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1 **Hydrogel-immobilized nanotherapeutics: inhibition of protective autophagy to amplify**
2 **STING for postsurgical tumor immunotherapy**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Activating the inherent stimulator of Active Ingredient gene (STING) pathway of cancer
20 cells can inhibit tumor growth but can also induce protective autophagy of tumor cells to
21 inhibit the STING-mediated immunotherapy. Therefore, amplification of STING activation
22 and inhibition of autophagy could potentiate the cancer immunotherapy. Here,
23 hydrogel-immobilized nanoparticles loaded with glucose oxidase (GOx),
24 manganese ions (Mn^{2+}) and Active Ingredient (HCQ) are prepared at the postsurgical
25 site to enhance cancer therapy *via* activating the STING pathway and regulating the
26 autophagy pathway. The delivered GOx and Mn^{2+} exert a chemo-dynamic therapy (CDT) to
27 induce dsDNA damage, which can further initiate the STING pathway. HCQ can effectively
28 inhibit protective autophagy associated with STING pathway activation, further amplify the
29 antitumor immune responses. The synergistic delivery of CDT agents (*i.e.*, GOx and Mn^{2+}
30 ⁺), STING agonists (*i.e.*, Mn^{2+}) and autophagy inhibitors (*i.e.*, HCQ) results in a
31 specific immune response, significantly inhibit tumor recurrence and metastatic tumor
32 growth, which could extend the survival rate of mice suffered from the triple-negative breast
cancer (TNBC).

33

34

35 **Keywords:** chemodynamic therapy, autophagy inhibition, STING pathway, tumor
immunotherapy, tumor recurrence

36

37 1. Introduction

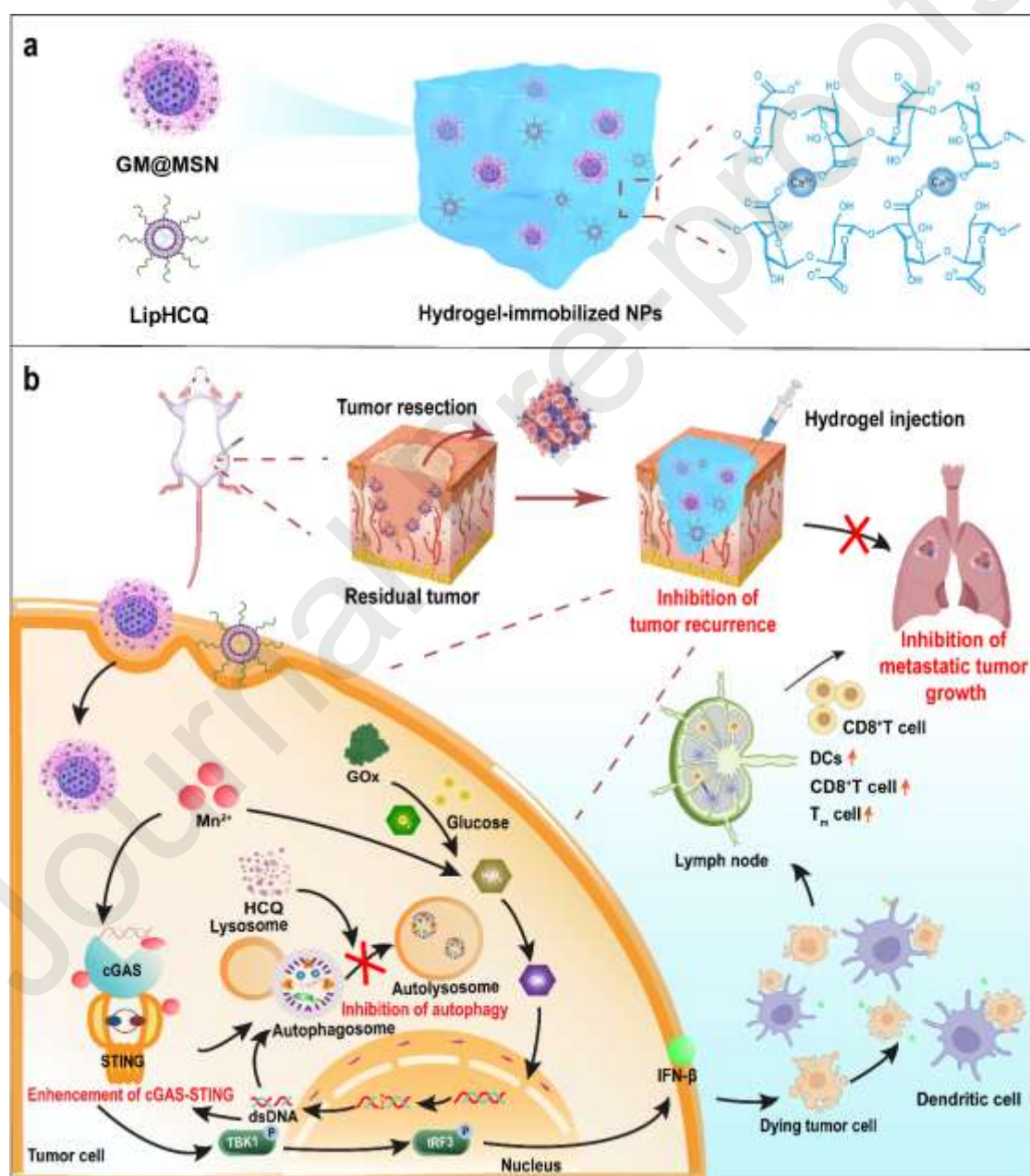
38 Surgical resection is the main clinical treatment strategy for tumor therapy (*e.g.*, triple-
39 negative breast cancer, TNBC) while it faces the challenges of recurrence and metastasis.[1,
40 2]Regarding tumor recurrence and metastasis, chemotherapy and radiotherapy are the most
41 commonly used methods, but these methods are often useless in suppressing the growth of
42 distant metastases and are usually associated with severe side effects or damage to the immune
43 system.[3-7] Immunotherapy that relies on the host's own immune system to trigger anticancer
44 immune responses has received widespread attention.[8-11] However, insufficient
45 postoperative infiltration of proinflammatory immune cells and a suppressed "cold" tumors
46 immune microenvironment limit the application of immunotherapy.[10, 12-15] Therefore,
47 transforming immune "cold" tumors into immune "hot" tumors and ameliorating the inhibitory
48 tumor microenvironment (TME) are the keys to enhancing the anti-tumor immune responses
49 and inhibiting of recurrent metastases after surgery for TNBC.[16]

50 Activating the stimulator of Active Ingredient gene (STING) pathway can not only
51 induce immune response in antiviral and antibacterial therapy but also in antitumor therapy, as
52 well as in reversing the tumor-suppressive microenvironment, *i.e.*, converting "cold" tumors to
53 "hot" tumors.[17-21] For example, cyclic GMP-AMP synthase (cGAS) in tumor cells senses
54 intracellular damaged DNA, activates STING pathway and upregulates type I Active
55 Ingredients (IFN- β), which subsequently reverse the TME by promoting the maturation of
56 dendritic cells (DCs) and recruiting CD8⁺ T cells to improve immunotherapy efficacy.[22,23]
57 Recent studies have demonstrated that Mn²⁺ can effectively enhance the sensitivity of cGAS to
58 dsDNA and amplify the activation of the STING pathway.[24-27] In addition, the binding of
59 Mn²⁺ enhances the binding affinity of STING and cGAMP, which hyperactivates STING
60 pathway in respond to cytosolic DNA. [28]

61 Meanwhile, in response to the activation of the STING signaling pathway, tumor cells also
62 trigger their internal protective autophagy. [29,30] As a conserved cellular protection
63 mechanism, autophagy maintains homeostasis by sequestering cytoplasmic components in
64 autophagosomes and delivering them to lysosomes for degradation and recycling into metabolic
65 substrates. In addition, autophagy clears damaged dsDNA induced by oxidative stress, which
66 may attenuate downstream chaining effects such as STING. [31-35] Autophagy negatively
67 regulates the STING pathway, which acts as a "brake" signal on STING to avoid excessive
68 immunity.[36] Inspired by this, inhibiting autophagy can amplify the activation of the STING
69 pathway and improve tumor immunotherapy.

70 Herein, we report the engineering of hydrogel-immobilized nanoparticles (NPs) to deliver
71 Mn²⁺, glucose oxidase (GOx) and the autophagy inhibitor of Active Ingredient (HCQ) to the
72 postsurgical site for the prevention of TNBC recurrence and inhibition of metastatic tumor
73 growth. GOx is encapsulated into mesoporous silica NPs, followed by coating with metal-
74 phenolic networks (MPNs) of tannic acid and Mn²⁺ (GM@MSN) while HCQ is loaded into
75 liposomes (LipHCQ), both of which are immobilized by hydrogels (H/GM@Gel) (**Scheme 1a**).
76 Mn²⁺ released from the delivery system can activate the STING pathway. Meanwhile,
77 intracellular glucose is oxidized by the delivered GOx to generate H₂O₂, which is further

78 converted to the toxic $\bullet\text{OH}$ in the presence of Mn^{2+} . [37] The produced $\bullet\text{OH}$ can not only exert
 79 a chemodynamic therapy (CDT) effect, but also induce immunogenic cell death (ICD), which
 80 effectively releases tumor antigens and helps to activate specific antitumor immunity.[38] In
 81 addition, DNA damage caused by CDT can further activate the STING pathway, which induces
 82 DC maturation and stimulates an increase in $\text{IFN-}\beta$ secretion to recruit more effector T cells
 83 into the TME. [28,39] Importantly, HCQ inhibits the protective autophagy generated by
 84 activating the STING pathway, which relieves the “brake” signal of autophagy and improves
 85 the immunotherapy effect (**Scheme 1b**). This work highlights the regulation of the STING
 86 pathway and autophagy pathway to enhance antitumor immunity, which could improve tumor
 87 immune microenvironments against tumor recurrence and metastatic tumor growth.



88

89 **Scheme 1.** Schematic synthesis of hydrogel-immobilized NPs and their biological functions. a)
90 Fabrication of hydrogel-immobilized NPs loaded with therapeutics. b) Application of hydrogel-
91 immobilized NPs for activating the STING pathway against TNBC tumor recurrence and
92 metastatic tumor growth. After cellular uptake of GM@MSN and LipHCQ, glucose is
93 converted into gluconic acid and H₂O₂ by GOx. Subsequently, the increased H₂O₂ is converted
94 to •OH in the presence of Mn²⁺. Meanwhile, CDT-enhanced Mn²⁺ activates the STING pathway
95 with HCQ-inhibited autophagy due to STING activation, which leads to IFN-β released and
96 further promotes DC maturation to induce potent antitumor immunity.

97 2. Materials and methods

98 2.1. Preparation of manganese-based NPs

99 *Preparation of MSN-NH₂.* MSN (110 nm, 130 mg) was dispersed with 3.9 mL of
100 anhydrous ethanol and washed with anhydrous ethanol three times. Subsequently, 216 μL of
101 NH₃·H₂O and 130 μL of 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES) were added to the suspension,
102 which was stirred for 12 h. The products were each washed with ethanol and water three times.
103 Finally, the MSN-NH₂ were distributed in water for further use.

104 *Preparation of GM@MSN.* For the encapsulation of GOx, MSN-NH₂ (20 mg) dispersion
105 was incubated with 1.2 mg of GOx for 6 h at 4 °C, followed by centrifugation to remove the
106 unencapsulated GOx. The obtained GOx-loaded MSNs (G@MSN) were dispersed in 20 mL of
107 water. Subsequently, 0.2 mL of TA (40 mg/mL), 0.2 mL of MnCl₂·4H₂O (7.3 mg/mL) and 20
108 mL of MOPS (20 mM, pH 7.4) were added sequentially to form the MPN coatings. MPNs
109 coated amineo group-functionalized MSN was set as the control group (M@MSN). Finally, the
110 GOx- and Mn²⁺-loaded MSN (GM@MSN) were incubated with BSA (1 mg/mL, 5 mL) to form
111 the BSA corona.

112 *Preparation of LipHCQ.* LipHCQ was prepared by a transmembrane ammonium sulfate
113 gradient method. In brief, HSPC (75 mg), Chol (25 mg), and DSPE-mPEG2000 (25 mg) were
114 dissolved in 10 mL of chloroform. A lipid film was formed by removing the solvent with a
115 rotary evaporator. Then, 10 mL of ammonium sulfate solution (0.3 M) was added for
116 rehydration and the liposomes were sequentially extruded through the high-pressure
117 microfluidizer (NanoGenizer-II, Genizer) four times at an operation pressure of 15000 psi. The
118 obtained liposomes were dialyzed with PBS buffer (10 mM) for 24 h and incubated with 15 mg
119 of HCQ (60 °C) for 30 min, followed by centrifugation (50000 g 40 min, 4 °C) to remove the
120 free HCQ.

121 2.2. Fabrication of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs

122 Sodium alginate (ALG, 50 mg) was added into 5 mL water and stirred for 12 h to obtain a
123 clear solution. Then, GM@MSN together with LipHCQ (H/GM@MSN) were added to the
124 above alginate solution. The mixture was stirred vigorously for 2 h. Finally, the mixture was
125 injected into the postsurgical site to form the hydrogel-immobilized NPs which H/GM@MSN-
126 loaded hydrogel (H/GM@Gel) with endogenous Ca²⁺.

127 **2.3. Release and biocompatibility of the hydrogel *in vivo***

128 To investigate the *in vivo* release of NPs from the hydrogel, Cy5.5-labelled GM@MSN-
129 loaded hydrogel (GM@Gel) was applied to fabricate hydrogel-immobilized NPs in the
130 postsurgical site. Performed fluorescence imaging using the IVIS Spectrum imaging system
131 (PerkinElmer, USA) at the predetermined time points. Fluorescence (excitation of 675nm, and
132 emission of 694nm).

133 To assess the biosafety of hydrogels, skin and muscle tissues from the hydrogel injection
134 site was collected after 14 days for further H&E analysis.

135 **2.4. Cytotoxicity of therapeutics-loaded NPs**

136 *CCK-8 assay.* *In vitro* cytotoxicity was evaluated using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8)
137 assay of different NPs against 4T1 cells. 4T1 tumor cells (9×10^3 per well) were plated in 96-
138 well plates and incubated in a cell incubator for 24 h. LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN and
139 H/GM@MSN (equivalent GOx concentration of 0.391, 0.781, 1.563, 3.125 and 6.250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$;
140 equivalent Mn^{2+} concentration of 1.173, 2.343, 4.689, 9.375 and 18.750 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) were incubated
141 with cells for 24 h. Subsequently, cell viability was then assessed by adding CCK-8 solution to
142 each well. (absorbance at 450 nm).

143 *Live/dead assay.* 4T1 cells were seeded in 24-well plates at 1×10^5 cells/well and cultured
144 in a cell incubator for 12 h. After treatment with LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN and
145 H/GM@MSN (GOx, 0.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; Mn^{2+} , 1.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; HCQ, 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), Calcein-AM (2 μM) and
146 PI (4 μM) solutions were added to stain live cells and dead cells, respectively. Cells were
147 imaged by using a fluorescence microscope.

148 *Cell apoptosis.* 2×10^5 cells/well were plated into 6-well plates and cultured in a cell
149 incubator for 24 h. Subsequently, 4T1 cells were treated with LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN
150 and H/GM@MSN (GOx, 0.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; Mn^{2+} , 1.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; HCQ, 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) for 24 h. Cells were
151 digested with EDTA-free trypsin, centrifuged to discard the supernatant and collected, washed
152 twice with pre-cooled PBS, 100 μl of $1 \times$ Binding Buffer was added and gently blown to a
153 single-cell suspension. 5 μl Annexin V-FITC and 5 μl PI staining solution were added and
154 incubated at 25 °C for 10 min for staining. The stained samples were detected by flow cytometry
155 within 1 h.

156 **2.5. Monitoring of cellular autophagy**

157 Cells were inoculated in 6-well plates at a density of 3×10^5 cells/well. After 24 h,
158 incubation of cells with LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN and H/GM@MSN, respectively (GOx,
159 0.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; Mn^{2+} , 2.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) for 24 h. Then collecting cells with a spatula and fixed at 4 °C
160 for 1 h with an electron microscope fixative. After fixation, dehydration, sectioning, staining
161 and other operations, autophagosomes were observed by Bio-TEM.

162 **2.6. *In vivo* antitumor efficacy**

163 To verify the anti-recurrence and inhibit metastatic tumor growth effect of H/GM@Gel, a
164 postoperative breast tumor model was established. 90% of the primary tumor was resected when
165 the tumor volume reached approximately 100-150 mm³. Following surgery, mice were then
166 randomised into 5 groups and different hydrogel-immobilized NPs of 100 μL were injected into
167 the operation area, including PBS, LipHCQ@Gel (H@Gel), M@Gel, GM@Gel, H/GM@Gel
168 (GOx, 3 mg/kg; Mn²⁺, 1.2 mg/kg; HCQ, 10 mg/kg). Every 3 days, body weight and recurrent
169 tumor volume were measured and the tumor sizes were calculated according to the following
170 equation: volume (mm³) = 0.5×width² (mm²) × length (mm). On day 24, tumors were harvested
171 for further analysis. Specifically, H&E and immunohistochemically staining of tumor tissues
172 were used for investigate the necrosis and proliferation of tumor cells. It also included the
173 autophagy proteins expression of LC3 and p62 in tumor tissue. In addition,
174 immunofluorescence staining assay was used for further analysis of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells
175 and P-STING (Ser 366) proteins.

176 2.7. Lung metastatic analysis

177 To establish the metastatic lung tumor models, primary tumor model was constructed
178 using the method described above. At day 8, 4T1 cells (1×10⁵) were intravenously injected into
179 mice. After resection, mice were randomly divided into five groups for treatment as above.
180 After end of treatment, the survival curve and lung tissue pictures of mice were obtained. The
181 metastatic lesions in lungs were recorded and sectioned for H&E analysis.

182 2.8. Flow cytometry analysis

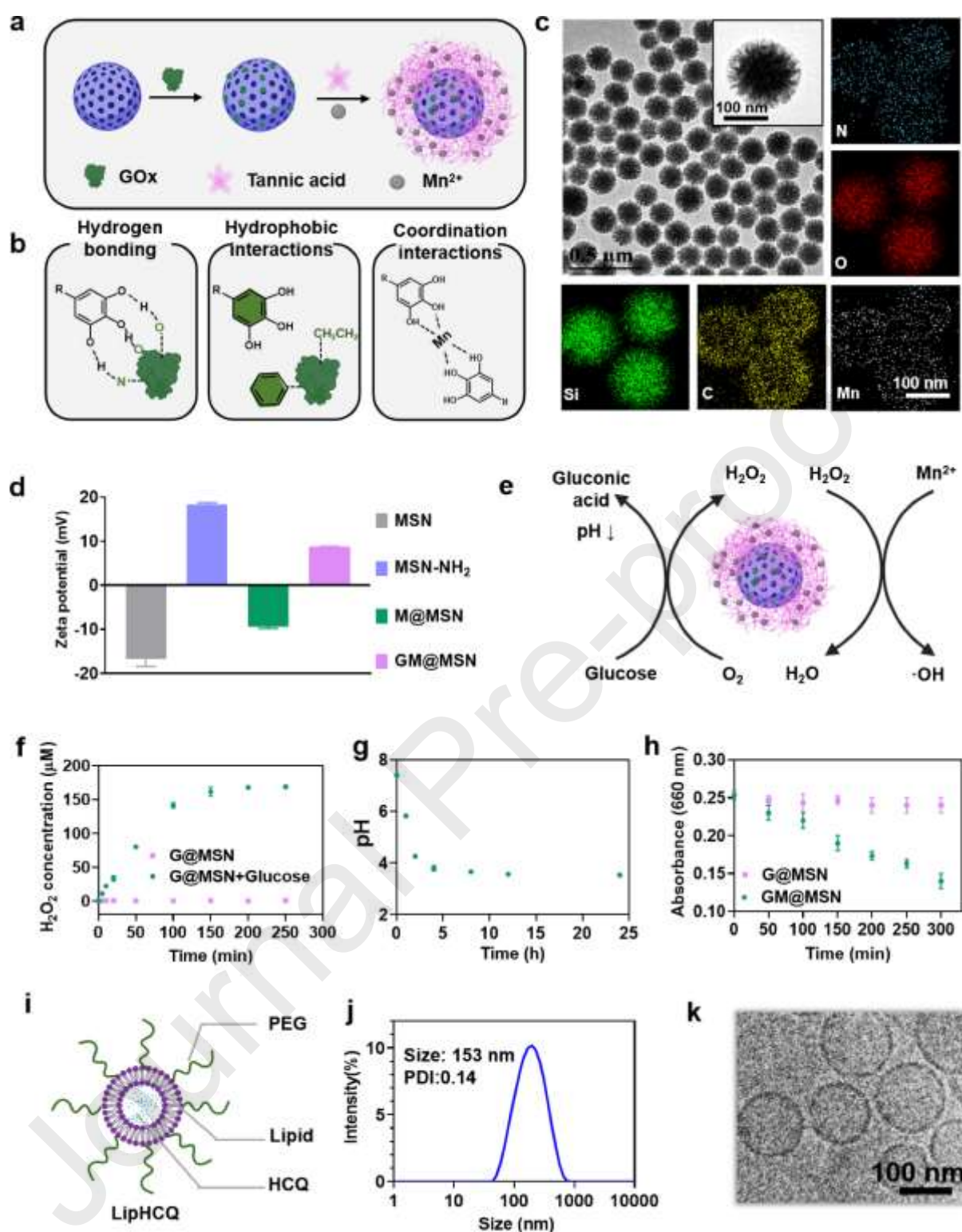
183 To evaluate the improvement of tumor immune microenvironment, inguinal lymph nodes
184 and the tumor tissues were collected to analyse the anti-tumor immune response using a FACS
185 Calibur flow cytometer. The tissues obtained were minced and homogenised into a single-cell
186 suspension using a 40 μm-cell strainer. After lysing erythrocytes, T cells were stained with
187 FITC-CD3ε, APC-CD4, PE-CD8, PE-Foxp3, PE/Cyanine7-CD25, APC-CD44, FITC-CD62L
188 antibodies. Cells were stained with APC-CD11c, FITC-CD80 and PE/Cyanine7-CD86
189 monoclonal antibodies to analyse DCs in tumor and lymph nodes. Meanwhile, FITC-CD45,
190 PE-CD11b, APC-Gr1 monoclonal antibodies were used for MDSC cells analysis.

191 2.9. Statistical analysis

192 The data were expressed as mean ± SD, and statistical comparisons between two groups
193 were conducted using unpaired Student's t-tests while three or more groups are conducted using
194 one-way ANOVA and Tukey multiple comparison tests. *P* values considered statistically
195 significant were less than 0.05 (**P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, *****P* < 0.0001). All
196 statistical analysis were carried out using GraphPad Prism (Version 6.01).

197 3. Results and discussion

198 3.1. Preparation and characterization of therapeutics-loaded NPs



199

200 **Figure 1.** Preparation and characterization of NPs. a) Schematic to illustrate how to prepare the
 201 following GM@MSN NP. b) Driving forces for the fabrication of GM@MSN, which include
 202 coordination interactions, hydrophobic interactions, and hydrogen bonds. c) TEM images and
 203 EDX mapping photographs of GM@MSN. d) Zeta potentials of MSN, MSN-NH₂, M@MSN,
 204 GM@MSN. e) Schematic diagram of GOx-catalyzed glucose and Fenton-like reactions. f)
 205 H₂O₂ concentration and g) pH changes during the catalytic reaction process. h) MB degradation

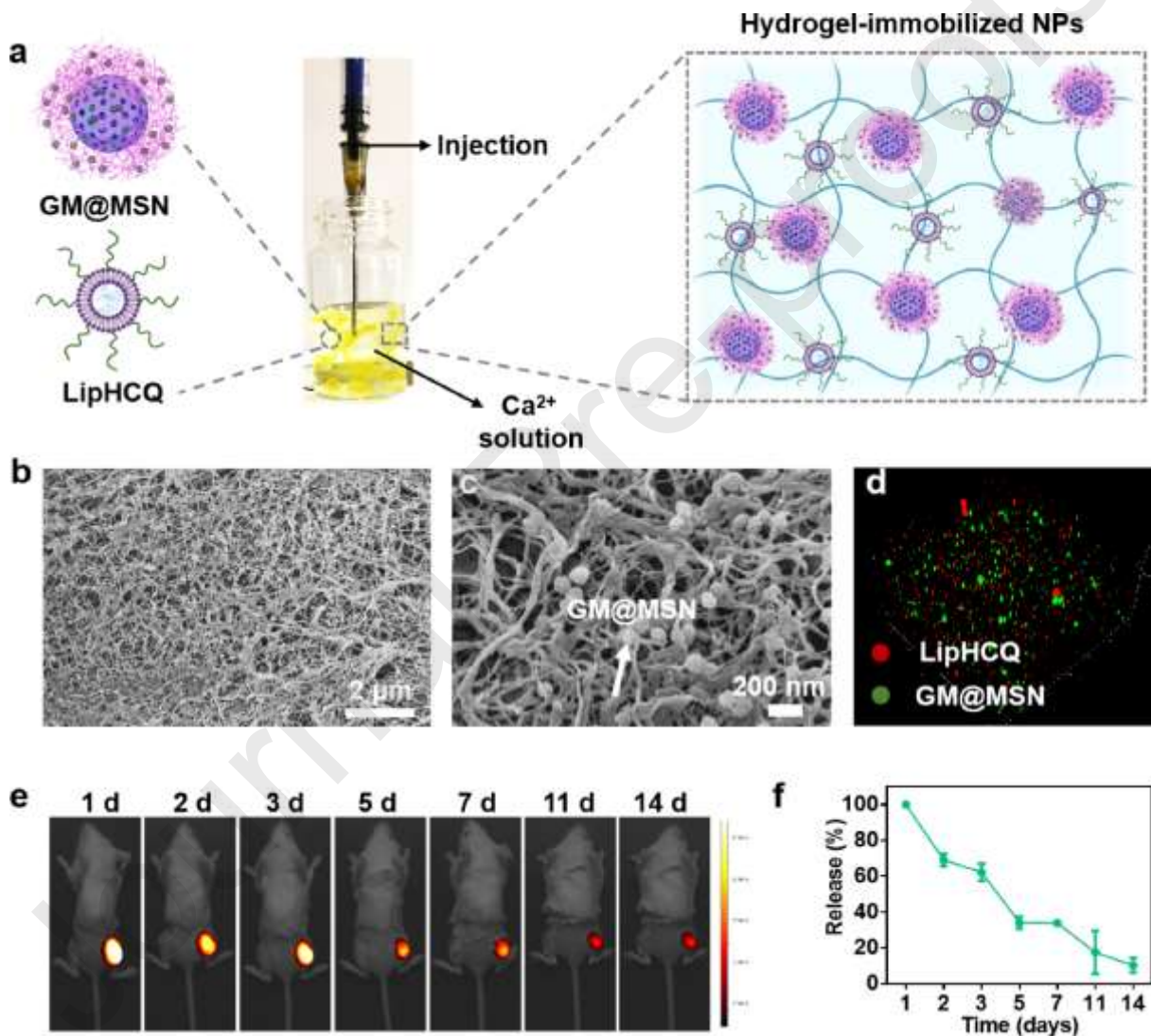
206 behavior in the presence of G@MSN and GM@MSN. i) Structure of the LipHCQ. j) Size
207 distribution of LipHCQ. k) Cryo-TEM images of LipHCQ.

208 GM@MSN were prepared by using a two-step method (**Figure 1a**). GOx was first loaded
209 into amino group-functionalized MSN (G@MSN) (**Figure S1**) (surface area: 1430.2 m²/g; pore
210 size: 15.7 nm), driven by the electrostatic interactions between negatively charged GOx and
211 positively charged amine-functionalized MSN. Subsequently, Mn²⁺ was loaded on the surface
212 of G@MSN, mediated by the formation of MPNs. MPNs coated amino group-functionalized
213 MSN (M@MSN) was set as the control group. The coating of MPNs could be driven by
214 multiple intermolecular interactions, including coordination interactions, hydrophobic
215 interactions, and hydrogen bonds (**Figure 1b**). There were no significant changes in the
216 morphology of the NPs after each modification step, as shown in **Figures S2** and **S3**, indicating
217 the good monodispersity of MSN (~150 nm). The successful construction of GM@MSN was
218 confirmed by EDX mapping and ζ -potential results confirm the (**Figures 1c, d**). The loading
219 levels of GOx and Mn²⁺ were 1% and 3%, respectively. It has been reported that GOx was able
220 to catalyse glucose to produce gluconic acid and H₂O₂ in the tumor. In the presence of Mn²⁺,
221 the resulting H₂O₂ can be converted by a Fenton-like reaction into the highly toxic •OH (**Figure**
222 **1e**). [40,41] To detect the production of H₂O₂, G@MSN were incubated with glucose in the
223 presence of ammonium titanium oxalate, and the concentration of H₂O₂ increased over time
224 (**Figures 1f** and **S4**). In addition, the solution pH also gradually decreased because of the
225 production of gluconic acid (**Figure 1g**). Methylene blue (MB) degradation experiments
226 demonstrated the production of •OH. The occurrence of Fenton-like reactions was confirmed
227 by a significant reduction in the absorption of MB in the GM@MSN group, as shown in **Figure**
228 **1h**. LipHCQ was prepared by a film-dispersion method (**Figure 1i**). As shown in **Figures 1j**
229 and **S5**, the average size of LipHCQ was ~150 nm and the ζ -potential were approximately -25
230 mV. The hollow vesicle structures of the liposomes were confirmed by the results of the cryo-
231 transmission electron microscopy (cryo-TEM) (**Figure 1k**). The loading content of HCQ in
232 liposomes was 10.7% (**Figure S6**). In addition, the size of the LipHCQ and GM@MSN NPs
233 did not significantly change after incubation with water or culture medium, indicating their
234 good stability *in vitro* (**Figure S7**).

235 3.2. Preparation and characterization of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs.

236 The hydrogel-immobilized NPs were in situ assembled by the injection of alginate (ALG)
237 solution containing GM@MSN and LipHCQ into the tumor postsurgical site, which could be
238 subsequently cross-linked by the Ca²⁺ and formed hydrogel networks (**Figures 2a, S8**).
239 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images show the porous structure of the hydrogel-
240 immobilized NPs (**Figure 2b**). Enlarged SEM images and CLSM results indicated the
241 homogeneous distribution of NPs in the hydrogel (**Figures 2c, d**). Dynamic stress sweep
242 rheological tests were performed to investigate the mechanical strength of ALG hydrogels.
243 **Figure S9** shows that the yield stress (ranging from 20 to 300 Pa) and storage modulus (G')
244 (ranging from 13000 to 60000 Pa) increased gradually with the increase in Ca²⁺ concentration.
245 Moreover, the introduction of NPs into hydrogels can enhance the mechanical strength of the
246 hydrogels, which was attributed to the strong hydrogen bonding between ALG and MPNs
247 (**Figures S10, S11**). In addition, we also study the *in vivo* gelation time. A mixture of

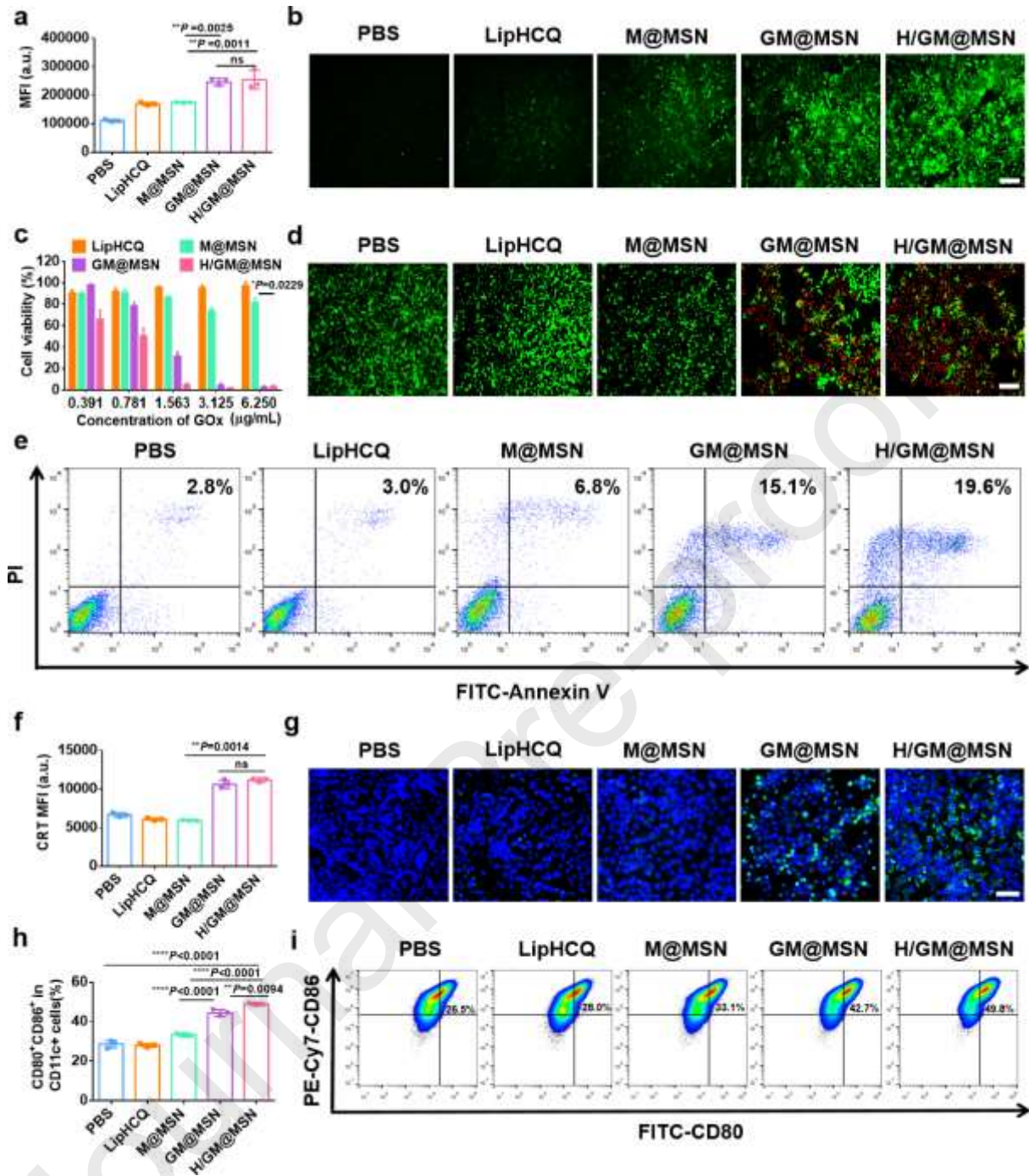
248 GM@MSN NPs and sodium alginate was injected into mice, and gel samples were collected at
 249 the designated time point for rheological testing. From the results, the hydrogel was formed
 250 within 15 min after injection *in vivo* (**Figure S12**). An *in vivo* fluorescence imaging system
 251 (IVIS) was used to visualize the degradation behavior of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs. As
 252 shown in **Figures 2e, f**, approximately 40% of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs can be retained
 253 where injected after 7 days, indicating the sustained-release ability of the hydrogel-immobilized
 254 NPs. To further validate the *in vivo* biocompatibility and biosafety of the hydrogels, skin and
 255 muscle tissues were collected from the hydrogel injection site. As shown in **Figure S13**, no
 256 obvious inflammation, edema, tissue necrosis or cell morphology changes were observed at the
 257 injection site at 14 days after injection, indicating that the hydrogel had good biocompatibility.



258

259 **Figure 2.** Characterization of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs. a) Schematic illustration of
 260 hydrogel-immobilized NPs preparation. b, c) Representative SEM and d) CLSM images of the
 261 hydrogels loaded with GM@MSN and LipHCQ. e) Representative fluorescence images and (f)
 262 analysis of the Cy5.5-labeled GM@Gel after injection at the postsurgical site.

263 3.3. Cytotoxicity Evaluation and DC maturation



264

265 **Figure 3.** *In vitro* cytotoxicity assay and DC maturation. a) MFI obtained after incubating with
 266 PBS, LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN, and H/GM@MSN for 8 h. b) After different treatments
 267 for 8 h fluorescence images of 4T1 cells followed by staining with 10 µM DCFH-DA probe.
 268 Scale bar is 100 µm. c) 4T1 cell activity after various treatments at different concentrations of
 269 GOx (0.391, 0.781, 1.563, 3.125 and 6.250 µg/mL) (n = 3). d) Fluorescence images of 4T1 cells
 270 stained with calcein-AM (green, viable) and PI (red, dead) treated with PBS, LipHCQ,
 271 M@MSN, GM@MSN, and H/GM@MSN (GOx: 0.6 µg/mL; Mn²⁺: 1.8 µg/mL; HCQ: 10
 272 µg/mL). Scale bar is 100 µm. e) Annexin V/PI assay for the evaluation of 4T1 cell apoptosis.
 273 CRT expression by f) Flow cytometric analyses and g) immunofluorescence images in 4T1 cells.

274 Scale bar is 100 μm . h, i) Analyses of DC maturation ($\text{CD80}^+\text{CD86}^+$ gated on CD11c^+) with
275 different treatment. Significant differences were assessed using one-way ANOVA. Data are
276 presented as the mean \pm SD ($n=3$). $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, $****P < 0.0001$.

277 For evaluation of the antitumor activity of GM@MSN together with LipHCQ
278 (H/GM@MSN) *in vitro*, 4T1 cells were incubated with NPs and stained with DAPI and
279 LysoTracker Red probes. The fluorescence intensity increased along with the increase in
280 incubation time, which indicates that more NPs were internalized by cells (**Figure S14**). Further
281 studies revealed that few NPs could interact with the cells after 2 h incubation, suggesting that
282 the cells were just beginning to phagocytose the NPs (**Figure S15**). A 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein
283 diacetate (DCFH-DA) probe was used to assess ROS production in 4T1 cells to explore the
284 therapeutic mechanism of H/GM@MSN by flow cytometry. The mean fluorescence intensity
285 (MFI) of the M@MSN was weak, while that of the H/GM@MSN group was the highest.
286 Notably, GM@MSN and H/GM@MSN groups were not significantly different, which was
287 because GOx mainly contributed to the ROS production ($F=40.39$) (**Figure 3a**). Fluorescence
288 microscopy was used to observe the ROS signals in cells after the treatments with LipHCQ,
289 M@MSN, GM@MSN, and H/GM@MSN groups was observed by fluorescence microscopy,
290 which were similar to the results obtained by flow cytometry (**Figure 3b**). The ROS generation
291 resulted from the cascade catalytic reaction in the presence of GOx and Mn^{2+} (**Figure 1e**).
292 [42,43] Moreover, cell cytotoxicity was assessed by a CCK-8 assay *in vitro*. As shown in **Figure**
293 **3c**, M@MSN and LipHCQ groups showed negligible cytotoxicity due to the lack of GOx,
294 whereas GM@MSN and H/GM@MSN exhibited dose-dependent cytotoxicity to 4T1 cells. The
295 IC_{50} values of GOx in the M@MSN and H/GM@MSN groups were 1.15 and 0.94 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$,
296 respectively. As expected, HCQ inhibited internal autophagy and enhanced the STING pathway
297 for a higher killing effect in the H/GM@MSN group. Meanwhile, fibroblast cells (3T3) were
298 used to evaluate the cytocompatibility of the vectors. The MSNs, Liposomes, and hydrogels
299 exhibited good cytocompatibility at a concentration of 62.5 to 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ with a cell viability
300 above 90%, (**Figure S16**). The cytotoxicity of these NPs was also evaluated by live/dead assay.
301 Positive calcein-AM staining (green signal) represents live cells, while positive propidium
302 iodide staining (PI, red signal) indicates dead cells. The cells were mostly alive after incubation
303 with M@MSN, indicating the low toxicity of M@MSN. However, nearly 90% of cells were
304 dead after incubation with H/GM@MSN (**Figure 3d**), which was in line with the results of the
305 CCK-8 study. These results were evidence of the synergistic effect of CDT and autophagy-
306 inhibitory treatment enhanced the cell toxicity. Additionally, cell apoptosis rates were further
307 investigated by flow cytometry (**Figure 3e**). The induction rate of H/GM@MSN on
308 necrotic/late apoptotic cells was 19.6% while other groups showed lower ratios of apoptotic
309 cells, which was aligned with the results from CCK-8 and live/dead assays.

310 It has been shown that CDT therapy based on Mn^{2+} can also induce ICD of tumor cells.
311 [44] Meanwhile, the released Mn^{2+} can activate the STING pathway, and thus increase the rate
312 of maturation of the DCs and recruit T killer cells. Calreticulin (CRT), which mediates the “eat
313 me” signaling, directs DCs to gobble up dying tumor cells, and high mobility group box 1
314 (HMGB1), an ICD-associated immunogenicity biomarker, can also promote DC maturation
315 and antigen presentation. [45,46] CRT exposure of 4T1 cells was evaluated with flow cytometry.

316 The H/GM@MSN group showed the highest expression level of CRT ($F=211.2$) among the
317 PBS, LipHCQ, M@MSN, and GM@MSN groups (**Figure 3f**). In addition, an
318 immunofluorescence staining assay also verified the expression of CRT, which showed a
319 dramatic increment in the GM@MSN and H/GM@MSN groups, in accordance with flow
320 cytometry results (**Figure 3g**). The H/GM@MSN group released 116 ng/mL of HMGB1, which
321 was 1.28-fold and 2.68-fold times than that in the GM@MSN and M@MSN groups (**Figure**
322 **S17**). The maturation of DCs was verified by the double positivity of CD80 and CD86
323 costimulatory molecules, which was considered as a marker of DC maturation.[47] **Figures 3h**
324 and **i** show that the DC maturity rates were 26.5%, 33.1%, 42.7%, and 49.8% for the PBS,
325 M@MSN, GM@MSN, and H/GM@MSN groups, respectively. On the one hand, CDT could
326 cause the release of more tumor antigens to induce ICD and stimulate DC maturation. On the
327 other hand, CDT based on Mn^{2+} and the braking effect of LipHCQ enhanced STING activation,
328 resulting in the increased release of IFN- β . Further stimulation of DC maturation activated the
329 antitumor immune response and regulated the TME. These results showed that the combination
330 of CDT, Mn^{2+} release, and autophagy inhibition could amplify STING signaling, promote DC
331 maturation effectively, and enhance the intracellular antitumor immunotherapy effect.

332 **3.4. Activation of the STING pathway and inhibition of autophagy by NPs *in vitro***

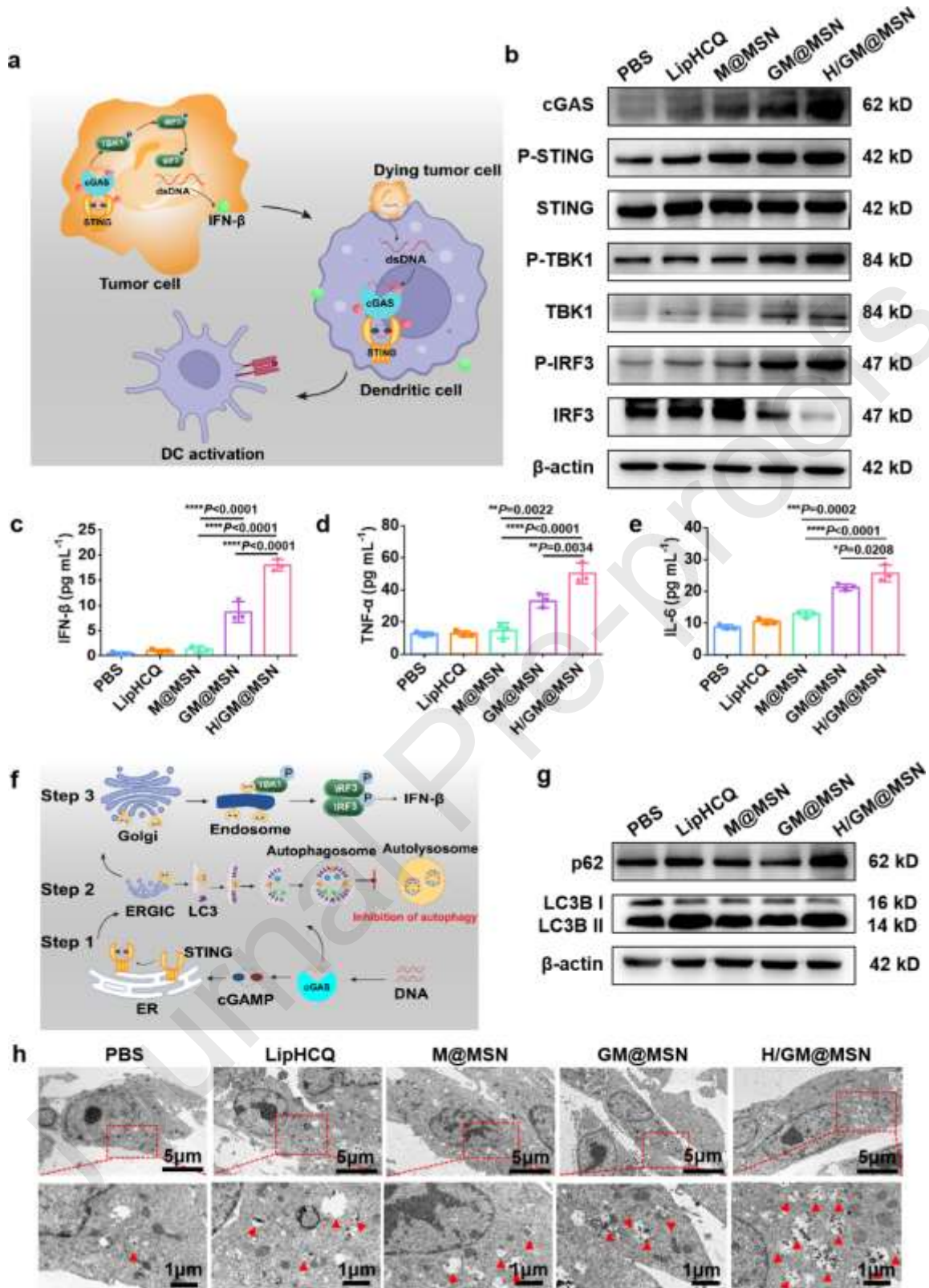
333 It has shown that the innate immune system is activated when cGAS binds to cytoplasmic
334 DNA.[48] **Figure 4a** illustrates the process of DC activation via ROS-triggered release of
335 dsDNA fragments from tumor cells and subsequent activated the STING pathway. Expression
336 of STING, TBK1, IRF3, phosphorylated STING (P-STING, Ser366), phosphorylated TBK1
337 (P-TBK1, Ser172) and phosphorylated IRF3 (P-IRF3, Ser396) were assessed by western blot,
338 which reflected the activation effect of GM@MSN combined with LipHCQ on the STING
339 pathway. As a result, the expression of P-STING, P-TBK1 and P-IRF3 were significantly higher
340 in the M@MSN, and H/GM@MSN groups compared to other groups (**Figure 4b, S18**). In
341 addition, to evaluate the effect of H/GM@MSN on the STING pathway, the release of INF- β
342 (**Figure 4c**), IL-6 (**Figure 4d**) and TNF- α (**Figure 4e**) was evaluated by ELISA. H/GM@MSN
343 group showed the most release of induction-related factors, which confirmed that
344 CDT combined with Mn^{2+} release could amplify the STING signal and induce Active
345 Ingredient and inflammatory factors released by 4T1 cells. The addition of LipHCQ together
346 with Mn^{2+} could cause stronger STING activation.

347 Tumor cells also activated their internal protective autophagy in response to counter the
348 excess ROS and weakened the activation effect of the STING pathway (**Figure 4f**). [30] To
349 better understand the activation of STING, autophagy levels were also explored after the
350 treatment. The expression of LC3B-II and SQSTM1/p62 (p62) were assessed by western blot.
351 The LC3B-II and p62 proteins in LipHCQ-treated cells were significantly increased (**Figure**
352 **4g, S19**), indicating that intracellular autophagosomes were abundantly produced due to
353 autophagy inhibition compared to the PBS group and GM@MSN group. In addition, p62
354 proteins in GM@MSN-treated cells were downregulated, which could be attributed to
355 protective autophagy due to activation of the STING pathway. Importantly, the LC3B-II and
356 p62 expression in the H/GM@MSN group were higher than in other groups, indicating that the
357 process of internal protective autophagy could be largely inhibited ($F=18.28$). Blockage of this

358 pathway should be conducive to the enhancement of oxidative damage and the accumulation
359 of dsDNA, which further amplifies the STING pathway. In addition, the autophagic flux of cells
360 with different treatments was visually tracked by Bio-TEM. As shown in **Figure 4h**, cells
361 treated with GM@MSN produced more autophagosomes than the PBS group, indicating that
362 protective autophagy occurred when STING was enhanced by CDT. Remarkably, the number
363 of autophagic vesicles in the H/GM@MSN group was greatly increased compared to that in the
364 GM@MSN group, which further suggested that autophagy inhibition effectively promoted the
365 damage-associated cellular components caused by excess ROS, thereby exacerbating oxidative
366 damage. The introduction of HCQ eliminates intracellular negative feedback regulation, which
367 is expected to contribute to the enhancement of oxidative damage induced by CDT.

368 **3.5. Inhibition of tumor recurrence and metastatic tumor growth *in vivo***

369 The *in vivo* fate of drugs was examined by evaluating the distributions of Cy5.5-labelled
370 GM@MSN in major organs (*i.e.*, heart, liver, spleen, lung, kidney and tumor). After 2 and 5
371 days injection, GM@MSN were mainly accumulated in the tumor, indicating their effective
372 targeted delivery ability (**Figure S20**). 4T1-bearing tumor models were used for the detection
373 of tumor recurrence inhibitory activity after surgery, the schedule of which was shown in **Figure**
374 **5a**. The remaining area after tumor resection was determined using MR imaging. (**Figure S21**,
375 **Table 1**). The tumor resection cavity was injected with different formulas, including PBS
376 solution, LipHCQ-loaded hydrogel (H@Gel), M@MSN-loaded hydrogel (M@Gel),
377 GM@MSN-loaded hydrogel (GM@Gel), and H/GM@Gel before suturing. The body weight
378 and tumor volume were monitored every 3 days. Between groups, no significant weight loss
379 was observed (**Figure 5b**). The tumor volume was monitored with vernier calipers (**Figure 5c**).
380 The tumor volume in the PBS, H@Gel, and M@Gel groups increased over 1000 mm³ after 15-
381 day post-injection. The tumors in the GM@Gel group had a tendency to increase in the later
382 stage, which could be related to the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment and lack of
383 tumor-associated antigens.[49] In contrast, mice treated with H/GM@Gel could significantly
384 suppress the tumor recurrence, indicating that gel-mediated GOx combined with Mn²⁺ and
385 autophagy inhibitor had strong antitumor ability. The weights and photographs of the tumors
386 removed after different treatments confirmed the antitumor efficacy of H/GM@Gel over the
387 other groups ($F=51.21$) (**Figure 5d, e**). In addition, we also examined the level of ROS
388 production *in vivo* and found that the H/GM@Gel group resulted in higher levels than the PBS
389 group, which was also consistent with the treatment outcomes. (**Figure S22**)



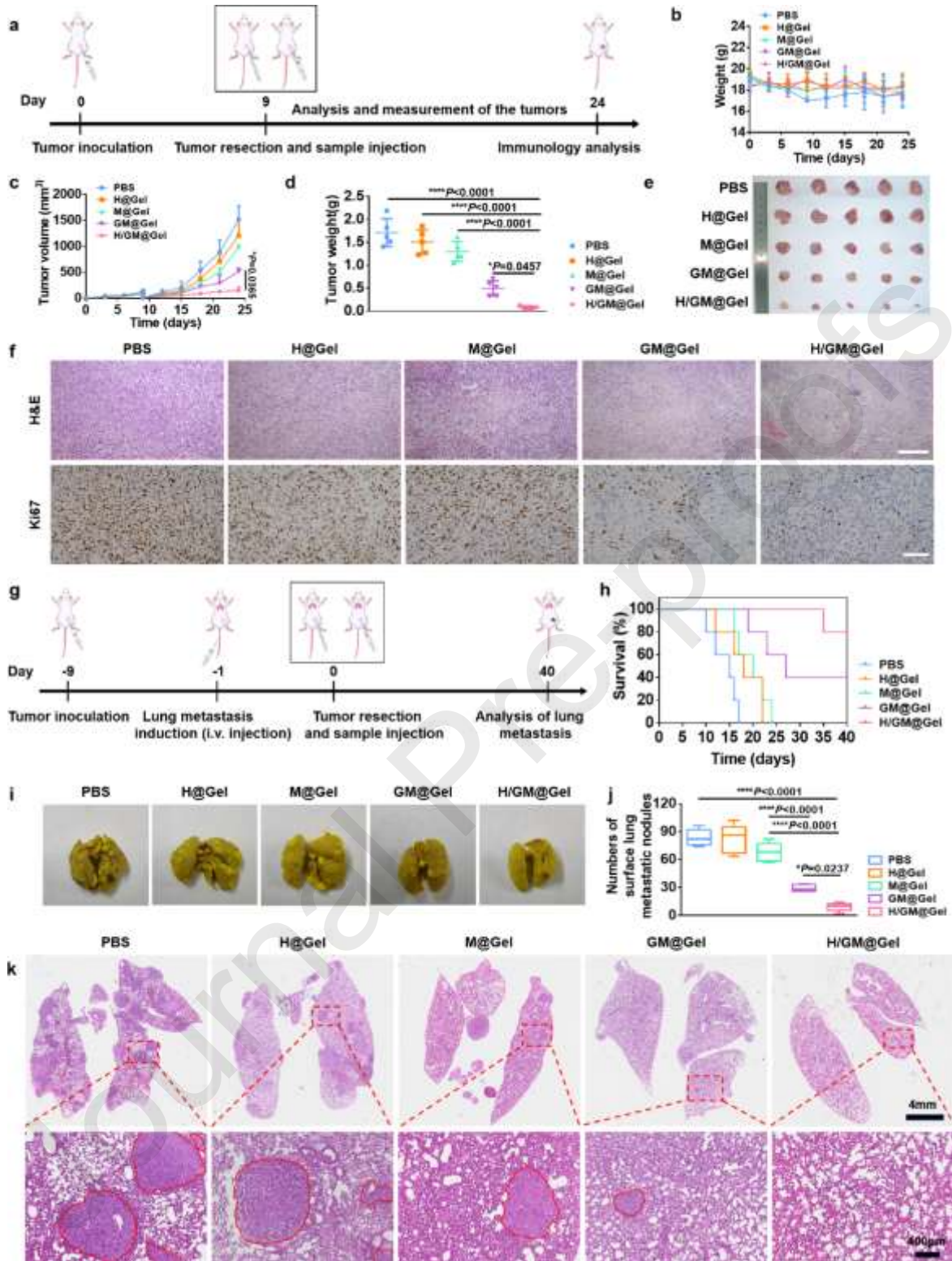
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Figure 4. Evaluation of the effect of amplifying the STING pathway. a) Scheme showing the activation of the STING pathway. b) Western blot analysis of STING pathway proteins after incubation of 4T1 cells with PBS, LipHCQ, M@MSN, GM@MSN or H/GM@MSN. Secretion of c) IFN-β, d) TNF-α, e) IL-6 characterized by ELISA. f) Schematic showing the HCQ enhanced STING pathway. g) Expression of the autophagy indicator proteins (*i.e.*, LC3B and

396 SQSTM1/p62) in 4T1 cells after 24 h incubation with different NPs. h) Bio-TEM images of
397 autolysosomes in 4T1 cells with different treatments for 24 h. Significant differences were
398 assessed using one-way ANOVA. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD (n=3). * $P < 0.05$, ** P
399 < 0.01 , *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$.

400 Histological analysis was performed to evaluate the tumor-inhibitory effect. Hematoxylin-
401 eosin (H&E) staining images showed obvious cell necrosis and apoptosis in both the GM@Gel
402 group and H/GM@Gel group (**Figure 5f**). As observed from the Ki67 tumor staining images,
403 only a few staining signals of tumor cells were detected in the H/GM@Gel group (**Figure 5f**),
404 which further verified that GOx combined with Mn²⁺ and autophagy inhibition had an excellent
405 antitumor effect. The main organs (*i.e.*, lung, liver, spleen, kidney and heart) of mice were
406 obtained and stained by H&E. No obvious tissue necrosis was observed in either treatment
407 group (**Figure S23**). The blood biochemical results (ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ALP,
408 alkaline phosphatase; BUN, blood urea nitrogen; CREA, creatinine) between the PBS group
409 and other groups treated with the hydrogel-immobilized NPs were not significantly different
410 (**Figure S24**). The above results demonstrate the safety of hydrogel-immobilized NPs and their
411 transformation feasibility.

412 Given the strong antitumor effect of the H/GM@Gel hydrogel-immobilized NPs,
413 H/GM@Gel is expected to be promising for the inhibition of metastatic tumor growth. To
414 evaluate the efficacy of H/GM@Gel inhibition of metastatic tumor growth, a lung metastasis
415 model was established (**Figure 5g**). Survival curves for the mice showed that the H/GM@Gel
416 hydrogels significantly prolonged the survival time of mice (**Figure 5h**). Lung tissues were
417 collected to determine the extent of metastasis. The H/GM@Gel group had much less lung
418 metastatic nodules than the other groups (**Figure 5i**), which indicated that lung metastatic tumor
419 growth effectively inhibited by H/GM@Gel ($F=62.5$) (**Figure 5j**). In addition, the H&E
420 staining results were in accordance with the results of lung metastatic nodules (**Figure 5k**).
421 Overall, H/GM@Gel showed good ability to inhibit the metastatic tumors growth, attributed to
422 its high level of systemic antitumor immunity.



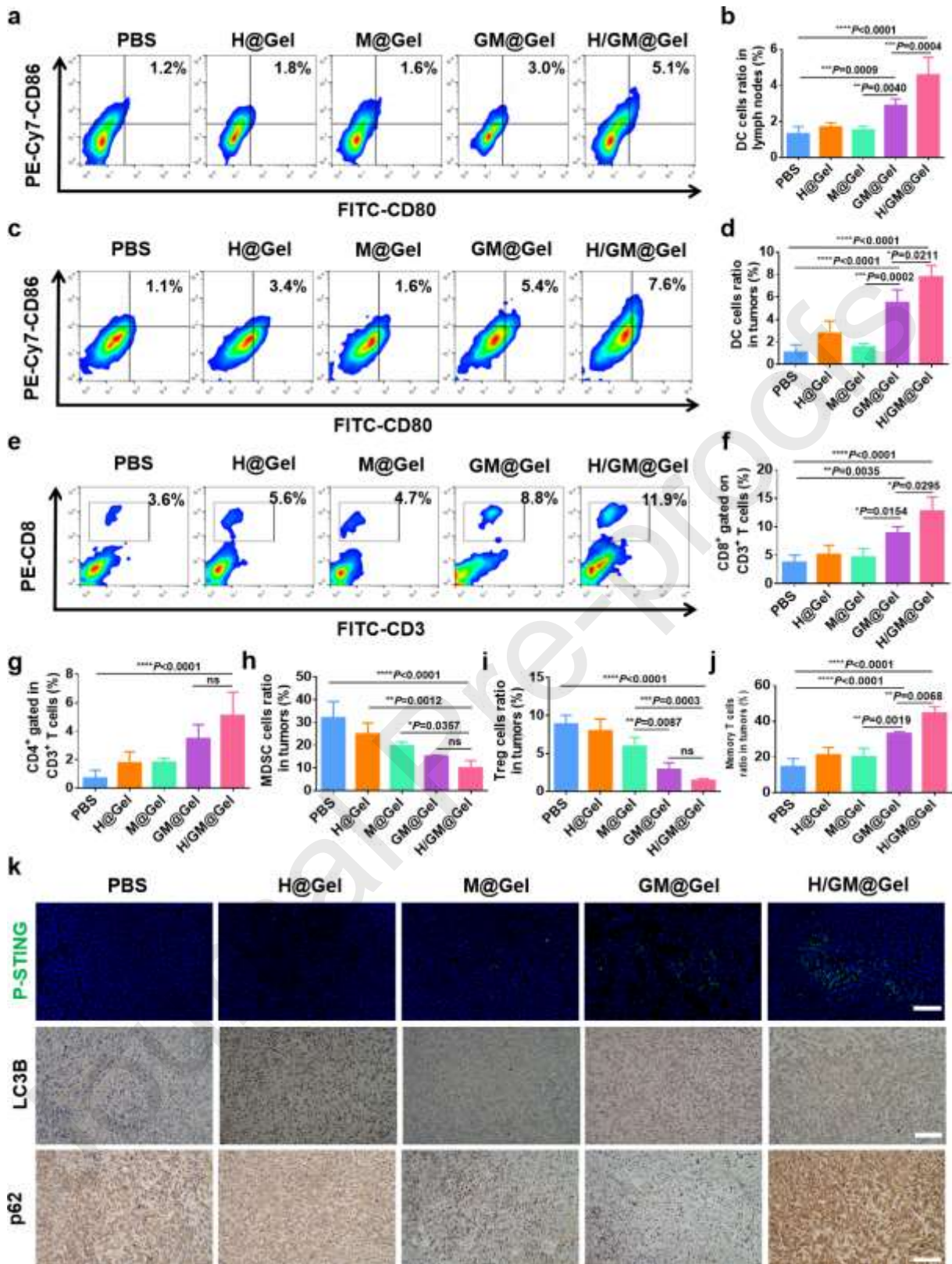
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424 **Figure 5.** *In vivo* evaluation of immunotherapy with H/GM@Gel in mouse models of
 425 recurrence and lung metastasis. a) Schematic diagram of immunotherapy based on the
 426 inhibition of tumor recurrence. b) Changes in body weight of mice during treatment. c) Tumor
 427 volume changes d) and tumor weight after treatments with PBS, H@Gel, M@Gel, GM@Gel,
 428 and H/GM@Gel (GOx: 3 mg/kg; HCQ:10 mg/kg). e) Photographs of the recurrent tumors after
 429 different treatments. f) H&E and Ki67 staining images of recurrence tumor tissue with different

430 treatments. Scale bar is 200 μm . g) Illustration of immunotherapy based on the inhibition of
431 lung metastatic tumor. h) Growth curves of tumors after the different treatments. i) Photographs,
432 j) analysis, and k) Metastatic lung nodules with different treatments in H&E staining. Scale bars
433 are 4 mm and 400 μm . Significant differences were assessed using one-way ANOVA. Data are
434 presented as the mean \pm SD ($n=5$). * $P < 0.05$, **** $P < 0.0001$.

435 3.6. Synergistic antitumor mechanism of the hydrogel-immobilized NPs

436 To explore the mechanism of synergistic antitumor effects, the immune responses in tumor
437 tissues and lymph nodes (LNs) were investigated. Compared with the other groups, the
438 H/GM@Gel group had the highest DC maturation rate (5.1% and 7.6%) in both LNs and tumors
439 (**Figure 6a-d**), indicating that CDT-induced ICD could stimulate DC maturation in the TME.
440 Following the trend of DC maturation, the abundance of CD8⁺ T cells and CD4⁺ T cells was
441 significantly higher in the H/GM@Gel group than that in the other groups, which was because
442 mature DCs released more inflammatory mediators capable of triggering immune responses.
443 Among them, H/GM@Gel significantly promoted CD8⁺ T cells (11.9%, $P < 0.0001$) in
444 comparison with the PBS group (3.6%), and the proportion of CD8⁺ T cells in the H/GM@Gel
445 group was approximately 1.4 times higher than in the GM@Gel group ($F=21.39$). (**Figure 6e**,
446 f), which was due to synergy between autophagy inhibition and STING activation. In other
447 words, CDT significantly enhanced the activation of the STING pathway by Mn²⁺, and HCQ
448 relieved the “brake” signal on the STING pathway, which resulted in the secretion of more IFN-
449 β and proinflammatory cytokines to stimulate DC maturation and subsequently recruit more
450 cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs). In addition, the ratio of CD4⁺ T cells, which are capable of
451 assisting and maintaining the CTL response, in the H/GM@Gel group (5.1%) was also the
452 highest among the treatment groups ($F=12.74$) (**Figures 6g, S25**). These results confirmed that
453 enhanced STING pathway activation combined with autophagy inhibition significantly
454 activated the antitumor immune responses.



455

456 **Figure 6.** *In vivo* alterations in the TME after various treatments. a-d) Flow cytometry results
 457 of DC maturation in lymph nodes (a, b) and tumor tissues (c, d) after different treatments (n =
 458 5). e, f) Proportions of CD8⁺ T cells in tumors after different treatments with PBS, H@Gel,
 459 M@Gel, GM@Gel, and H/GM@Gel. Percentages of CD3⁺ CD4⁺, g), CD4⁺ CD11b⁺ Gr1⁺, h),

460 CD4⁺ CD25⁺ Foxp3⁺, i) and CD62L⁻ CD44⁺) T cells in total T cells in 4T1 tumors after different
461 treatments. k) Immunofluorescence images of P-STING and immunohistochemistry images of
462 LC3B and p62 proteins in different recurrent tumor groups. Scale bars are 200 μ m. *** $P <$
463 0.001, **** $P <$ 0.0001.

464 To assess the ability of NPs to reverse the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment,
465 the ratios of myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs, CD45⁺Gr1⁺CD11b⁺) and
466 immunosuppressive regulatory T cells (Tregs, CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺) were examined by flow
467 cytometry. As show in **Figures 6h** and **S26**, the proportion of MDSCs was significantly reduced
468 in the H/GM@Gel group (7.3%) in comparison with the PBS group (37.6%), thus alleviating
469 the immunosuppressive effect of MDSC on CTLs and enhancing the immunotherapeutic effect
470 ($F=16.47$). Since Tregs can inhibit the potent antitumor immune response to CTLs, the
471 frequency of Tregs in the TME was investigated. **Figures 6i** and **S27** show that the H/GM@Gel
472 group significantly decreased the proportion of Tregs (1.4%) ($F=35.28$). These results indicated
473 that the H/GM@Gel could also alleviate the immunosuppressive TME. As is well known
474 memory T cells (CD3⁺CD8⁺CD62L⁻CD44⁺) are essential to provide rapid protection against
475 pathogen reinfection and tumor recurrence. Due to the good therapeutic effect of H/GM@Gel
476 in inhibiting recurrence and metastatic tumor growth, the ratio of effector memory T cells within
477 the TME was examined. The H/GM@Gel treatment group (43.3%) produced significantly
478 higher memory T cells levels than the PBS treatment group (18.3%) ($F=39$) (**Figures 6j** and
479 **S28**). It indicated that H/GM@Gel could effectively enhance antitumor immunotherapy
480 responses and promote long-acting immune memory effects to prevent tumor recurrence and
481 metastatic tumor growth.

482 The immunofluorescence staining was also performed in tumor tissue to examine the
483 expression of CD8⁺ T and CD4⁺ T cells. More fluorescence signals were found in the
484 H/GM@Gel group, indicating that H/GM@Gel could improve levels of tumor infiltration in
485 CD8⁺ T and CD4⁺ T cells, which was consistent with the results from flow cytometry (**Figure**
486 **S29**). Furthermore, the tumor sections were also stained with P-STING (Ser366), cGAS and P-
487 IRF3 (Ser396) proteins to investigate the antitumor effect of H/GM@Gel *via* fluorescence
488 microscopy. The group treated with H/GM@Gel showed high expression of P-STING (Ser366)
489 protein as well as cGAS and P-IRF3 (Ser396) proteins, which indicates that the activation of
490 the STING pathway can effectively inhibit tumor growth (**Figure 6k**, **Figure S30**).
491 Immunohistochemical analysis of the autophagy protein markers LC3B and p62 in tumor
492 sections showed that the expression of both proteins increased after H/GM@Gel treatment,
493 suggesting that the autophagy process was significantly inhibited and autophagy lysosomes
494 were degraded (**Figure 6k**). These immunohistochemical results are consistent with the data at
495 the cellular level. Mn²⁺ and GOx-based CDT initiated oxidative stress, thus activating STING
496 pathway, while the protective autophagy generated was inhibited by HCQ. As a result, the two
497 synergies enhanced the cGAS-STING pathway and aggravate oxidative damage.
498 Simultaneously, suppressing the innate detoxification effect of cancer cells through autophagy
499 inhibition ultimately leads to tumor regression.

500 4. Conclusion

501 Activation of the STING pathway is essential to effectively exert antitumor immunity.
502 H/GM@Gel therapeutic platform was designed to effectively generate ROS in tumor tissues
503 *via* CDT, which could accelerate and amplify the activation of the STING pathway in
504 combination with Mn²⁺ to enhance innate immunity. In addition, HCQ could inhibit the
505 protective autophagy induced by STING pathway activation and further amplify the antitumor
506 immune responses. Meanwhile, CDT effectively induced ICD, released tumor cell antigens,
507 stimulated DC maturation, and recruited more T cells for tumor cell killing. As a result,
508 H/GM@Gel demonstrated superior STING pathway activation in tumors. Potent activation of
509 the STING pathway promoted the release of IFN- β and the recruitment of antigen-specific T
510 cells, thereby significantly inhibiting tumor recurrence and metastatic tumor growth after
511 surgery. In summary, STING agonist loaded with autophagy inhibitor exerted potent antitumor
512 effects in the 4T1 tumor-bearing mouse model, which provides a prospective transformation
513 method for biomedical applications in postsurgical tumor therapy.

514 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

515 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
516 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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524 **Supporting Information**

525 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at

526

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707 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

708 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
709 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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711 **Highlights**

- 712 ● Hydrogel-immobilized NPs applied for sustained drug release
- 713 ● Activation of protective autophagy induce the amplification of the STING pathway
- 714 ● CDT-IMT can inhibit tumor recurrence and metastatic tumor growth

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