered, and hot tumors (70). Immunologically cold tumor describes poor anti-tumor immune infiltration. It has been linked to poor clinical outcome in vast majority of tumor types including melanoma (71, 72). Therefore, among many others, improving anti-tumor immune cell infiltration is one alternative approach to improve immunotherapy outcome which greatly varies between patients. Herein, we demonstrated that spatial distribution of tumor infiltrating immune cells is not homogenous.

In order to visualize CD4+ and CD8+ T cells along with in vivo hypoxia imaging, we utilized a well-established hypoxia probe (i.e hypoxyprobe) (73, 74). Ragnum et al. (75) exploited the same method to measure hypoxia levels of prostate cancers in humans. They were able to demonstrate that hypoxia levels of human prostate cancers were correlated with Gleason score, clinical stage, and lymph node metastasis. Participants of the study did not exhibit any adverse effects following to intravenous pimonidazole injection 20 minutes prior to the surgery. Increasing number of studies utilizing the methods such as pimonidazole staining, blood oxygen level-dependent imaging (BOLD-MRI) or PET with ¹⁸F-labelled nitroimidazole would encourage clinicians to assess in situ oxygenation of tissues (75-77). Our research highlighted that hypoxic zones within tumors lack tumor-reactive CD8+ T cells (Figure **4.4**). Although intrinsic effect of master transcription factor of hypoxia (HIF-1 α) and hypoxic exclusion of CD8+ T cells remain controversial, our study showed that CD8+ and CD4+ T cells preferentially did not enter into poorly perfused tumor regions in accordance with the study led by Hatfield et al. (67). Nevertheless, some research groups showed that in vitro cultured CD8+ T cells under normoxic and hypoxic conditions exhibited similar distribution velocity into established B16 tumors (78). Their observation, however, also confirmed that both hypoxic or normoxic CD8+ T cells accumulated around perivascular tumor regions. It has been well established that in vitro hypoxia did not completely mimic in vivo hypoxia (20). Therefore, hypoxia researchers should vigilantly interrogate the results regarding the experimental settings (79). In other studies, researchers investigated that hyperoxic breathing (i.e 60% oxygen) reduced tumor burden and distant metastasis in an NK cell dependent manner. Intriguingly, they demonstrated that hyperoxia influenced

CD4+ and CD8+ T cell infiltration differentially. Although our imaging data regarding differential infiltration of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in hypoxic regions in WT mice demonstrated a moderate difference between CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, enhanced CD8+ T cell infiltration in normoxic region was more robust than enhanced CD4+ T cell infiltration in PHD2 haplodeficient mice. Of note, FoxP3+ CD4+ T cells could make up a large proportion of hypoxic CD4+ T cells due to recruitment of Treg cells via hypoxia-induced CCL28 expression (80). Hence, further studies to elucidate what type of CD4 T cells are able to infiltrate in hypoxic zones of tumors are warranted. It would be a potential area of research that which cytokines and chemokines mediate improved CD8+ T cell infiltration in normoxic tumor regions. Prior studies demonstrated that CD8+ T cell recruitment was not solely dependent on chemokine and cytokine receptor-ligand interactions in the milieu. In fact, certain metabolites can contribute for the impediment to CD8+T cell infiltration in hypoxic tumor regions (81, 82). For instance, oxygen shortage skews cellular metabolism towards glycolytic metabolism. Resultant accumulation of lactate may restrict T cell proliferation as shown in a prior study led by Angelin et al (83). Furthermore, Angelin et al. were able to demonstrate that lactate-rich environments induce FoxP3+ Treg differentiation. More importantly, this inhibitory effect of lactate on effector CD4+ T cell differentiation was reversed by lactate dehydrogenase inhibition. Contrary to this study, Dang et al demonstrated that HIF-1 α controls cellular fate of Th17 and Treg cells. According to their study, HIF-1 α skews Treg differentiation towards Th17 through degradation of FoxP3 protein and activation of RORyt (84). In a nutshell, further studies are warranted to delineate what factors mediate improved T cell infiltration within normoxic tumor regions. It could be chemokine, cytokine, and/or some other metabolites. In order to analyze metabolites, tumor interstitial fluid could be collected from harvested tumor tissues and be analyzed by mass spectrometry.

Having investigated that CD8+ T cells excluded from hypoxic tumor regions we sought to determine CD4+ and CD8+ T cell density in tumors with improved tissue oxygenation via PHD2 haplodeficiency. In consistent with the above-mentioned findings, we were able to demonstrate that vessel normalization and resultant mitigation of tumor hypoxia in PHD2^{+/-} mice significantly improved CD8+ T cell infiltration (**Figure 4.5**). However, CD4+ T cell infiltration increased to some extent due to a great variability of CD4+ T cell infiltration in WT mice. With keeping in mind this variation, our finding suggested that improved oxygenation via PHD2^{+/-} preferentially promotes CD8+ T cell infiltration. Consistently, *Hatfield et al.* (67) drawn the conclusion that CD4+ and CD8+ T cells differentially affected by hypoxia.

After demonstrating enhanced T cell infiltration in PHD2 haplodeficient mice by imaging, we next monitored the tumor growth. Our study highlighted that, in parallel to improved T cell infiltration, tumor burden in PHD2^{+/-} mice bearing YUMMER 1.7 melanoma tumors was significantly reduced (Figure 4.6). Not surprisingly, in vivo CD4 and CD8 T cell depletion abrogated this effect of PHD2^{+/-}. In conclusion, PHD2 haplodeficiency delayed tumor growth in a T cell dependent manner. Nevertheless, it has been previously investigated that PHD2^{+/-} inhibits tumor metastasis but not tumor growth in LLC, B16, and PancO2 tumor models (5). These tumor models were best known for their poor immunogenicity which is determined by weak immunotherapy response (85, 86). Therefore, PHD2^{+/-} mediated delayed tumor growth seems to be tumor model dependent. In addition to highly immunogenic YUMMER 1.7 melanoma model, subcutaneously injected mouse MC38 colon adenocarcinoma and B16-GP33 melanoma cells in WT and PHD2^{+/-} mice confirmed delayed tumor growth by PHD2 haplodeficiency (not shown). We attributed the difference between tumor growth findings to highly immunogenic aspects of MC38, B16-GP33, and YUMMER 1.7 models (6, 28, 86-88). B16-GP33 cells express the LCMV glycoprotein peptide gp33. B16-GP33 cells are recognized by P14 TCR-Tg CD8+ T cells (89). We next sought to measure tumor infiltrating T cell density. Our measurement of T cell density, total T cell number divided by tumor weight, showed that both CD4 and CD8 T cell density was increased by PHD2 haplodeficiency (Figure 4.7). Our flow cytometric analysis and imaging data were consistent.

We then characterized CD8 T cell surface markers. To our surprise, we could not detect any difference pertaining to expression of exhaustion markers such as PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39 (**Figure 4.8**). It has been recently acknowledged that PD-1 expression was rapidly upregulated when naïve CD8 T cells were activated by lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) infection (90). CD39 expression on TILs has been correlated to chronic antigenic stimulation and bystander T cells (91). As opposed to tumor specific CD8+ T cells, bystander CD8+ T cells were not activated by tumor specific antigens. On the other hand, Canale et al. (92) demonstrated that CD39 is an exhaustion marker and could be targeted to potentiate immunotherapy response. Although there are controversial studies regarding hypoxia and T cell effector functions, *Doedens et al* (93) showed that Von Hippel Lindau (VHL) deficient CD8 T cells had elevated HIF-1a and, in turn, enhanced effector CD8+ T cell function. Therefore, bone marrow chimera experiment could shed light on this controversy by ruling out intrinsic effect of Phd2 haplodeficiency. However, sustained HIF-1 α expression was also associated with increased PD-1, Lag-3, CTLA-4, and TIM-3 expression on CD8+ T cells. In accordance with this study, Gropper et al (78) highlighted that CD8+ T cells cultured under hypoxic conditions (eg, 1% oxygen) had more cytotoxic potential (eg, improved granzyme B and perforin production) than CTLs cultured under normoxic conditions (eg, 20% oxygen). *Clever et al.* (94) further confirmed that expression of PHD proteins promoted CTL tolerance and their inhibition enhanced anti-tumor immune response. They highlighted that PHD proteins compromise IFNg-mediated tumor regression. Although we cannot rule out intrinsic effect of PHD2 deficiency on CD8+ T cells, we initially hypothesized that reduced tumor burden in PHD2^{+/-} mice could be related to reduced PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, or CD39 expression. However, it could be counterbalanced by increased HIF-1 α expression on CD8 T cells due to PHD2 haplodeficiency.

After showing that true exhaustion state of CD8+ T cells in PHD2^{+/-} and WT mice could not be determined by surface markers due to possible intrinsic effect of PHD2 haplodeficiency on CD8 T cells, we next analyzed IFN γ and TNF- α production. Contrary to surface markers, functional analysis of TILs (eg, IFN γ and TNF- α production) more accurately defined exhausted and less exhausted cells. As expected, less hypoxic CD8 T cells in PHD2^{+/-} mice exhibited significantly improved IFN γ and TNF- α production (**Figure 4.9**) Interestingly, *Clever et al.* (94) showed that

PHD proteins (1-2-3) limited IFN γ production of CD4 and CD8 T cells, thereby contributing to respiratory tolerance. However, Treg frequency did not differ in CD4 Cre^{+/-} Egln1^{fl/fl} Egln2^{fl/fl} Egln3^{fl/fl} and WT mice. Even though this finding confirmed that triple PHD deficiency did not have an intrinsic effect on Treg induction, PHD deficiency of CD4+ T cells promoted IFN γ production of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. Paracrine effect on CD8+ T cells could have been originated from diminished Th2 differentiation of CD4+ T cells due to triple PHD deficiency. Although *Clever et al.* knocked out all three isoforms of PHD proteins, we cannot exclude the possibility that PHD2 haplodeficiency on CD4+ and CD8+ T cells contributed to our findings. Further experiments should focus on ruling out of intrinsic effect of PHD2 deficiency.

Besides CD8 T cells, macrophages play a magnificent role in tumor clearance and tumor growth (10). Our study demonstrated that tumor-promoting macrophages (M2-like) preferentially infiltrated into poorly oxygenated tumor regions in agreement with prior investigations (**Figure 4.10**) (8, 95, 96). Therefore, disruption of hypoxia through blood vessel normalization diminishes M2-like macrophage frequency and, in turn, possibly improves the infiltration of tumor-reactive CD8+ T cell within tumors. It has been previously shown that hypoxia regulates macrophage phenotypes (95). M2-like macrophages retain in hypoxic tumor regions. Consequently, mitigation of hypoxia via PHD2^{+/-} restricts M2-like macrophage infiltration within tumors. Beyond that, PD-L1 expression on F4/80⁺ macrophages which indicates their suppression capacity was impaired in response to diminished hypoxia (**Figure 4.11**).

In conclusion, mitigation of hypoxia sculpts tumor microenvironment through improved CD4+ and CD8+ T cell infiltration, greater TNF- α and IFN- γ production, and impaired M2-like macrophage infiltration. However, we could not detect differential expression of exhaustion markers (eg, PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39). We speculated that these markers would be upregulated upon T cell activation, in turn, do not necessarily show "true" exhaustion. Further investigation will explore whether or not improved T cell influx occurs due to diminished M2-like macrophage infiltration. On the other hand, extravasation of T cells depends on the expression of selectins and integrins on endothelial cells, which needs to be further dissected. Single cell RNA sequencing should be performed to gain an insight what genes of TILs are regulated by normalized tumor vasculature and resultant diminished hypoxia. A previous study demonstrated that hypoxia genes of melanoma patients who are irresponsive to anti-PD1 therapy were enriched. These findings support of hypoxia mitigation helps improve anti-tumor immune response. Therefore, clinical trials are warranted to confirm our promising data.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND REMARKS

- PHD2 haplodeficiency helps normalize endothelial cell alignment. PHD2 haplodeficient blood vessels are more elongated than WT. Moreover, integrity of blood vessels in PHD2^{+/-} mice is enhanced.
- 2. CD4 and CD8 T cells in melanoma TME preferentially infiltrate in normoxic tumor regions.
- Mitigation of hypoxia via PHD2^{+/-} improves CD4 and CD8 T cell density in melanoma tumors.
- 4. Expression of PD-1, Lag-3, CD38, and CD39 are not changed with improved oxygenation.
- 5. IFNg production of CD8 T cells is significantly improved in PHD2^{+/-} mice.
- Pro-inflammatory macrophage infiltration strikingly enhanced by PHD2^{+/-} haplodeficiency.
- Pro-tumorigenic M2-like macrophages make a large proportion of tumor infiltrating macrophages and PHD2^{+/-} slightly mitigate F4/80⁺ M2-like macrophage infiltration.
- Although there is a slight decrease in the percentage of M2-like macrophages,
 PD-L1 expression on M2-like macrophages is significantly diminished by PHD2^{+/-.}
- Single cell RNA sequencing should be performed to gain an insight what genes of TILs are regulated by normalized tumor vasculature and resultant diminished hypoxia.
- 10. Further studies are warranted to delineate what factors mediate improved T cell infiltration within normoxic tumor regions.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX-1: Ethical approval for Thesis Studies



Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

Salk Institute for Biological Studies 10010 N Torrey Pines Rd La Jolla, California 92037 PH (658) 433-4100 x1591 FX (858) 824-1962 www.salk.edu

TO:	Susan Kaech
FROM:	Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)
DATE:	Mar 16, 2018
SUBJECT:	ADMINISTRATIVE AMENDMENT APPROVAL Protocol Number: 17-00032 Protocol Title: Mechansims of T cell function during viral and bacterial infection and in cancer
	Species Information: Mice Approval Period: Feb 07, 2018 - Feb 07, 2021
Protocol Fun	ding: (Funding Agency, Fund Title, Grant Number)
Added: NIH, CA216101	

Note: To delete funding, please send an email request to <u>iacucadmin@salk.edu</u>.

Personnel Changes:	
Personnel Added	
Added: Victoria Tripple, Dan Chen, Ruveyda Ayasun	
Note: To delete personnel, please send an email request to <u>iacucadmin@salk.edu</u> .	
Your Animal Use Protocol Amendment requesting change of funding or personnel has	

Your Animal Use **Protocol Amendment** requesting change of funding or personnel has been reviewed and approved administratively by the IACUC office staff.

The Grants Administration Office will be responsible for providing the documentation of IACUC approval to the funding agency.

cc: Grants Administration
APPENDIX-2: Thesis Originality Report

TO EXAMINE THE ROLE OF HYPOXIA ON ANTI-TUMOUR IMMUNITY

ORIJINALLIK RAPORU				
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APPENDIX-3: Digital Receipt

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Dosya adı:	To_Examine_the_Role_of_Hypoxia_on_Anti-tumour_Immunity
Dosya boyutu:	47.63M
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