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Histopathological biomarkers for predicting the tumour accumulation of nanomedicines

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Supplementary Fig. 1 | Tumour accumulation of PHPMA nanocarriers over time. CT-FLT imaging was employed to kinetically monitor the tumour accumulation of 67 kDa-sized DY750-labeled PHPMA in individual animals in three different tumour models. The results show that polymer accumulation in A431 tumours plateaued from 24 h onwards, while in MLS and CT26 tumours, the concentrations of the nanocarrier still slightly increased from 24 to 72 h post i.v. injection.

Spleen Liver Heart Muscle Bladder Skin Kidneys Lung Stomach GI Tumour

Supplementary Fig. 2 | Ex vivo analysis of PHPMA biodistribution. a, Fluorescence reflectance imaging (FRI) analysis displaying the biodistribution and tumour accumulation of 67 kDa DY750-labeled PHPMA in 3 different tumour models at 72 h post i.v. injection. **b**, Fluorescence signal analysis for tumours and organs, demonstrating efficient tumour vs. organ targeting as well as differential tumour accumulation in A431, MLS and CT26 tumours.

Supplementary Fig. 3 | Tumour microenvironment characterization and correlation with nanocarrier accumulation. a, d, g, Immunofluorescence stainings for collagen I (Col I), collagen IV (Col IV) and nuclei (DAPI) in A431, MLS and CT26 tumours. **b, e, h**, Quantification of the immunofluorescence images. Black bars indicate means. **c, f, i**, Correlation of polymeric nanocarrier tumour accumulation at 72 h post i.v. injection with tumour tissue biomarker features. Trendlines are shown per tumour model (colour-coded) and for all tumours together (black). R² values indicate the coefficient of determination and reflect the goodness of fit. **j-n**, Evaluation of additional biomarker features relying on double-staining with tumour blood vessels (CD31). Plotted are the percentages of lectin+, α SMA+, VEGFR2+, Col I+ and Col IV+ vessels in the three tumour models employed. All indicated p values are based on Student's t-test.

Supplementary Fig. 4 | Correlation of CD31 and F4/80 area fraction with liposome tumour accumulation. a, b, In addition to vessel and macrophage number, also the area fraction of CD31- and F4/80-positive structures were quantified in the DAB stainings of the 10 tumour models. Black bars indicate means. **c, d**, Correlation of CD31 and F4/80 area fraction with the tumour accumulation of liposomal doxorubicin over time (AUC_{0-120}) . Note that E35CR is an outlier, and that overall, there is a decent correlation between blood vessel and macrophage density and liposomal doxorubicin accumulation.

Supplementary Fig. 5 | Nanocarrier tumour accumulation in immune-competent mouse models. a, 4T1 tumour-bearing BALC/c mice were injected with PHPMA polymers and tumour accumulation was plotted against the product score of tumour blood vessels and TAM. **b-c**, Hep-55.1C tumour cells were inoculated subcutaneously (**b**) or orthotopically (**c**) in immune-competent C57BL/6J mice, and the tumour accumulation of PEGylated liposomes was plotted against the product score of tumour blood vessels and TAM. In all three syngeneic tumour models in immune-competent mice, a good correlation was observed between our biomarker product score and nanomedicine tumour accumulation.

Supplementary Fig. 6 | Co-staining of tumour-associated macrophages with F4/80 and CD68 antibodies. a, Fluorescence microscopy analysis of A431, MLS, and CT26 tumours in which TAM were costained for F4/80 and CD68. Scale bars indicate 50 μ m. **b-d**, The number of cells positive for F4/80, for CD68 and double-positive for both F4/80 and CD68 were counted per field of view. Values represent the average of n=5 different fields of view for each individual tumour. The images and quantification show that there is high congruence between F4/80 and CD68 staining.

Supplementary Fig. 7 | Comparison of biomarker assessment and product score performance in resected tumour tissue specimens vs. primary tumour biopsies. a-d, Product score performance in tumour resections. Data is replotted from main manuscript Fig. 7c-f, but now normalized to an area of 1 cm². Blood vessel counts are shown in panel (**a**) TAM counts in (**b**) liposome tumour accumulation in (**c**) (from Harrington et al. [24]), and CD31 and CD68 product scores versus liposome accumulation in (**d**). **e-f**, Quantification of blood vessel (**e**) and TAM (**f**) counts in corresponding tumour biopsies from the same patients. **g**, Means of CD31 and CD68 product scores in biopsies plotted against the means of liposome tumour targeting, exemplifying that also in biopsies, poorly accumulating tumours can be identified using biomarker assessment. Error bars indicate the distribution of product scores and tumour accumulation values (minima and maxima on the y-axis, standard deviations on the x-axis; indicated p values are based on Student's t-test).

Supplementary Fig. 8 | Tumour growth of preclinical tumour models. a-f, Tumour volume calculations are based on caliper measurements or on CT imaging (**e,f**).

Supplementary Table 1 | Overview of tumour tissue biomarkers.

Supplementary Table 2 | Time post-implantation required for tumours to reach experimental size.

Supplementary Table 3 | Details of preclinical tumour models.

Supplementary Table 4 | List of antibodies.

Primary antibodies

Secondary antibodies

Supplementary Table 5 | Details of patient tumour samples.

Supplementary methods

Gradient tree boosting

GTB is a supervised machine learning technique building predictive regression models based on a set of decision trees (1-3). Every decision tree is established as a chain of simple comparisons with a binary outcome. The ensemble is trained in an additive manner, i.e., every newly added decision tree corrects the results of the previous present decision trees. GTB accepts arbitrary input features and intrinsically handles partially missing data during training and prediction (4). Important hyperparameters of GTB models, i.e., parameters set before the model training, are the maximum depth, the number of decision trees, and the learning rate (5). The maximum depth denotes the maximum number of comparisons within a single decision tree. The learning rate is only essential during model training and weights the influence of the previous ensemble when adding the following decision tree. Trained GTB models allow insights into their prediction process as the individual decision trees can be easily followed and the used features are recognizable. This allows extracting the feature importance by calculating the distribution and occurrence of the features in the comparisons, measuring the relevance of every individual input feature for the whole GTB ensemble.

Python environment

The code is available on request and should run on all standard operating systems but was developed on a computer with an Intel processor and Windows 10. The usual runtime is in the range of 2-10 min. For gradient tree boosting, a typical Python environment can be used (e.g., pip or Conda; here, Conda was used). The Conda-env is given in *env.txt* and should be installed in 10-15 minutes. Especially the XGBoost library version 1.4.2 was used.

Training and analysis procedure

The training and analysis consisted of two parts: First, a suitable set of hyperparameters was selected based on a grid search. Secondly, we identified the most relevant input features based on the feature importance (method "gain") and conducted an iterative feature reduction scheme.

In the first step, all available data was separated into training, validation, and test data sets (ratio 70:15:15). Then, a hyperparameter search for the maximum depth, number of decision trees as well as the learning rate was performed in the following ranges:

- Maximum depths: $\{3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$
- Number of decision trees: {10, 30, 50, 100}
- Learning rates: ${0.1, 0.3}$

The trained GTB models were tested for the $R²$ and the mean absolute error, while the best suitable hyperparameters were selected based on the $R²$. We chose the following hyperparameters set for the later model training, providing a well-predictive performance while keeping the models comparable small:

- Maximum depth: 8
- Number of decision tree: 10
- Learning rate: 0.1

All other hyperparameters were set to their default values. An overview as well as an explanation can be found in the official XGBoost documentation for the used library version 1.4.2. (6). These settings fully define the hyperparameter set of the employed GTB implementation.

In the second step, we analyzed the importance of the individual input features. The found hyperparameter set was fixed for further analysis. We chose a leave-one-out approach during model training and testing to ensure the best available database while separating training and test data. Thus, model training and evaluation were repeated for all available samples in the data set. After all GTB models were established required to ensure predicting the accumulation of all available samples, the feature importance of this model set was averaged and sorted. These results are shown and discussed in the main paper. In addition, we identified the least important feature, discarded it from the data set, and iteratively repeated this analysis. The listing of this "feature elimination" was consistent with the classical feature importance and thus not further discussed in the main work. As an advantage, feature elimination reduces the dimensionality of the feature space and allows testing for the models' stability for these reduced data sets. Thus, the analysis can provide hints for simplified application schemes acquiring only a subset of the discussed features.

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