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Immune dysfunctions affecting bone marrow $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells in multiple myeloma: Role of immune checkpoints and disease status

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Introduction: Bone marrow (BM) $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells are intrinsically predisposed to sense the immune fitness of the tumor microenvironment (TME) in multiple myeloma (MM) and monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance (MGUS).

Methods: In this work, we have used BM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells to interrogate the role of the immune checkpoint/immune checkpoint-ligand (ICP/ICP-L) network in the immune suppressive TME of MM patients.

Results: PD-1+ BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells combine phenotypic, functional, and TCR-associated alterations consistent with chronic exhaustion and immune senescence. When challenged by zoledronic acid (ZA) as a surrogate assay to interrogate the reactivity to their natural ligands, BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells further up-regulate PD-1 and TIM-3 and worsen TCR-associated alterations. BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells up-regulate TIM-3 after stimulation with ZA in combination with α PD-1, whereas PD-1 is not up-regulated after ZA stimulation with α TIM-3, indicating a hierarchical regulation of inducible ICP expression. Dual α PD-1/ α TIM-3 blockade improves the immune functions of BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM at diagnosis (MM-dia), whereas single PD-1 blockade is sufficient to rescue BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM in remission (MM-rem). By contrast, ZA stimulation

induces LAG-3 up-regulation in BM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells from MM in relapse (MM-rel) and dual PD-1/LAG-3 blockade is the most effective combination in this setting.

Discussion: These data indicate that: 1) inappropriate immune interventions can exacerbate $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T-cell dysfunction 2) ICP blockade should be tailored to the disease status to get the most of its beneficial effect.

KEYWORDS

 $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells, immune checkpoints (ICP), tumor microenvironment, multiple myeloma, chronic exhaustion, immune senescence

Introduction

The discovery of immune checkpoints (ICP) and their role as therapeutic targets has revitalized immunotherapy in cancer (1). However, clinical results have been discontinuous with major achievements in some diseases and negligible or disappointing results in others (2-5). Both primary and acquired resistance have been reported to hamper the efficacy of ICP blockade, but the underlying mechanisms have only partially been elucidated. Multiple myeloma (MM) is a paradigm disease in which the immune system and the tumor microenvironment (TME) play a major role in disease progression (6-8). Several phenotypic and functional alterations have been reported in innate and adaptive immune effector cells, including the expression of ICP/ICP ligands in myeloma cells and bystander cells in the TME (9-11). Despite these favourable premises, single α PD-1 treatment has fallen short of clinical expectations in MM, whereas clinical studies of α PD-1 in combination with immunomodulatory drugs (IMiDs) have been terminated ahead of time because of unexpected toxicity in the experimental arm. These unsuccessfully immune interventions have led to the premature termination of alternative studies targeting the ICP/ICP-L network and generated some reluctance in further pursuing this approach due to the complexity of the tumor-host interactions in MM (12).

V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from the bone marrow (BM) are excellent tools to monitor the immune suppressive commitment and decode the ICP/ICP-L network in MM patients (13). V γ 9V δ 2 T-cells are non-conventional T cells half-way between adaptive and innate immunity with a natural inclination to react against malignant B cells, including myeloma cells (14). This intrinsic susceptibility is due to the enhanced cell surface expression of stress-induced self-ligands and the intense production of phosphorylated metabolites generated by the mevalonate (Mev) pathway (14). Isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) is the prototypic Mev metabolite recognized by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells *via* the combination of two immunoglobulin superfamily members, butyrophilin 2A1 (BTN2A1) and BTN3A1. The former directly binds the $V\gamma9+$ domain of the T cell receptor (TCR), whereas the latter binds the V δ 2 and γ -chain regions on the opposite side of the TCR (15-18). IPP is structurally related to the phosphoantigens (pAgs) generated by bacteria and stressed cells that are patrolled by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells as part of their duty to act as first-line defenders against infections and stressed cell at risk of malignant transformation (19). By interrogating the reactivity of BM MM Vy9V82 T cells to IPP generated by monocytes or dendritic cells (DC) after stimulation with zoledronic acid (ZA), we have revealed a very early and longlasting dysfunction of BM Vy9V82 T cells which is already detectable in monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance (MGUS) and not fully reverted in clinical remission after autologous stem cell transplantation (9). Multiple cell subsets [myeloma cells, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSC), regulatory T cells (Tregs), BMderived stromal cells (BMSC)] are involved in Vy9V82 T-cell inhibition via several immune suppressive mechanisms including PD-1/PD-L1 expression (9, 10). Previous work from our lab has shown that single PD-1 blockade improved ZAinduced proliferation of BM MM Vγ9Vδ2 T cells from MM at diagnosis (MM-dia). PD-1 blockade also increased CD107 expression suggesting improved effector functions, but both proliferation and CD107 expression remained far from standard values observed in BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from controls (Ctrl) (9).

Recently, it has been reported that the expression of additional ICP on immune effector cells can be involved in acquired resistance to single ICP blockade. PD-1 and TIM-3 co-expression has been reported in conventional T cells from patients with solid cancers (20–23), AML (24), and MM (25–27). PD-1 and TIM-3 co-expression has also been reported in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells chronically exposed to infectious agents (28) or to cancer cells in solid (29, 30) and blood tumors (31). Exhaustion and immune senescence are other T-cell dysfunctions which can potentially contribute to resistance to ICP blockade (32–35).

The aim of this work was to investigate the contribution of ICP expression, exhaustion, and immune senescence to the dysfunction of BM MM V γ 9V δ 2T cells and to envisage possible interventions, correlated with the disease status, to overcome the immune suppressive commitment operated by the ICP/ICP-L network in the TME of MM patients.

Methods

Samples collection

Bone marrow mononuclear cells (BMMC) from BM aspirates and autologous peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) from MM patients at different stages of disease (diagnosis: MM-dia; remission: MM-rem; relapse: MM-rel) were used for the study. All experiments were performed with BM samples from MM-dia unless otherwise specified. BMMC from patients with hematological malignancies in unmaintained molecular remission, frozen human normal BMMC purchased from Stem Cell Technologies, and PBMC from healthy donors attending the local Blood Bank were used as control (Ctrl). The study was approved by institutional regulatory boards (n.176-19 December 11, 2019).

Cell surface and intracellular flow cytometry

The monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) used in the study are listed in Supplemental Table I. Cell surface and intracellular flow cytometry were performed as previously reported (9). V γ 9V δ 2 T cells were identified with α TCR V γ 9 mAb conjugated with the appropriate fluorochrome (FITC, PE, APC) depending on the multicolor staining combination (see Supplemental Table I). We have intentionally focused on V γ 9V δ 2 T cells because this is the only $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset directly activated by pAgs or indirectly activated by ZA stimulation (36–38). Moreover, V δ 2 chain is the only one to combine with the V γ 9 chain confirming that α TCR V γ 9 mAbs are reliable tools to identify V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (39). Cytofluorimetric analyses were performed with FACS Calibur Cell Sorter and FlowJo software (Becton Dickinson, Mountain View, CA).

$V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T-cell proliferation, cytokine release and degranulation

Cryopreserved or freshly isolated PBMC or BMMC from MM patients and Ctrl were cultured for 7 days with 10 IU/ml IL-2, and 1 μ M ZA+10 IU/ml IL2. In selected experiments, cells were cultured in the presence of α PD1 (10 μ g/ml), α TIM-3 (10 μ g/ml), α LAG-3 (10 μ g/ml), or a combination thereof.

Proliferation was evaluated by calculating total counts of viable V γ 9V δ 2 T cells on day 7 with the trypan blue staining assay and flow cytometry after gating for CD3 in combination with appropriate α V γ 9 mAb. IL-17 production was evaluated in freshly isolated BMMC after incubation with PMA (50 ng/ml)/ Ionomycin (1 µg/ml) for 4 hours at 37°C and 5% CO2 with brefeldin (500 ng/ml) added during the last hour. IFN- γ , and CD107 expression were evaluated as previously reported (9).

Conventional T- cell proliferation

Conventional T-cell proliferation was measured by carboxyfluorescein-diacetate-succinimidyl-ester (CFSE) dilution assay. BMMC were suspended in warmed PBS at a concentration of 10×10⁶ cells/ml and labeled with 1 µM CFSE at 37°C for 15 min in the dark. After quenching with FCS for 10 minutes in dark at 37° C and washing with RPMI medium, cells were seeded at 1×10⁶ cells/ml in 96-well flat-bottom plate and stimulated with α CD3 (1 $\mu g/ml$ - BioLegend) and $\alpha CD28$ (2 $\mu g/ml$ - BioLegend) antibodies for 72 h at 37°C. After 3 days, conventional T cells where harvested and identified with α CD8 and α CD4 rather than α CD3 given the down-modulation induced by α CD3/ α CD28 stimulation and the lineage discrimination capacity of CD4 and CD8 expression (40). In selected experiments, the proliferation of BM CD4 and CD8 T cells with aCD3 and aCD28 was performed in the presence (BMMC) or absence of $\gamma\delta$ T cells (BMMC- $\gamma\delta$ -). Depletion was performed by immune magnetic separation using Anti-pan-γδ-conjugated magnetic microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Germany #130-050-701).

Western blots

For Western blot experiments, $\gamma\delta$ T cells were purified by immune magnetic separation using Anti-pan-γδ-conjugated magnetic microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Germany #130-050-701). Purity was always > 90% by FITC-conjugated-Hapten MicroBeads staining (Miltenyi Biotec, Germany #130-050-701). After ZA stimulation, Vy9Vδ2 T cells were the predominant population also in MM patients who did not respond to ZA stimulation (Supplemental Figure 1). Cells were lysed in a MLB buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl, 750 mM NaCl, 1% v/v NP40, 10% v/v glycerol, 50 mM MgCl2, 5 mM EDTA, 25 mM NaF, 1 mM NaVO4, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, 10 µg/ml pepstatin, 10 µg/ml aprotinin, 1 mM phenylmethylsulphonyl fluoride, pH 7.5), sonicated and centrifuged at $13,000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C. Twenty µg of proteins from cell lysates were subjected to Western blotting and probed with the antibodies listed in Supplemental Table II. The proteins were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (Bio-Rad Laboratories). The band density analysis was performed using the ImageJ software (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) and expressed as arbitrary units. The ratio band density of each protein/band density of tubulin (as housekeeping protein) was calculated in each experimental condition. For untreated/baseline/unstimulated cells, the band density ratio was considered 1. For the other experimental conditions, the ratio was expressed as proportion towards the ratio obtained in untreated cells.

ELISA

Supernatants (S/N) from Ctrl and MM BMMC stimulated for 7 days with 10 IU/ml IL2, 1 µM ZA+10 IU/ml IL2 in the presence or absence of aPD1 were collected and stored at -80°C. The concentration of human IL27 was quantified in S/N by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) technology with the IL-27 Human ELISA kit (Invitrogen; Catalogue number: # BMS2085) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Statistical analysis

The results are expressed as mean ± SE. Differences between the groups have been evaluated with the one-way analysis of variance, and the Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney non-parametric test for paired or unpaired samples as appropriate and considered to be statistically significant for p values <0.05. Correlation analyses have been performed with the nonparametric Spearman Rank Order test with a cut-off p value <0.05.

Results

Dual PD-1/TIM-3 expression, functional exhaustion, and immune senescence are intertwined in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells

Figure 1A shows PD-1, TIM-3, LAG-3 and CTLA-4 expression in resting PB and BM Vy9V82 T cells from Ctrl and MM patients. PD-1 and TIM-3 expression was significantly higher in BM of MM patients than in Ctrl samples. After ZA stimulation, BM MM $V\gamma 9V\gamma 2$ T cells further increased PD-1 (9) and TIM-3 expression (Figure 1B), while the increase in BM Ctrl $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells was limited and significantly lower (Figure 1B). Cytofluorometric analysis from one representative MM shows



FIGURE 1

ICP expression and subset distribution in resting and ZA-stimulated BM MM Vy9V82 T cells. (A) PD-1, TIM-3, LAG-3 and CTLA-4 expression in resting PB and BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from healthy subjects (Ctrl) and MM at diagnosis. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 5 (BM Ctrl) to 30 (BM MM) experiments. (B) PD-1 and TIM-3 expression are significantly increased after ZA stimulation in MM BM Vγ9Vδ2 T cells. Bars represent mean values ± SE from 7 (BM Ctrl) to 30 (BM MM) experiments; (C) Cytofluorimetric analysis of PD-1 and TIM-3 co-expression in BM MM Vγ9Vδ2 T cells from one representative MM after ZA stimulation. (D) TIM-3 expression in naive (CD27+ CD45RA+), central memory (CM) (CD27+ CD45RA-), effector memory (EM) (CD27- CD45RA-), and terminally differentiated effector memory (TEMRA) (CD27- CD45RA+) BM MM Vγ9Vδ2 T cells after ZA stimulation. CM BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells show the highest TIM-3 expression. Bars represent mean values \pm SE of 3 experiments.

that PD-1 and TIM-3 are co-expressed by approximately 60% of BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after ZA stimulation (Figure 1C). In freshly isolated V γ 9V δ 2 T cells we have previously shown that central memory (CM) V γ 9V δ 2 T cells display the highest PD-1 expression (9). After ZA stimulation, TIM-3 up-regulation was documented in all V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell subsets with CM and naïve V γ 9V δ 2 T cells showing slightly higher levels than effector memory (EM) and terminally differentiated effector memory (TEMRA) V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (Figure 1D). The gating strategy used to investigate TIM-3 expression in V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell subsets is shown in Supplemental Figure 2.

Figure 2A compares the expression of immune senescence markers (33, 41, 42) in BM Ctrl and MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells showed significantly higher CD57 and CD160, and lower CD28 expression than BM Ctrl V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, even if differences were not statistically significant. The highest CD160 expression was observed in CM BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells which is the cell subset with the highest PD-1 (9) and TIM-3 expression (Figure 2B). Cytofluorometric analysis of CD160 and PD-1 co-expression in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from one representative sample is shown in Figure 2B (right panel).

Phosphorylated- γ H2AX (p- γ H2AX) is an early marker of DNA damage associated to immune senescence (43). p- γ H2AX expression in BM Ctrl and MM-dia V γ 9V δ 2 T cells is shown in Figure 2C (one representative experiment) and Figure 2D (pooled data). These experiments were performed on purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Both V δ 1 and V γ 9V δ 2 subsets can be represented in variable proportions in freshly purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells (day 0), whereas after ZA stimulation V γ 9V δ 2 T cells become predominant (Supplemental Figure 1) and any change should be referred to these because they are the only $\gamma\delta$ T cells, p- γ H2AX expression was slightly higher in MM than Ctrl, but the difference was not statistically significant. After ZA stimulation,



FIGURE 2

ICP expression in BM MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells is associated with chronic exhaustion and immune senescence markers. (A) CD57, CD160 and CD28 expression in BM Ctrl and BM MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 3 (BM Ctrl) to 50 (BM MM) experiments. Differences are not statistically significant. (B) *left*: CM is the BM MM V₂9V δ 2 T-cell subset with the highest CD160 expression. Bars represent mean values \pm SE of 8 experiments; *right*: cytofluorometric analysis of CD160 and PD-1 co-expression in BM MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells from one representative sample. (C) Western blot analysis of p-γH2AX expression in resting (upper panel) and ZA-stimulated (lower panel) V₂9V δ 2 T cells from one representative BM Ctrl and MM sample. Tubulin expression is shown to confirm equal protein loading per lane. (D) Densitometric analysis of p-γH2AX expression data in resting (day 0) and ZA-stimulated (day 7) BM Ctrl and MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 1 (BM Ctrl and BM MM d0) to 4 (BM MM) experiments. (E) CD38, CD39, and CD73 expression in resting BM Ctrl and BM MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 1 (BM Ctrl and BM MM d0) to 4 (BM Ctrl) to 40 (BM MM) experiments. (F) CFSE-based analysis of BM MM CD4+ and CD8+ proliferation after 72-hour stimulation with α CD3 + α CD28 in the presence (BMMC) or absence (BMMC- γ ⁶- T-cell depleted) of BM V₂9V δ 2 T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 4 (BM Ctrl) to 16 (BM MM) experiments. (H) Intracellular IL-17 expression in resting BM Ctrl and MM V₂9V δ 2 T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 4 (BM Ctrl) to 15 (BM MM) experiments.

p-γH2AX expression was significantly increased in BM MM only (Figures 2C, D).

IL-7 has been reported to mitigate the induction of immune senescence of conventional T cells exposed to tumor cells (44, 45). We have investigated whether exogenous IL-7 could relieve the immune dysfunction of BM MM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells, but we have not observed any beneficial effect (data not shown).

Accumulating evidences indicate that V γ 9V δ 2 T cells can exert different functions depending on the local microenvironment, including the ability to promote tumor progression *via* the acquisition of regulatory or pro-tumoral functions (46). Figure 2E shows the expression of CD38, CD39, and CD73 in BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from Ctrl and MM patients. These molecules cooperate in the induction of the immune suppressive TME in MM *via* adenosine production (47). Only CD38 was significantly up-regulated in MM compared with Ctrl, whereas no differences were observed in CD39 and CD73 expression. The adenosine circuitry operated by CD38, CD39, and CD73 is well known to contribute to the establishment of the immune suppressive contexture in the TME of MM (47), but our data indicate that V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are not directly involved in this immune suppressive circuitry.

Lastly, BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells did not show any phenotypic and/or functional features consistent with suppressor and/or pro-tumoral functions. The proliferation of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells after α CD3/ α CD28 stimulation was similar in the presence or absence of $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Figure 2F). Supplementary Figure 3A shows that proliferation of BM MM CD4+ and CD8+ cells was similar or even better compared with PB Ctrl CD4+ and CD8+ cells. Unlike BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, CD4 + and CD8+ cell proliferation was not influenced by the disease status (Supplementary Figure 3B), confirming the unique BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell susceptibility to the immune suppressive TME contexture.

The expression of PD-L1, GAL-9 and IL-17 characterizes V γ 9V δ 2 T cells with pro-tumoral functions in the TME (48). As shown in Figures 2G, H, the expression of GAL-9 and cytoplasmic IL-17 was similar in BM Ctrl and MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells except for PD-L1 expression, which was slightly increased in the former, but the difference was not statistically significant. Representative dot plots of IL-17 expression in BM MM and Ctrl V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are shown in Supplemental Figure 4.

Altered expression of TCR-associated molecules in BM MM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells

ICP expression and immune senescence in T cells are associated with defective intracellular TCR signaling (49, 50). Figure 3A shows the expression of selected TCR-associated molecules in purified BM $\gamma\delta$ T cells from one representative Ctrl and MM patient on day 0 and after ZA-stimulation (day 7). As reported above, both V δ 1 and V γ 9V δ 2 cells are represented

in freshly purified $\gamma\delta$ T cells (day 0), whereas V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are predominant on day 7 and they are the only $\gamma\delta$ T-cell subset engaged by ZA (Supplemental Figure 1). Pooled data are shown in Figure 3B showing that BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells had significantly lower pAKT, higher PTEN, and lower pSTAT-1 expression on day 7 compared to BM Ctrl V γ 9V δ 2 T cells.

ZAP-70 and CD3-ζ chain are other TCR-associated molecules defectively expressed in T cells from the TME of mice and humans (51). ZAP-70 expression was significantly lower in resting BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells compared with PB and BM Ctrl V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, but also with PB MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (Figure 3C), further confirming the striking difference between circulating vs TME-resident Vγ9Vδ2 T cells. Representative dot plots are shown in Figure 3D. Paired analyses of $V\gamma 9V\delta 2+$ and CD3+ V γ 9V δ 2- cells showed that the mean ZAP-70 expression was also significantly down-regulated in BM CD3+ Vγ9Vδ2- T cells of MM patients with a wide range of expression in individual samples (Supplemental Figure 5). A slight increase was observed after ZA stimulation in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from 3 MM patients with low ZAP-70 expression at baseline, but values remained inferior to Ctrl values (Figure 3E). Unlike ZAP-70, the proportion and MFI of CD3-ζ chain expression were not different in PB and BM Ctrl and MM Vy9Vδ2 T cells (Supplemental Figure 6).

PD-1/TIM-3 cross-talk in BM MM $V\gamma$ 9V δ 2 T cells

It has been reported that TIM-3 up-regulation is involved in the acquired resistance to PD-1 blockade (31, 52, 53). Thus, we have investigated whether TIM-3 was involved in the incomplete recovery of BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after ZA stimulation and single PD-1 blockade. Figure 4A shows that both TIM-3 expression and MFI values were significantly up-regulated in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in the presence of α PD-1, whereas PD-1 expression was slightly down-regulated after ZA stimulation in the presence of α TIM-3, but the decrease was not statistically significant. Representative cytofluorometric analyses of increased TIM-3 up-regulation and PD-1 down-regulation are shown in Figure 4A (right panel) and Figure 4B (right panel).

Next, we investigated whether dual PD1-/TIM-3 blockade was more effective than single blockade. We evaluated the proliferation (Figure 4C), IFN- γ production (Figure 4D) and CD107 expression (Figure 4E) in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after ZA stimulation in the presence of α PD-1, α TIM-3, and the combination thereof. Representative cytofluorometric analyses of increased IFN- γ and CD107 expression in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells after dual blockade are shown in Figure 4D (right panel) and Figure 4E (right panel). Our results indicate that dual blockade PD-1/TIM-3 blockade is more effective than single PD-1 or TIM-3 blockade in MM-dia to mitigate BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell dysfunctions.



pooled data from ZA-stimulated BM Ctrl and BM MM $\gamma\delta$ T cells confirms lower expression of pAKT, and pSTAT1, and higher PTEN expression in BM MM $\gamma\delta$ T cells vs BM Ctrl $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 1 (BM Ctrl d0 and BM MM d0) to 14 experiments (BM MM). (C) ZAP-70 expression in resting PB and BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from Ctrl and MM patients. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 3 (BM Ctrl) to 25 experiments (BM MM); (D) cytofluorimetric analysis of ZAP-70 expression in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from BM and PB MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells and BM and PB Ctrl; (E) ZAP-70 expression after ZA stimulation in Ctrl and MM BM V γ 9V δ 2T cells. Bars represent mean values \pm SE from 2 (BM Ctrl) to 3 experiments (BM MM).

Dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade was also associated with a partial recovery of TCR-associated alterations. Data from one representative Ctrl and MM are shown in Figure 5A, while pooled data from 2 paired experiments are shown in Figure 5B. α PD-1 partially normalized pAKT and PTEN expression, whereas α TIM-3 partially normalized pJAK1 and pSTAT1 expression. No antagonist, additive or synergistic effect was observed suggesting that α PD-1 and α TIM-3 target mutually exclusive TCR-associated molecules in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. Supplementary Figure 8 shows pooled data from unpaired experiments after α PD-1 treatment only.

Intracellular PD-1/TIM-3 cross-talk is not mediated by the IL-27/pSTAT1/T-bet or the PI3K-AKT pathways

Next, we looked for possible intersections between the intracellular pathways triggered by α PD-1 and α TIM-3. Previous

work from Zhu C. et al. (54) has reported a cross-talk between TIM-3 and PD-1 mediated by the IL-27/pSTAT1/T-bet axis. BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells showed the lowest T-bet (Figure 6A), and the highest IL-27R expression (Figure 6B). This pattern has recently been reported in severely exhausted T cells from the BM of patients with AML in relapse after allogeneic transplantation (55). α PD-1 treatment did not increase T-bet and/or IL-27R expression in ZA-stimulated BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells (Figures 6C, D). Moreover, low IL-27 levels were detected in the supernatants of BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells which were not modified by α PD-1 (Figure 6E).

The PI3K/Akt axis is another intracellular signalling pathway connecting PD-1 and TIM-3 in tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes from patients with head and neck cancer (53). In these cells, TIM-3 up-regulation induced by α PD-1 can be abrogated with LY294002, a broad PI3K inhibitor (53). Thus, we evaluated whether α PD-1-induced TIM-3 up-regulation in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells could be inhibited by single pSTAT-1 inhibition with fludarabine monophosphate (FAMP) (56), single PI3K inhibition with LY294002, or the combination thereof.



FIGURE 4

Intracellular cross-talk between PD-1 and TIM-3 in BM MM V γ 9V82 T cells. (A) *left*: Percentage and MFI of TIM-3+ cells are significantly upregulated in BM MM V γ 9V82 T cells after ZA stimulation in the presence of α PD1. Bars represent mean values \pm SE of 6 experiments; *right*: cytofluorimetric analysis of TIM-3 expression after ZA stimulation in the absence (upper panel) or in the presence (lower panel) of α PD-1 in one representative experiment; (B) *left*: PD-1 expression is slightly down-regulated in BM MM V γ 9V82 T cells after ZA stimulation in the presence of α TIM-3, but the difference is not statistically significant. PD-1 expression is significantly up-regulated after ZA stimulation as already reported in Figure 1B. Bars represent mean values \pm SE of 5 experiments; *right*: cytofluorimetric analysis of PD-1 expression after ZA stimulation in the absence (upper panel) or in the presence (lower panel) of α TIM-3 in one representative experiment; (C) ZA-induced BM MM V γ 9V82 T-cell proliferation in the absence or in the presence of α PD-1, α TIM-3 and the combination thereof. Bars represent mean values \pm SEM of 5 experiments. (D) *left*: intracellular IFN- γ production by ZA-stimulated BM MM V γ 9V82 in the absence or in the presence of α PD-1, α TIM-3 and the combination thereof. Bars represent mean values \pm SEM of 4 experiments; *right*: cytofluorimetric analyses of IFN- γ production in BM MM V γ 9V82 T cells after ZA stimulation in the absence (upper panel) or in the presence (lower panel) of unit MM V γ 9V82 T cells after ZA stimulation in the absence (upper panel) or in the presence of α PD-1, α TIM-3 with the combination thereof. Bars represent mean values \pm SEM of 4 experiments; *right*: cytofluorimetric analyses of IFN- γ production in BM MM V γ 9V82 T cells after ZA stimulation in the absence or in the presence (lower panel) of dual PD1/TIM-3 blockade. (E) *left*: CD107 expression in ZA-stimulated BM MM V γ 9V82 in the absence or in the presence of α PD-1, α TIM

Results shown in Figure 6F indicate that these pathways are not druggable to prevent α PD-1-induced TIM-3 up-regulation in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells.

Improved efficacy by tailoring ICP blockade to the disease status

Next, we investigated whether the ICP/ICP-L immune suppressive circuitry was influenced by the disease status. PD-1 expression was significantly higher in MM-rel than in MM-dia, while MM-rem showed intermediate values. By contrast, no differences were observed in TIM-3 expression between MM-dia, MM-rem, and MM rel (Figure 7A). We investigated whether α PD-1 treatment induced TIM-3 up-regulation also in MM-rem

and MM-rel. Figure 7B shows that TIM-3 was up-regulated in MM-dia only, but not in MM-rem and MM-rel.

The effect of single or dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade on ZAinduced proliferation in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM-dia, MM-rem and MM-rel is shown in Figure 7C. BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from MM-rem were the only ones to reach normal proliferation values with single PD-1 or TIM-3 blockade, the former being slightly more effective than the latter. Dual PD-1/ TIM-3 blockade was not superior to single blockade in MM-rem. By contrast dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade was more effective than single blockade in MM-dia, the only clinical setting in which α PD-1 induces TIM-3 up-regulation. BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from MM-rel showed the worst anergy to single and dual blockade, even if TIM-3 expression was similar to MM-dia and MM-rem and was not up-regulated by α PD-1 (Figures 7A, B).



These findings prompted us to investigate the expression of additional ICP on BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM-rel. Figure 7D shows that LAG-3 expression was similar in resting (day 0) BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from MM-dia, MM-rem, and MM-rel. After ZA stimulation, LAG-3 expression was slightly increased in MM-dia, unmodified in MM-rem, and increased in MM-rel, even if the differences was not statistically significant. Next, we determined which PD-1/TIM-3/LAG-3 combination was more effective to mitigate the anergy of BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM-rel. Results shown in Figure 7E indicate that dual PD-1/LAG-3 blockade was more effective than dual PD-1/TIM-3, dual TIM-3/LAG-3, and even triple PD-1/TIM-3/LAG-3 blockade, but still inferior to that reached in MM-rem after single PD-1 or TIM-3 blockade, or MM-dia after dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade.

These data confirm that the relapse is the most challenging setting, and immune-based strategies should be delivered in remission, when the immune suppressive TME commitment is partially relieved.

Discussion

In this work, we have used $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells as cellular decoders to investigate the role played by the ICP/ICP-L network in the TME of MM patients. A significant proportion

of resting BM MM Vy9V82 T cells showed PD-1 and TIM-3 coexpression, as previously reported in Vγ9Vδ2 T cells chronically exposed to infectious agents (28) or to cancer cells in solid (29, 30) and blood tumors (31). PD-1 and TIM-3 co-expression is considered a phenotypic hallmark of functional exhaustion (24, 26). However, multiple ICP expression is not sufficient per se to identify functionally exhausted cells. One reason is that immune competent T cells can also express ICP after activation, but in this case ICP expression is transient and finalized to dampen Tcell activation to prevent uncontrolled immune reactions and autoimmunity. In contrast, ICP expression on chronically activated T cells reflects a dysfunctional state induced by the long-term exposure to antigens in the context of an inappropriate microenvironment. We have previously shown that BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are exposed to supra-physiological IPP concentrations released in large amounts by BMSC and, to a lower extent by myeloma cells (57). Thus, BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells fulfil the operational criteria of functionally exhausted cells because: 1) PD-1/TIM-3 co-expression is associated with functional dysfunctions; 2) functional dysfunctions are observed after challenging the normal counterpart (i.e., BM Ctrl V γ 9V δ 2 T cells) with the same antigen (i.e., ZA) in the same microenvironment (i.e., BM) (58). After ZA stimulation, BM MM Vγ9Vδ2 T cells further up-regulated PD-1 and TIM-3 expression. In mice, functionally exhausted cells are



hierarchically organized from progenitor to terminally differentiated exhausted T cells (58), the latter being more difficult to rescue than the former. Our data indicate that inadvertent or inappropriate engagement of immune effector cells can worsen functional exhaustion also in humans.

PD-1+ TIM-3+ BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells expressed immune senescence markers (33, 41, 42). V γ 9V δ 2 T cells from normal individuals are particularly resistant to immune senescence due to their peculiar capacity to adapt to life-long stimulation (59). In MM, the immune suppressive TME turns off the capacity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to resist life-long stimulation. CD160 expression was mainly restricted to CM and TEMRA BM MM V γ V δ 2 T cells, which is the subset with the highest ICP expression. Interestingly, the loss of CD27 and CD28 and the expression of TIM-3 and CD57 on T cells has been associated with resistance to ICP blockade (35).

Immune senescence of BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells was confirmed by the expression of p γ H2AX. A weak p γ H2AX expression was already detectable in freshly isolated BM $\gamma\delta$ T

cells, but significantly increased after ZA stimulation, whereas no expression was detected in resting or ZA-stimulated BM Ctrl samples. γ H2AX phosphorylation is used by mammalian cells to prevent genomic instability after DNA breakage induced by genotoxic stress or senescence (60). Our data indicate that p γ H2AX quantification can be used to predict the functional outcome of immune effector cells after stimulation, and not only to screen the genotoxic profile of drugs and to identify senescent cells in aging and disease (61).

The functional plasticity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells embedded in the immune suppressive TME can lead to the acquisition of regulatory or pro-tumoral functions (46). We have not found any phenotypic or functional evidence to support a regulatory/ pro-tumoral shift of BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells in MM, unlike colon, breast and other solid cancers in which immune senescent $\gamma\delta$ T cells have been reported to suppress the proliferation of conventional T cells (62–65).

Exhaustion and immune senescence of BM MM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells were associated with alterations in the TCR signaling



pathway. pAKT, pSTAT1, pJAK1, and ZAP-70 were downregulated, while PTEN was up-regulated in MM BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. ZAP-70 was also down-regulated in BM CD3+ V γ 9V δ 2-T cells of MM patients. The significantly lower ZAP-70 expression in BM compared further confirms how powerful is the immune conditioning exerted by the prolonged exposure to tumor cells in the TME. In contrast, we have not observed CD3- ζ chain down-modulation in V γ 9V δ 2 T cells and CD3+ V γ 9V δ 2- T cells unlike previous reports (51). Increasing evidence suggests that ZAP-70 down-regulation in T cells and NK cells can contribute to impairment of anti -tumor immune responses and bias the efficacy of immunotherapy (66). We are currently investigating whether ZAP-70 expression is correlated with V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell dysfunctions in MM.

TIM-3 was significantly up-regulated after ZA stimulation in the presence of α PD1, whereas PD-1 was not up-regulated after ZA stimulation in the presence of α TIM3, indicating a one-way rather than two-way cross-talk between these molecules. TIM-3 up-regulation after PD-1 blockade in conventional T cells is considered a potential mechanism of adaptive resistance to α PD-1 *in vitro* (52, 53, 67) and *in vivo* (52, 53, 68).

Dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade was more effective than single ICP blockade to partially recover proliferation, IFN- γ production, and CD107 expression in BM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, and to mitigate the altered expression of TCR-associated molecules. Dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade has also been reported to upregulate IFN- γ and TNF- α production in PB V γ 9V δ 2 T cells of AML patients after pAg stimulation (31).

Dual ICP blockade is currently carried on in the clinical setting using mAb combinations willing to improve response rates and/or overcome acquired resistance to single ICP blockade (69). However, this strategy is burdened by clinical and financial toxicities (70), and alternative approaches are under investigation (69, 71). One alternative approach could be the identification of druggable intracellular intersections between these pathways. To this end, we have investigated the IL-27/pSTAT1/T-bet, and the PI3K/AKT pathways that have been reported to connect PD-1 and TIM-3 in tumor-bearing

mice and patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (53, 54), but we have not found any evidence of PD-1/TIM-3 cross-talk *via* these pathways in BM MM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells.

Interestingly, T-bet expression was low in resting BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells as recently shown in the BM of patients with AML. In these patients, the emergence of severely exhausted (i.e., T-bet^{low}, PD-1+) T cells has been reported to predict disease relapse after allogeneic transplantation (55). By contrast, IL-27R expression was high in BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, whereas soluble IL-27 levels were low and did not increase after ZA stimulation. We speculate that BM MM V γ 9V δ 2 T cells are equipped with a high number of IL-27R to catch the small amount of IL-27 available in the TME to eventually improve their fitness, and not to up-regulate TIM-3.

This is the first report comparing the role of ICP/ICP-L and their blockade in the TME of MM-dia, MM-rem and MM-rel. PD-1 expression in BM MM Vy9V82 T cells was significantly higher in MM-rel than in MM-rem and MM-dia, whereas TIM-3 expression was not different. Interestingly, MM-rem showed significantly higher PD-1 expression than MM-dia, indicating that it is not trivial for BM MM $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells to get rid of the immune suppressive imprinting operated by the TME. Single or dual blockade PD-1/TIM-3 showed different efficacy according to the disease status. MM-rem showed the best recovery in the presence of the α PD-1 or α TIM-3: the former was slightly better than the latter, whereas the combination did not show any additive or synergistic effect. Dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade showed an additive effect in MM-dia, whereas MM-rel were totally refractory, no matter single or dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade was applied. It remains to be determined in MM-rel whether the immune dysfunction anticipates the myeloma cell regrowth or vice-versa.

Our data confirm that the refractory/relapse setting remains the most difficult challenge for immune-based interventions. Paradoxically, this is also the clinical setting usually selected for first-in-man or phase I/II studies, including MM (72), with the risk to jeopardize future investigation since results will rarely meet clinical expectations. Interestingly, BM Vy9V82 T cells from MM-rel significantly up-regulated LAG-3 after ZA stimulation in addition to PD-1 and TIM-3. In the MC38 mouse tumor model, dual PD-1/TIM-3 blockade increases the expression of LAG-3 in T cells, and LAG-3 expression confers resistance to α PD-1/ α TIM-3 treatment (73). Increased LAG-3 expression in T cells of patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) has been associated with resistance to $\alpha PD-1$ treatment and shorter progression-free survival (22). Likewise, co-expression of PD-1, TIM-3, and LAG-3 in TILs of patients clear cell renal cell carcinoma (CCRC) has been associated with high risk of early progression (23).

Dual PD-1/LAG-3 blockade was the most effective combination to improve the proliferative responses to ZA stimulation in MM-rel, confirming the profound immune suppressive TME commitment in this setting. Triple PD-1/ TIM-3/LAG-3 blockade has been proposed to overcome this barrier in syngeneic mouse tumor models (73), but in our hands triple blockade was less effective than dual PD-1/LAG-3 blockade. Alternative strategies can be dual ICP blockade after lymphodepletion by whole body radiation, as reported in the 5T33 murine MM model (74), or after the addition of TGF- β inhibitors as reported by Kwon et al. (25), but these strategies are not easy to apply to humans.

In conclusion, the immune suppressive TME contexture in MM is under dynamic evolution and ICP blockade should be individually tailored to gain the maximum efficacy. The remission phase remains the most favorable setting to deliver $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T-cell-based immune interventions.

Data availability statement

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/Supplementary material. Further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author.

Ethics statement

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Comitato Etico Interaziendale A.O. Santa Croce e Carle di Cuneo AA. SS. LL. Cuneo 1, Cuneo 2, Asti. n.176-19 December 11, 2019. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

Author contributions

CG, BC, and JK performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and contributed to the manuscript writing and editing; MM and CR designed and supervised the experiments, analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript; ET, IA, MDA, and AL managed samples collection, analyzed and correlated clinical data, and contributed to the manuscript editing. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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Conflict of interest

MM reports advisory boards for AbbVie, Janssen-Cilag, Sanofi, and research funding from Sanofi; MG reports advisory boards for Amgen, Bristol Myers Squibb, and Janssen-Cilag; MDA reports honoraria for lectures and advisory boards for GlaxoSmithKline, and Sanofi; AL reports honoraria and advisory boards for Janssen-Gilag, Bristol Myers Squibb, Amgen, Takeda, Oncopeptides, GlaxoSmithKline, Sanofi, and Karyopharm.

The remaining authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/ fimmu.2022.1073227/full#supplementary-material

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