Title

Clonal spreading of tumor-infiltrating T cells underlies the robust antitumor immune

responses

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Summary

The repertoire of tumor-infiltrating T cells is an emerging perspective for characterizing effective antitumor T-cell responses. Oligoclonal expansion of tumor T-cell repertoire has been evaluated; however, their association with antitumor effects is unclear. We demonstrated that the polyclonal fraction of the tumor-reactive T-cell repertoire consisting of relatively minor clones increased in tumor-bearing mice treated with anti-PD-L1 or anti-CD4 monoclonal antibody, which was correlated with antitumor effect. Meanwhile, the size of the oligoclonal fraction consisting of major clones remained unchanged. Moreover, the polyclonal fraction was enriched in progenitor exhausted T cells, which are essential for a durable antitumor response, and was more dependent on CCR7$^+$ migratory dendritic cells, which are responsible for priming tumor-reactive T cells in the tumor-draining lymph nodes. These results suggest that the expansion of diverse tumor-reactive clones ("clonal spreading") is an important mechanism by which anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments induce robust and durable antitumor T-cell responses.

Keywords: TCR repertoire**,** tumor-infiltrating T cells, dLN-tumor overlap, polyclonal fraction, clonal spreading, anti-PD-L1 mAb, anti-CD4 mAb, progenitor exhausted T cells,

37   migratory DC

Introduction

Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), including programmed cell death-1 (PD-1) inhibitors, are widely used to treat various types of cancer. However, only 20%–30% of patients respond to ICIs (Ribas and Wolchok, 2018), and the factors determining the differences between responders and non-responders remain unknown. The differences in clinical responses are not only due to the immune resistance mechanism of the tumor but also due to the strength of the antitumor immune response induced by ICIs (Havel, Chowell, and Chan, 2019). Hence, characterizing the antitumor immune response that leads to better clinical outcomes is critical for optimizing patient selection and developing new therapeutic combinations.

CD8$^+$ tumor-infiltrating T-lymphocytes (TILs), the primary effector cells of the antitumor immune response, are composed of various T-cell clones with different antigen specificities determined by T-cell receptors (TCRs) (Gros et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2021; Pasetto et al., 2016). TCR transgenic mice (Overwijk et al., 2003) and peptide-major histocompatibility complex (MHC) multimer technology (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2009) have been used in several pre-clinical and clinical studies to analyze the characteristics of a small set of clones with high affinity to tumor antigens. More recently, TCR sequencing, a global analysis of TCRs using next-generation sequencing,

has enabled the analysis of a collection of T-cell clones and the TCR repertoire (Aversa

et al., 2020; Kidman et al., 2020). Hence, the TCR repertoire has been used to

investigate the features of antitumor T-cell responses, leading to better therapeutic

effects.

The TCR repertoire of TILs is highly skewed toward a small number of clones,

in which the top 1% of the most abundant clones result in more than 20% of the TILs,

suggesting the expansion of tumor-reactive clones (Casarrubios et al., 2021; Zhang et

al., 2020). Thus, the features of the TCR repertoire of TILs have been evaluated using

the clonality index (Chiffelle et al., 2020), representing the extent to which a part of the

T-cell clones expanded in the repertoire ("clonal skewing"). Indeed, a higher clonality is

associated with antitumor effects (Dovedi et al., 2017; Riaz et al., 2017; Yusko et al.,

2019; Zhang et al., 2020). T-cell clones that encounter antigens and proliferate in tumors

differentiate into a dysfunctional state called exhaustion (van der Leun et al., 2020; Li et

al., 2019; McLane et al., 2019). In contrast, the TIL subpopulations associated with a

good response to anti-PD-1 mAb treatment are less exhausted and moderately expanded

in tumors (Gueguen et al., 2021). Thus, T-cell responses in which diverse tumor-reactive

clones expand moderately ("clonal spreading") are also expected to exert a desirable

antitumor effect. However, the contribution of clonal spreading to the antitumor

immune response has not been intensively studied.

T-cell clones that recognize epitopes unrelated to tumors also infiltrate the

tumor tissue and form medium- and low-frequency clones ("bystander" clones) (Simoni

et al., 2018). Thus, to assess the clonal spreading of tumor-reactive T cells, it is

important to distinguish the medium- and low-frequency tumor-reactive clones from

bystander clones. T-cell clones present in both tumor-draining lymph nodes (dLNs) and

tumors (dLN-tumor overlapping (OL) clones) are considered to be enriched in tumor-

reactive clones that are primed in the dLN and trafficked into the tumor via blood

circulation (Aoki et al., 2022; Chen and Mellman, 2013). Considering that the newly

emerged TIL clones replace exhausted clones during the anti-PD-1 therapy (Yost et al.,

2019), the overlapping TIL clones supplied by the dLNs seem to play a central role in

anti-tumor T cell responses. We have previously demonstrated that an anti-CD4

monoclonal antibody (anti-CD4 mAb), which exerts potent antitumor effects in mice

and humans by depleting CD4$^+$ cells, including Tregs, and activating tumor-reactive

CD8$^+$ T-cell responses (Aoki et al., 2019, 2021; Shitara et al., 2019; Ueha et al., 2015),

significantly increased the number and total frequency of dLN-tumor OL clones.

However, it was unclear whether the increase in dLN-tumor repertoire overlap was also

observed with PD-1 blockade and a combination of anti-CD4 and anti-PD-L1 mAbs

(hereafter designated as "CD4+PDL1"), which exert synergistic anti-tumor effect (Ueha

et al., 2015). Furthermore, it remains unclear whether this increase in the frequency of

dLN-tumor OL clones is due to clonal skewing or spreading.

Here, we performed a T-cell receptor repertoire analysis of B16F10 and Lewis

lung carcinoma tumor-bearing mice treated with anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 mAbs. By

analyzing the dLN-tumor OL repertoire, we demonstrated that the number of TIL clones

supplied by dLNs increased after anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatment owing to clonal

spreading rather than clonal skewing. Moreover, the greater extent of clonal spreading

in anti-CD4 and CD4+PDL1 combination treatment was correlated with their superior

anti-tumor effects.

Results

Anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments increased the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap

in a B16 melanoma model

In our previous study, we demonstrated that anti-CD4 treatment increases the

total frequency of dLN-tumor OL CD8$^+$ T-cell clones (Aoki et al., 2019). To examine

whether the increase in the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap also occurs in anti-PD-L1

treatment or in CD4+PDL1 combination treatment, we analyzed the TCR repertoire of

B16F10 tumor-bearing mice treated with anti-PD-L1 mAb, anti-CD4 mAb, and

CD4+PDL1 treatments (Figure 1A). In this model, the anti-CD4 and CD4+PDL1

treatments caused an antitumor effect on day 13, while the anti-PD-L1 treatment did not

(Figure 1B and 1C). The TCR repertoire of CD44^{hi} CD8$^+$ T cells in the dLN and CD8$^+$ T

cells in the tumor was analyzed on day 14 after tumor inoculation (Figure 1D, E). We then

identified the dLN-tumor OL clones and compared their total frequency among the

treatment groups (Figure 1F and G). The treatment with anti-CD4 mAb and CD4+PDL1

significantly increased the total frequency of OL clones in the dLN and tumors (Figure

1H and I). The anti-PD-L1 treatment significantly increased the total frequency of OL

clones in the tumor to a lesser extent (Figure 1I). These results suggest that both the anti-

PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments enhanced the mobilization of tumor-reactive clones in

the antitumor T-cell response.

The clonality of the TCR repertoire, which is the extent of clonal skewing in

tissues, are commonly evaluated to monitor the antitumor T-cell responses (Chiffelle et

al., 2020). In the dLN repertoire, clonality increased in the anti-CD4 and CD4+PDL1

groups, consistent with the increase in the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap (Figure S1A).

In contrast, clonality did not change in the tumor repertoire between the treatment groups

with different antitumor responses (Figure S1A). This suggests that in the B16 model, the

dLN-tumor repertoire overlap reflects the effect of immunotherapies on the tumor T-cell

repertoire more clearly than the commonly used clonality index.

Clonal spreading was prominent in the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap following

anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments

Next, we examined whether the increase in the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap

following the anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments was due to clonal skewing or clonal

spreading of the tumor-reactive clones. For this purpose, dLN-tumor OL clones were

categorized into "top 10 clones" or "11th-or-lower clones" according to their frequency

in the tumor and were considered to belong to the "oligoclonal" or "polyclonal" fraction,

respectively (Figure 2A and B). The total frequencies of oligoclonal and polyclonal

overlap, which reflect the clonal skewing and spreading, respectively, were compared

between the treatment groups (Figure 2C). Oligoclonal overlap tended to increase

following anti-PD-L1 or anti-CD4 treatment; however, the differences were not

statistically significant. In contrast, polyclonal overlap increased significantly in the anti-

PD-L1, anti-CD4, and CD4+PD-L1 groups (Figure 2D). We also classified the clones into

major (> 1%), intermediate (0.1%–1%), and minor clones (< 0.1%) based on their

frequency within the tumor and confirmed that CD4 and PD-L1 expanded the polyclonal

OL clones (Figure S1B and C). Similar results were observed in the Lewis lung carcinoma

(LLC) tumor model: the polyclonal overlap increased in the treated groups, whereas the

oligoclonal overlap was the same as that in the control (Figure S1D). These results

demonstrate that the increase in the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap was mainly due to the

clonal spreading of tumor-reactive T cells rather than clonal skewing.

To clarify the association between clonal spreading and the antitumor effects of

immunotherapies, we calculated the correlation between the tumor volume on day 13 and

the oligoclonal or polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire (Figure 2E).

Polyclonal overlap was more strongly correlated with the tumor volume than oligoclonal

overlap. A stronger correlation between the polyclonal overlap and tumor volume was

also observed in the LLC model (Figure S1E). These results suggest that the clonal

spreading of tumor-reactive T cells induced by the anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments

enhances the antitumor T-cell responses, leading to therapeutic effects.

The polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire was enriched with

progenitor-like exhausted T cells

CD8$^+$ TILs display a dysfunctional state called exhaustion, which is

characterized by a high expression of inhibitory receptors such as PD-1 or T-cell

immunoglobulin and mucin-domain containing-3 (TIM-3) (McLane, Abdel-Hakeem, and

Wherry, 2019). Tumors contain two subsets of exhausted T cells: terminally exhausted T

cells are characterized by a high expression of inhibitory receptors and exhibit high tumor

reactivity, while progenitor exhausted T cells are characterized by improved persistence

and a self-renewal capacity (Thommen et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2019; Siddiqui et al.,

2019; Kallies, Zehn, and Utzschneider, 2020). Because progenitor exhausted T cells can

proliferate and generate terminally exhausted ones following PD-1 blockade, this subset

is thought to be essential for a durable antitumor T-cell response (Miller et al., 2019).

Based on these findings, we then investigated whether the progenitor exhausted cells

corresponded to a polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire, which reflects

clonal spreading.

To answer this question, single-cell targeted RNA sequencing and TCR

sequencing (scRNA/TCRseq) were performed using a BD Rhapsody system (Figure 3A).

CD8$^+$ TILs were collected from B16F10 tumor-bearing mice treated with anti-CD4 mAb,

and a library was generated for scRNA/TCRseq. Out of the 12,397 cells analyzed, paired

TCR sequences were detected in 10,649 cells (pairing efficiency, 85.9%). Eight clusters

were identified based on the single-cell gene expression profiles (Figure 3B and S2A).

Based on the expression levels of marker genes (Figure 3C and S2B) and the gene

expression signature scores (Figure 3D and S2C), we characterized these clusters as

"naïve (NV)-like" (#7), "progenitor exhausted" (#4 and 6), and "terminally exhausted"

(#0, 1, 2, 3, and 5). Among the "progenitor exhausted" clusters, cluster 4 showed an

intermediate level of exhaustion scores and a lower expression level of *Tcf7*, suggesting

an intermediate state between progenitor exhausted and terminally exhausted states

(Figure 3C and D). These findings were supported by the result of pseudotime analysis,

which revealed the trajectory from cluster 7 (NV-like) through clusters 4 and 6 (progenitor

exhausted) to clusters 0 and 1 (terminally exhausted) (Figure S2B). Among the

"terminally exhausted" clusters, cluster 2 was highly proliferative and cluster 3 was more

cytotoxic, according to the *Gzma* expression level and the cytotoxicity score (Figure S2C

and D). Moreover, cluster 5 was characterized by a high expression of interferon-

responsive genes, such as *Isg15* and *Mx1* (Figure 3C and S2D). The clonality of the

"terminally exhausted" clusters was higher than the "progenitor exhausted" and "NV-like"

clusters, showing that the "terminally exhausted" clusters were composed of highly

expanded clones (Figure S2E).

To compare the phenotype of the T-cell clones consisting of the oligoclonal and

polyclonal fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire, we identified the OL clones using

the results of bulk TCR-seq performed on dLN CD8$^+$ CD44^{high} T cells collected from the

same mouse (Figure 3A). Oligoclonal or polyclonal OL clones were projected onto a

uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) plot (Figure 3E, left). The

oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire contained very few

cells from the "NV-like" cluster (#7), which supported the tumor reactivity of the OL

clones. The proportion of "terminally exhausted" clusters (#0, 1, 2, 3, and 5) was over

50% in the oligoclonal and polyclonal overlap. At the same time, the proportion of

"progenitor exhausted" clusters (#4 and 6) was higher in the polyclonal fraction (4.4% in

the oligoclonal fraction vs. 28.5% in the polyclonal fraction; Figure 3E, right).

Consistently, the polyclonal fraction was predominant in the "progenitor exhausted"

clusters (Figure 3F and Table S1). Moreover, the genes representing the progenitor- and

terminally exhausted phenotypes were highly expressed in the polyclonal and oligoclonal

fraction, respectively (Figure S2F). At the clone level, a higher frequency of OL clones

in the tumor was associated with a lower score for the progenitor exhausted state and a

higher score for the terminally exhausted state (Figure 3G). These results demonstrate

that the oligoclonal OL mainly consisted of terminally exhausted T cells, while the

polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire was enriched in progenitor exhausted

T cells.

The polyclonal fraction of the OL repertoire was dominant in the Ly108$^+$ Tim-3$^-$ TIL

subpopulation

To confirm the results of the scRNA/TCRseq analysis in a high-throughput

manner, we performed bulk TCR repertoire analysis on the CD8$^+$ TIL subpopulations at

different exhaustion stages. Using Tim-3 and Ly108 as cell surface markers for progenitor

and terminally exhausted T cells (Miller et al., 2019; Kallies, Zehn, and Utzschneider,

2020), the CD8$^+$ TILs from B16F10 tumor-bearing mice treated with anti-PD-L1 and anti-

CD4 were sorted into PD1$^-$, PD1$^+$ Ly108$^+$ Tim-3$^-$ ("Ly108"), PD1$^+$ Ly108$^+$ Tim-3$^+$ ("DP"),

and PD1$^+$ Ly108$^-$ Tim-3$^+$ ("Tim-3") subsets using flow cytometry (Figure 4A). Among

these subpopulations, T-cell exhaustion is thought to progress in the following order: PD1$^-$,

Ly108, DP, and Tim-3 (Miller et al., 2019). We then analyzed the TCR repertoire of these

four TIL subsets as well as CD44^{hi} CD8$^+$ T cells in the dLN. The clonality of the TCR

repertoire was the lowest in PD1$^-$ and gradually increased in the DP and Tim-3 subsets in

anti-CD4-treated mice (Figure 4B). A similar tendency was observed in the anti-PDL1

and CD4+PDL1 groups (Figure S3A). These results show that the repertoire of the PD1$^-$

and Ly108 subsets was more polyclonal than that of DP and Tim-3, consistent with the

scRNA/TCRseq analysis results (Figure S2D).

Next, we attempted to verify whether the polyclonal overlap predominated in the

progenitor exhausted population. For this purpose, we estimated the frequency of each

clone in the total CD8$^+$ TILs ("pooled") by estimating the frequency within the TIL

subsets (PD1$^-$, Ly108, DP, and Tim-3) weighted by the total cell count of these subsets

(Figure 4C, example). We confirmed that the frequency of each clone in the pooled

repertoire, which was estimated as described previously, was correlated with the

frequency in the real CD8$^+$ TIL repertoire (Figure S3B). Subsequently, the OL clones in

the oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions were identified based on their frequency in the

pooled CD8$^+$ TIL repertoire (Figure 4C), and their total frequency in each T-cell subset

was calculated (PD1$^-$, Ly108, DP, and Tim-3). In the anti-CD4 group, the proportion of

the oligoclonal fraction was significantly higher in the DP and Tim-3 subsets than in the

PD1$^-$ and Ly108 subsets, while that of the polyclonal fraction was the highest in the Ly108

subset (Figure 4D). Consistently, the proportion of the polyclonal fraction surpassed that

of the oligoclonal fraction in Ly108 cells (Figure 4E). These results confirmed the

findings of the scRNA/TCRseq analysis that the oligoclonal fraction predominated

among terminally exhausted T cells, while the polyclonal fraction contained more

progenitor exhausted T cells in the dLN-tumor OL repertoire. Notably, the CD4+PDL1

group exhibited results similar to those of the anti-CD4 group; however, this tendency

was not observed in the anti-PDL1 group (Figure S3C and D). This may reflect a weaker

degree of clonal spreading in the anti-PDL1 group than in the anti-CD4 or CD4+PDL1

group.

Enhanced priming by migratory DCs in the dLN contributed to clonal spreading

following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments

Our results from the TCR repertoire analysis proposed that the clonal spreading

of tumor-reactive T cells contributed to the antitumor effect induced by anti-PD-L1 and

anti-CD4 treatments in the B16F10 model. As for the mechanism of clonal spreading, we

hypothesized that the anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments enhanced the priming of more

diverse T-cell clones in the dLN. To test this hypothesis, we utilized Fscn1$^{\text{DTR-Cre}}$ knock-

in mice to remove the CCR7$^+$ FSCN1$^+$ migratory DCs in the dLN, which play a critical

role in inducing tumor-reactive CD8 T-cell responses in the dLN (Roberts et al., 2016;

Salmon et al., 2016) (Figure S4A). FSCN1 is an actin-bundling protein that promotes the

migration of DCs into LNs (Adams, 2004; Lamb and Tootle, 2020; Yamakita et al., 2011).

Since FSCN1 is expressed not only in CCR7$^+$ migratory DCs but also in neurons (Lamb

and Tootle, 2020; Zhang et al., 2008), we inoculated B16F10 cells into FSCN1 KI bone

marrow chimeric mice (FSCN1 BMC). In tumor-bearing FSCN1 BMC mice, DTR was

weakly expressed on a part of CCR7$^+$ MHC II$^+$ DCs in the tumor and strongly expressed

on most migratory DCs in the dLN (Figure S4B). Administration of DT to these mice

slightly decreased the number of CCR7$^+$ MHC II$^+$ DCs in the tumor and completely

depleted migratory DCs in the dLN (Figure S4C).

276   We subjected B16F10-bearing FSCN1 BMC mice to anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4

treatments, with or without DT administration (Figure 5A). Depletion of migratory DCs

in the dLN of DT-treated mice was confirmed on day 14 (Figure 5B-D). TCR repertoire

analysis revealed that the total frequency of dLN-tumor OL clones in the tumor decreased

in mice receiving DT in the anti-PD-L1 and CD4+PD-L1 groups (Figure 5E). The

oligoclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire was equivalent or higher in DT-

treated mice compared to DT-untreated mice (Figure 5F). In contrast, the polyclonal

fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire decreased following DT administration in all

three treatment groups (Figure 5G). These results suggest that the anti-CD4 and anti-PD-

L1 antibodies enhance the priming of tumor-reactive T-cell clones by migratory DCs in

the dLN, leading to clonal spreading in tumor-bearing mice.

Discussion

289   We demonstrated that the anti-PDL1 and anti-CD4 mAb treatment increased the

CD8$^+$ T-cell repertoire overlap in the dLN and tumor, mainly owing to clonal spreading.

In the B16F10 model, anti-CD4 and CD4+PD-L1 treatments exert strong antitumor

effects whereas anti-PD-L1 treatment alone shows a limited antitumor effect (Ueha et al.,

2015). In the present study, the antitumor effect of anti-CD4, anti-PD-L1, and CD4+PD-

L1 treatments correlated with the extent of clonal spreading. Single-cell analysis of the

gene expression and TCR sequences of TILs revealed that progenitor exhausted T cells,

which are essential for a durable antitumor response to PD-1 blockade (Miller et al., 2019;

Siddiqui et al., 2019; Kallies, Zehn, and Utzschneider, 2020), were enriched in a

polyclonal fraction of the OL repertoire, which reflected clonal spreading. Furthermore,

enhanced priming in the dLN by migratory DCs contributed to the clonal spreading of

tumor-reactive clones following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments. These results

suggest that clonal spreading induces antitumor T-cell responses by anti-PD-L1 and anti-

CD4 treatments in the B16 melanoma model.

Our finding that clonal spreading were enhanced after anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4

treatments seems to contradict with many previous studies on the repertoire analysis of

TILs reporting an association between oligoclonal expansion and objective antitumor

effects following ICIs (Dovedi et al., 2017; Riaz et al., 2017; Yusko et al., 2019; Zhang et

al., 2020). However, these studies did not separate CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} TILs prior to TCR

sequencing. CD8^{+} TILs exhibit higher clonality than CD4^{+} TILs (Gueguen et al., 2021)

309 in most cases, and the clonality of the total TIL repertoire is reported to be correlated with

310 the proportion of CD8^{+} cells (Rudqvist et al., 2018). This evidence suggests that the

311 higher clonality in these studies reflects a larger proportion of CD8^{+} cells in TILs. Here,

312 we performed a TCR repertoire analysis of purified CD8^{+} T cells and clarified the clonal

313 composition changes in the CD8^{+} T-cell repertoire under immunotherapy, which was not

314 evident in previous studies.

315  TCR repertoire analysis on dLN-tumor repertoire overlap clearly demonstrated

316 that the anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments did not increase clonal skewing but

317 enhanced the clonal spreading of tumor-reactive T cells. Notably, the increase in the

318 polyclonal fraction of the TIL repertoire following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments

319 was not observed when non-overlapping clones were included in the analysis. Thus, the

320 analysis of the dLN-tumor OL, which enriches the TIL clones supplied by dLNs, is

321 important for quantifying the clonal spreading of tumor-reactive T cells and evaluating

322 antitumor T cell responses.

323  scTCR analysis of TILs and bulk TCR repertoire analysis of exhausted TIL

324 subsets revealed the immunological phenotypes of the oligoclonal and polyclonal

325 fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire; unfortunately, we could not analyze untreated

326 mice owing to the low density and number of CD8^{+} TILs in the B16F10 model. Recent

studies on the scTCR analysis of human TILs reported that highly expanded CD8$^+$ T cell

clones exhibited a terminally exhausted phenotype with tumor reactivity (Clarke et al.,

2019; Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Consistent with these findings, the oligoclonal

fraction of the dLN-tumor OL also largely consisted of T cells with a terminally exhausted

phenotype and contained a small amount of progenitor exhausted T cells. Conversely, the

proportion of progenitor exhausted T cells in the polyclonal fraction of dLN-tumor OL

was higher than that in the oligoclonal fraction. In addition, Naïve-like and PD1$^-$ CD8$^+$

TILs with low tumor-reactivity (Oliveira et al., 2021) were enriched in the non-OL

repertoire but not in the polyclonal fraction of OL, as expected. Considering that

terminally exhausted T-cell clones inside the tumor were replaced following PD-1

blockade in cancer patients (Yost et al., 2019), the OL clones in the polyclonal fraction

may function as reserves while oligoclonal fraction may not persist for a long period.

Furthermore, it is also presumed that clonal spreading owing to anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4

treatments enlarges the reservoir of tumor-reactive T-cell clones, which underlies the

robust and persistent antitumor effect.

One question that remained unaddressed was how the anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4

treatments enhance the clonal spread of tumor-reactive T cells. We initially hypothesized

that the enhanced priming of tumor-reactive clones in the dLN increases the polyclonal

fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire. Indeed, in mouse models, the activation of T

cells in the dLN is enhanced by anti-CD4 (Ueha et al., 2015) and anti-PD-L1 treatments

(Dammeijer et al., 2020). The priming of tumor-reactive T cells in the dLN is mainly

mediated by CCR7$^+$ migratory DCs, which capture tumor antigens, mature in the tumor,

and migrate to the dLN via lymphatics (Roberts et al., 2016; Salmon et al., 2016).

Migratory DCs express a higher level of PD-L1, which interacts with PD-1 on activated

CD8$^+$ T cells in the dLN (Dammeijer et al., 2020). Moreover, the anti-CD4 treatment,

which removes CTLA-4 expressing Tregs, may promote the priming of CD8$^+$ T cells by

increasing the expression of CD80/86 on migratory DCs in the dLN (unpublished data).

These observations support the possibility that clonal spreading is promoted by the

enhanced priming capacity of migratory DCs. In line with this, the specific depletion of

migratory DCs in FSCN1$^{DTR-Cre}$ KI BMC mice reduced the polyclonal fraction of the

dLN-tumor OL repertoire. Our results underscore the contribution of the enhanced

priming in the dLN to the clonal spreading of tumor-reactive clones.

This study had some limitations. First, we could not demonstrate the relationship

between the extent of clonal spreading and clinical outcomes in patients with cancer under

ICI treatment. This is attributable to our limited access to the dLN specimen. TCR

repertoire analysis on a bilateral subcutaneous tumor model, in which tumor cells are

inoculated bilaterally into the backs of mice, could be an alternative approach that provide

the evidence for a causal relationship between clonal spreading and the antitumor effect

of ICIs (Tsunoda et al., 2021; Zemek et al., 2020). Second, we could not analyze the

immunological differences between clones contributing to clonal skewing and clonal

spreading, including the tumor reactivity, TCR affinity, and exhaustion status. Clones in

oligoclonal OL, which are observed in tumor-bearing mice, regardless of the treatment,

are thought to exhibit higher affinity for cancer antigens and are able to expand under

immune checkpoints but are more prone to exhaustion. Conversely, clones in polyclonal

overlap, whose expansion is enhanced by ICIs, are thought to have TCRs with lower

affinity for cancer antigens and need more costimulatory signals for expansion

(Memarnejadian et al., 2017). Cloning the TCR alpha- and beta-chain pairs using scTCR

sequencing and generating TCR transgenic T cells of various dLN-tumor OL clones

would enable us to validate the features and functions of T-cell clones contributing to

clonal skewing or clonal spreading. Here, we defined the oligoclonal/polyclonal fraction

based on the rank or frequency of clones in the tumor. However, a more refined definition,

which incorporates the immunological features of clones, such as the exhaustion status or

TCR affinity, can more precisely evaluate the extent of clonal spreading and become a

more reliable marker for the treatment outcome.

In summary, our results suggest that an enhanced clonal spreading underlies the robust

antitumor immune responses by which anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments. Overall, we

emphasize the importance of evaluating the polyclonal nature of antitumor T-cell

responses through TCR repertoire analysis, which provides a novel index that reflects the

efficacy of ICI treatments.

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Author Contributions

HA, KM, and SU designed research. HA and SU performed research. TA generated mice.

HA, MT, HO, HS, HA, and SU processed the samples. HA analyzed data with supports

from SS and SU. HA and SU wrote the initial draft of the manuscript. All the authors

participated in writing the final manuscript.

Declaration of interests

H.A. reports stock for ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc. S.U. reports advisory role for

ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc; stock for ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc, IDAC Theranostics, Inc. S.S.

reports advisory role for ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc; stock for ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc, K.M.

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Figures and legends

Figure 1. The dLN-tumor repertoire overlap increases following anti-PD-L1 and

anti-CD4 treatments. (A) Experimental procedure. (B and C) Growth curve (B) and

weight (C) of the tumor. (D and E) Gating strategy for sorting the CD8$^+$ CD44^{high} T cells

in the dLN (D) and the CD8$^+$ T cells in the tumor (E). (F) Scheme of the dLN-tumor

repertoire overlap analysis. (G) Representative plot of the dLN-tumor repertoire overlap

for each treatment group. The plot exhibits the top 20 OL clones (colored), the OL clones

other than the top 20 ones (dark gray), and the non-OL clones (gray). (H and I) Frequency

of the OL clones in the dLN (H) and the tumor (I).

Means ± SEM are shown (n = 6–10 per group). One-way ANOVA and Tukey's *post-hoc*

test were used in (B), (C), (H), and (I); $*P \leq 0.05$; $** P \leq 0.01$; $*** P \leq 0.001$.

Figure 2. Increase in the polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire

following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments. (A and B) Flow chart (A) and

representative plot (B) used for defining the oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions of the

dLN-tumor OL repertoire. In (B), the frequency of individual clones is plotted according

to their rank in the tumor in descending order. The top 10 (oligoclonal fraction) and 11th

or lower (polyclonal fraction) OL clones are colored in red and blue, respectively. (C and

D) Total frequency of the oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions of the OL clones in the

tumor. (E) Correlation between the tumor volume and the total frequency of the

oligoclonal (left) or polyclonal (right) fraction of OL clones in the tumor.

Means are shown (n = 6–10 per group) (C); means ± SEM are shown (n = 6–10 per group).

One-way ANOVA and Tukey's *post-hoc* test were used in (D); Spearman correlation test

was used in (E); *$P \leq 0.05$; *** $P \leq 0.001$.

Figure 3. Single-cell analysis of the dLN-tumor OL clones following anti-CD4 mAb

treatment. (A**)** Experimental procedure. (B) Uniform manifold approximation and

projection (UMAP) plot of the scRNA-seq data of CD8$^+$ TILs following anti-CD4

treatment. (C) Violin plot showing the expression of marker genes in the T-cell subsets.

(D) Violin plot showing the module scores of the feature genes of progenitor (top) and

terminally (bottom) exhausted T cells. (E) UMAP showing the T cells in the oligoclonal

or polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire (left). Pie chart showing the

proportion of T cells in the "naïve-like" (pink) or "progenitor exhausted" (purple) clusters

in the oligoclonal or polyclonal fraction (right). (F) Bar chart showing the proportion of

the oligoclonal (red) and polyclonal (blue) fractions of the OL clones and the non-OL

clones (gray) in each cluster. (G) Correlation between the clone's frequency in the tumor

and the progenitor or terminally exhausted score of each clone. The progenitor or

terminally exhausted score was calculated for each cell as in (D), and the average value

was then calculated for each clone.

Pearson correlation test was used in (E); Tex: terminally exhausted; Tex int:

intermediately exhausted; Tex prog: progenitor exhausted; IFN resp.: IFN responding;

NV-like: naïve-like; Prolif.: proliferating.

Figure 4. Oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire in

CD8$^+$ TIL subsets following anti-CD4 mAb treatment. (A) Gating strategy used for

sorting the PD1$^-$, Ly108, DP, and Tim-3 CD8$^+$ TIL subsets in anti-CD4 treated mice. (B)

Clonality of the CD8$^+$ TIL subsets. (C) Example of the estimation of clone frequency in

pooled CD8$^+$ TILs based on the frequencies in each CD8$^+$ TIL subset. (D) Frequency of

the oligoclonal (red) or polyclonal (blue) fraction of OL clones in the CD8$^+$ TIL subsets.

Lines indicate the data from the same mice. (E) Bar chart showing the proportion of the

oligoclonal (red) or polyclonal (blue) fraction of the OL clones in each CD8$^+$ TIL subset.

Mean ± SEM is shown in (B) and the mean is shown in (E) (n = 5 per group) (B); one-

way RM ANOVA and Tukey's *post-hoc* test were used in (B) and (D); paired t-test was

used in (E); *$P \leq 0.05$; ** $P \leq 0.01$.

Figure 5. Decrease in the polyclonal fraction of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire by

depleting migratory DCs following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments. (A)

Experimental procedure. (B and C) Representative flow cytometry plot of the dLN

lineage$^-$ cells for CCR7$^+$ CD11c^{int} (B) and CCR7$^+$ DTR$^+$ (C) migratory DCs (migDCs) in

untreated or DT-treated mice on day 14. (D) Comparison of the frequency of CCR7$^+$

CD11c^{int} migDCs in dLN between DT-treated and untreated mice. (E) Comparison of the

frequency of OL clones in the tumor between DT-treated and untreated mice. (F and G)

Comparison of the frequency of the oligoclonal (F) and polyclonal (G) fraction of dLN-

tumor OL clones in the tumor between DT-treated and untreated mice.

Figure 5A was created using BioRender.com; means ± SEM are shown (n = 4–5 per

group); multiple unpaired t-tests were used in (D), (E), (F) and (G); *$P ≤ 0.05$; ** $P ≤$

0.01; *** $P ≤ 0.001$.

STAR Methods

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will

be fulfilled by the lead contact, Satoshi Ueha (ueha@rs.tus.ac.jp).

Materials availability

The   Fscn1   knockin   mouse   (Accession   No.   CDB0153E:

https://large.riken.jp/distribution/mutant-list.html) will be distributed upon requests.

Data and code availability

All sequencing data (Bulk TCRseq, and Single-cell RNA/TCR sequencing) have been

deposited at GEO and are publicly available as of the date of publication. The accession

number is listed in the key resources table.

All original code has been deposited at Github. The link is listed in the key resources

table.

Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is

available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Mice

Eight-week-old female C57BL/6 mice (CD90.2) were purchased from Sankyo

Labo service corporation inc. CD90.1 congenic mice with gp100 melanoma antigen-

specific Pmel-1 TCR transgene (Pmel Tg) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory,

then B6 mice were backcrossed for at least 6 generations. Female Pmel Tg mice were

used for the experiment at 8-10 weeks old. All mice were bred at specific pathogen-free

facilities in Research Institute for Biomedical Sciences, the Tokyo University of Science

and in RIKEN Kobe branch.

Cell lines

Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC) was kindly provided by Dr. Fuminori Abe (Nippon

Kayaku). B16F10 is a gp100[+] spontaneous murine melanoma cell line, kindly provided

by Dr. N. Restifo (National Cancer Institute, MD). Both cell lines were cultured in RPMI-

1640 medium (Nakarai) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (MP Bio Japan), 1%

HEPES (Nakarai) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Nakarai) at 37˚C in a humidified

atmosphere at 5% CO_2.

Generation of Fscn1DTR-Cre knock-in mice

The Fscn1 knockin mouse (Accession No. CDB0153E:

https://large.riken.jp/distribution/mutant-list.html) was generated by CRISPR/Cas9-

mediated knockin in zygotes as previously described (Abe et al., 2020). For the

homologous recombination-mediated knockin, the donor vector consisting of homology

arms and P2A-DTR-P2A-Cre (insert gene) was generated to insert the P2A-DTR-P2A-

Cre cassette at the 3-base upstream of the PAM sequence. For microinjection, the mixture

of crRNA (CRISPR RNA) (50ng/ul), tracrRNA (trans-activating crRNA) (100ng/ul),

donor vector (10ng/ul) and TrueCut™ Cas9 Protein v2 (100ng/ul, ThermoFisher) were

injected into the pronucleus of one-cell stage zygote from C57BL/6 mice. From 233

zygotes, 57 F0 mice were obtained and 3 of them were knockin mice confirmed by PCR,

in which the PCR fragments of KI allele with 5'FW and 5'REV primers (1301 bp), and

3'FW and 3'REV primers (587 bp) were detected (Figure S4A). The germline

transmissions of knockin F0 mice were confirmed by genotyping of F1 mice.

Generation of BM chimeric mice

Recipient B6 mice were lethally irradiated (8.5 Gy, split into 2 doses given 3

hours apart) the day before transplantation with 3×10^6 Fscn1-KI BM cells. Mice were

used for the experiments at least 8 weeks after transplantation.

In vivo treatment

B16F10 or LLC cells (5×10^5 cells except for Figure S3B: 2×10^5 cells) were

inoculated subcutaneously (s.c.) into the right flanks of C57BL/6 or Fscn1-KI BMC mice.

Anti-PD-L1 mAb (clone 10F.9G2, BioLegend) or Anti-CD4 mAb (clone GK1.5,

BioLegend) was injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) at a dose of 200 μg per mouse on days 5

and 9 after tumor inoculation. DT (FUJIFILM Wako) was injected intraperitoneally (i.p.)

at a dose of 25 ng/g continuous every second day until day 5. Tumor diameter was

measured twice weekly and used to calculate tumor volume (mm^3) [(major axis; mm) x

(minor axis; mm)^2]. All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with

institutional guidelines with the approval of the Animal Care and Use Committee of the

Tokyo University of Science.

METHOD DETAILS

Tissue collection

Intravascular leukocytes were stained by i.v. injection of FITC-conjugated mAb

(3 μg/mouse) against CD45.2 three minutes before sacrifice (Anderson et al., 2015).

Tumors and dLNs (right brachial lymph node) were collected.

Preparing single cell suspension from dLN

dLN cells were prepared by standard method except for Figure 5, in which dLN

was digested for 45 minutes at 37°C with 0.1% collagenase (FUJIFILM Wako) then

subjected to 25% Percoll PLUS (Cyvita) gradient and leukocytes were recovered from

the pellet. Lineage (CD11b, B220, NK1.1, Ter119) positive cells were depleted using BD

IMag Streptavidin Particles Plus-DM (BD Biosciences).

The cell concentration of the suspensions was determined using Flow-Count

fluorospheres (Beckman Coulter) and a Cytoflex flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter).

Cells were then stained with a mix of Fc Block (anti-mouse CD16/CD32 mAb; clone

2.4G2, BioLegend) and fluorophore-conjugated anti-mouse mAbs.

Preparing single cell suspension from tumor

Tumors were cut into small fragments and digested for 45 minutes at 37°C with

0.1% collagenase (FUJIFILM Wako) in Figure 1,2,4,5, and 0.1mg/mL Liberase TM

(Roche) in Figure 3. The cells were then subjected to 40% Percoll PLUS (Cytiva) and

Histopaque-1083 (Sigma-Aldrich) density separation and leukocytes were recovered

from the interphase. The cell concentration of the suspensions was determined using

Flow-Count fluorospheres (Beckman) and a Cytoflex flow cytometer (Beckman). Cells

were then stained with a mix of Fc Block and fluorophore-conjugated anti-mouse mAbs.

TCRβ$^+$ T cells were enriched magnetically using Anti-APC MicroBeads (Miltenyi) and

LS columns (Miltenyi) except for single-cell RNA/TCRseq experiment (Figure 3). In

single-cell   RNA/TCRseq   experiment,   cells   were   stained   with   Sample   Tag

oligonucleotide-conjugated antibodies in Single-Cell Multiplexing Kit (BD Biosciences)

as in Table S2.

Flow cytometry and cell sorting

CD8$^+$ (Figure 1, 2, 3, 5), CD8$^+$ PD1$^-$, CD8$^+$ PD1$^+$ Ly108$^+$ Tim3$^-$, CD8$^+$ PD1$^+$

Ly108$^+$ Tim3$^+$, and CD8$^+$ PD1$^+$ Ly108$^-$ Tim3$^+$ T cells (Figure 4) from tumor, and CD8$^+$

CD44^{high} T cells from dLN were sorted using FACS Aria II or Aria III (BD Biosciences).

Nonviable cells were excluded from the analysis based on forward and side scatter

profiles and propidium iodide staining. Intravascular leukocytes were also excluded.

Purity of sorted cells was always over 95%. Data were analyzed using FlowJo software

(version 10.8.1; BD Biosciences).

TCR library construction and sequencing

<u>For Figure 1, 2, and 4</u>

TCR sequencing libraries for next-generation sequencing were prepared

according to the previous report (Aoki et al., 2021). PolyA RNAs were isolated and

amplified from sorted T cells according to a previous report (GSE110711; Shichino et

al., 2019). To amplify the TCR cDNA containing complementarity determining region 3

(CDR3), nested PCR of the TCR locus was performed as follows. Beads containing

cDNA was resuspended with the 12.5 µL of first PCR mixture comprised 0.5 µL of 10

µM trP1 primer, and 1 µL of TCR primer mix (Trac_ex, and Trbc_ex), 4.75 µL of water,

and 6.25 µL of KAPA Hifi Hotstart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems). The thermal cycling

conditions were programmed as follows: denaturation at 95°C for 3 minutes, 5 cycles of

denaturation for 20 seconds at 98°C, annealing for 15 seconds at 65°C and extension for

30 seconds at 72°C, followed by a final extension at 72°C for 2 minutes. Next, 2.5 µL of

the first-PCR products were added into the 22.5 µL of second PCR mixture consisted of

1.75 µL of 10 µM primer mix (trP1, Trac_in-Bio, and Trbc_in-Bio), 8.25 µL of water

and 12.5 µL of KAPA Hifi Hotstart ReadyMix. The thermal cycling conditions were the

same as the first PCR except for the cycle number, which was 25 cycles. Next, 25 µL of

the second-PCR products were purified using AMPure XP (Beckman-Coulter) at a 0.7:1

ratio (beads−to-sample) and eluted in 20 µL of 10mM of Tris HCl pH 8.0.

Fragmentasion and adaptor ligation were performed using 10-20ng of second-PCR

product as a template with NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina

(New England Biolabs) with some modifications: NEBNext Adaptor for Illumina in

"Adaptor Ligation" step was substituted by 5uM P1 Adaptor (duplexed), and the

reaction volume was 1/4 of the recommended in all steps. Adaptor-ligated DNA was

purified using AM Pure XP kit (Beckman-Coulter) at a 0.8:1 ratio (beads to sample) and

eluted in 20 μL of 10mM of Tris HCl pH 8.0. The third PCR was carried out using

barcoded primers to enrich the TCRβ cDNA flanked with sequencing adapters. The

third PCR mixture consisted of 1 μL of 10 μM trP1 primer, 1 μL of 10 μM IonA-BC[X]-

Trbc primer, 3 μL of template and 5 μL of NEBNext Ultra II Q5 Master Mix (accessory

of NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA Library Prep Kit). The thermal cycling conditions were

programmed as follows: denaturation at 98°C for 30 seconds, 10 cycles of denaturation

for 10 seconds at 98°C, annealing and extension for 1minute 15 seconds at 65°C,

followed by a final extension at 65°C for 5 minutes. The PCR product was purified and

subjected to size selection using AMPure XP kit (Beckman-Coulter) at a 1.0:1 ratio

(beads to sample) and eluted with 20 μL of Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). Amplified TCRβ libraries

were quantified using a KAPA SYBR Fast qPCR Kit (KAPA Biosystems) and size

distribution was analyzed by Microchip Electrophoresis System MultiNA (Shimadzu).

Final TCRβ libraries, whose lengths were 200–300 base pairs, were pooled and

sequenced using an Ion 540 Kit Chef, an Ion 540 Chip kit, and an Ion Genestudio S5

Sequencer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions,

except the flow number (500).

<u>For Figure 5</u>

TCR sequencing libraries for next-generation sequencing were prepared

according to the previous report (Tsunoda et al., 2021). In brief, mRNA in T-cell lysate

was captured by 10 µL of Dynabeads M270 streptavidin (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

bound to 2.5 pmol of BioEcoP-dT25-adapter primers. To perform reverse transcription

and template-switching, mRNA-trapped beads were suspended in 10 µL of RT mix [1×

First Strand buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 mM dNTP (Roche), 2.5 mM DTT

(Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 M betaine (Sigma-Aldrich), 9 mM MgCl2 (NIPPON

GENE), 1 U/µL RNaseIn Plus RNase Inhibitor (Promega), 10 U/µL Superscript II

(Thermo Fisher Scientific), and 1 µM of i5-TSO], and incubated for 60 min at 42ºC and

immediately cooled on ice. To amplify the TCR cDNA containing complementarity

determining region 3 (CDR3), nested PCR of the TCR locus was performed following

the purification of PCR product by an AM Pure XP kit (Beckman Coulter) at a 0.7:1

ratio of beads to sample and eluted with 20 µL of 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). To amplify

TCR libraries and add adaptor sequences for the next-generation sequencer, the third

PCR was performed. The third-PCR products were purified as second PCR. The

products were pooled and then purified and subjected to dual size selection using

ProNex size-selective purification system (Promega) and eluted with 25 μL of 10 mM

Tris-HCl (pH 8.5). Final TCR libraries, whose lengths were about 600 base pairs were

sequenced using an Illumina Novaseq 6000 S4 flowcell (67 bp read 1 and 140 bp read

2) (Illumina). Only read2 contained the sequence regarding the definition of T cell

clones.

Library preparation and sequencing for scRNA/TCRseq

T cells from the spleen of Pmel Tg mouse, which stained with Single-Cell

Multiplexing Kit (BD Biosciences) as in Table S2, were spiked in after cell sorting. Live

cells were stained with Calcein AM (Nacalai) and counted using Flow-Count

fluorospheres (Beckman) and a Cytoflex flow cytometer (Beckman). About 18,000

labeled cells were trapped and reverse-transcribed using the BD Rhapsody™ (BD),

Targeted mRNA and AbSeq Amplification Kit (BD), and Immune Response Panel Mm

(BD) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Targeted mRNA, TCRseq and

Sample Tag libraries were prepared using according to the manufacturer's instructions

(VDJ CDR3 and Sample Tag Library Preparation Protocol) with the following

modifications; (1) BD Rhapsody™ Immune Response Panel Mm with supplement panel

including Cmpk2, Ifi204, Ifi211, Ifit1, Ifit3, Ifit3b, Ifit3b, Isg15, Mx1, Rsad2, and

Usp18 were used for target mRNA amplification. (2) we used original set of primer for

TCR amplification as summarized in Key resources table, and performed additional

PCR (3rd PCR, 6 cycles) to introduce unique dual index for sequencing. (3) we used

ProNex Size-Selection DNA purification System (Promega) for purification of PCR

product. Primers used for each PCR reaction and sample-to-beads ratios for purifying

PCR product were summarized in Table S3. Amplified libraries were quantified using a

KAPA SYBR Fast qPCR Kit (KAPA Biosystems) and size distribution was analyzed by

Microchip Electrophoresis System MultiNA (Shimadzu). Targeted RNAseq and Sample

Tag libraries were sequenced on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 S4 flowcell (67 bp read 1

and 140 bp read 2) (Illumina) to a depth of approximately 40,000 reads and 10,000

reads per cell, respectively. TCRseq libraries were sequenced on an Illumina Novaseq

6000 SP flowcell (67 bp read 1 and 459 bp read 2) (Illumina) to a depth of

approximately 20,000 reads.

Data processing of TCR sequencing

Adapter trimming and quality filtering of sequencing data were performed by

using Cutadapt-3.2 (Martin, 2013) and PRINSEQ-0.20.4 (Schmieder and Edwards,

2011). Sequencing data were processed by MiXCR-3.0.5 (Bolotin et al., 2015). In

MiXCR, filtered reads were aligned to reference mouse TCR V/D/J sequences

registered in the international ImMunoGeneTics (IMGT) information system: -

vParameters.geneFeatureToAlign = VTranscript -vjAlignmentOrder = JThenV, then

identical sequences were assembled and grouped in clones with PCR and sequencing

error correlation with the following parameters: -badQualityThreshold=10, –

separateByV=true, --only-productive=true, –region-of-interest=CDR3. The Variable (V)

and Joining (J) segment of TCRs were represented in IMGT gene nomenclature.

List of final clones were analyzed by VDJtools-1.2.1 (Shugay et al., 2015).

Then, the sequencing reads of sample was normalized to the cell count in each sample

by "DownSample" command of VDJtools. T-cell clones were determined as TCR reads

with the same TCR V segment, J segment and CDR3 nucleotide sequence.

Calculation of clonality of TCR repertoire

The 1 - Pielou index was used to evaluate the clonality of TCR repertoire, which

was calculated using the formula $1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log_e(p_i)/\log_e(n)$, where p_i is the

frequency of clone *i* for a sample with *n* unique clones.

Identification of OL clones in oligoclonal and polyclonal fraction

dLN-tumor OL clones were identified by "JoinSamples" function in VDJtools.

These OL clones were ranked in order of their frequency in the tumor. OL clones that

ranked in top 10 were defined as oligoclonal fraction of OL repertoire, and the other OL

clones were defined as polyclonal fraction. In the scRNA/TCRseq analysis, OL clones

were defined as those whose TCRb sequence (V segment, J segment and CDR3

nucleotide) was identified in the repertoire of dLN CD8$^+$ CD44^{high} T cells, the output of

bulk TCRseq. The oligoclonal/polyclona fraction in scTCR analysis on TILs was defined

based on the frequency calculated in scTCRseq analysis.

Data processing of scRNAseq reads

Data processing of scRNAseq reads was performed as described in Shichino et

al. (TAS-seq). Adapter trimming of sequencing data was performed using cutadapt 2.10

(Martin, 2013). Filtered cell barcode reads were annotated by Python script provided by

BD Biosciences with minor modification for compatibility to Python 3.7. Associated

cDNA reads were mapped to reference RNA using bowtie2-2.4.2 (Langmead and

Salzberg, 2012) by the following parameters: -p 2 --very-sensitive-local -N 1 -norc -seed

656565 -reorder. Then, cell barcode information of each read was added to the bowtie2-

mapped BAM files by the python script and pysam 0.15.4 (Li et al., 2009), and read

counts of each gene in each cell barcode were counted using mawk. Resultant count data

was converted to a single-cell gene-expression matrix file by using R-3.6.3. The inflection

point of the knee-plot (total read count versus the rank of the read count) was detected

using DropletUtils package (v1.14.1, Lun *et al.*, 2018) in R-3.6.3. Cells of which total

read count was over inflection point were considered as valid cells.

Data processing of sample tag reads

For sample tag data, adapter trimming of sequencing data was performed by

using cutadapt 3.4 (Martin, 2013). Filtered reads were chunked to 64 parts for parallel

processing by using Seqkit 0.15.0 (Shen et al., 2016). Filtered cell barcode reads were

annotated by Python script provided by BD with minor modification for compatible to

Python3.8. Associated sample tag reads were mapped to known barcode fasta by using

bowtie2-2.4.2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) by the following parameters: -p 2 -D 50 -

R 20 -N 0 -L 14 -i S,1,0.75 –norc –seed 656565 –reorder –trim-to 3:40 –score-min L,-9,0

–mp 3,3 –np 3 –rdg 3,3.

Then, cell barcode information of each read were added to the bowtie2-mapped

BAM files, and read counts of each Tag in each cell barcode were counted by using

mawk. Resulted count data was converted to Tags x cells matrix file by using data.table

package in R 3.6.3, and top 1M cell barcodes were extracted. For assignment of each

tags to each cell barcodes, read counts of each tag in each valid cell barcode, which

defined by the cDNA matrix, were extracted from tag/cell barcode expression matrix.

Unassigned cell barcodes were labeled as "not-detected" cells. Then, sum of the total

read counts of each tags were normalized to the minimum sum count of each tags, and

$\log_2$ fold-change between first most tag counts and second most tag counts within each

cell barcode. Each cell barcode was ranked by the fold-change ascending order, and top

N cells were identified as doublets (N was calculated as theoretically detectable

doublets calculated by the Poisson's distribution based on the number of loaded cells,

total Rhapsody well number, and number of tags used).

scRNAseq data analysis

scRNAseq data analysis was performed by using the R software package Seurat

v4.0.1 (Hao et al., 2021). Expression data of targeted panel genes were converted to the

Seurat object. Then, genes not included in the target panel and doublet or spiked-in Pmel

cells were excluded. Expression data was log normalized and scaled using NormalizeData

and ScaleData function, respectively. Principal component analysis (PCA) against all

genes included in target panel was performed using RunPCA (number of calculated

principal components (PCs) were 100), and enrichment of each PC was calculated using

the JackStraw and ScoreJackStraw function (num.replicate = 100), and PCs that were

significantly enriched ($p \leq 0.05$) were selected for clustering and dimensional reduction

analysis. Dimensional reduction was performed using RunUMAP. Cell clustering was

performed using FindNeighbors and FindClusters against the significant PCs. Marker

genes of each identified cluster were identified using FindAllMarkers function

(test.use="wilcox", min.pct=0.1, return.thresh=0.05). Cluster constituted with

contaminant cells determined by marker genes were excluded and the above analysis

procedure was repeated.

Transcriptional signature analysis in scRNAseq

We computed the extent to which gene signatures were expressed in cells using

Seurat's "AddModuleScore" function. Progenitor and terminally exhausted signature

genes were obtained from the dataset of Miller et al. (Miller et al., 2019). Cytotoxicity

and proliferation signature genes were selected according to the descriptions in BD

Rhapsody™ Immune Response Panel Mm (BD). Genes used for calculating signature

scores were summarized in Table S4.

Pseudotime analysis on scRNAseq data

Pseudotime analysis was performed using the Bioconductor package Slingshot

v2.2.0 (Street et al., 2018). We ran the analysis using significantly enriched PCs ($p \leq 0.05$)

after setting Cluster 7 (NV-like) as the start cluster.

Data processing of scTCRseq

Raw data of single-cell TCR sequencing were processed by pipeline produced

by ImmunoGeneTeqs, Inc.. Briefly, sequencing reads were first separated by cell barcode,

then adapter trimming and quality filtering of sequencing data were performed by using

Cutadapt (Martin, 2013). PCR and sequencing error were corrected by lighter v1.1.2

(Song et al., 2014) with following parameters: -newQual 25 -maxcor 4 -K 20. Error-

corrected sequence reads were processed by MiXCR (Bolotin et al., 2015) to generate the

list of TCRα or TCRβ sequences for each cell barcode, using reference mouse TCR V/D/J

sequences registered in the international IMGT information system with the parameters

summarized in Table S5. Quality filtering of cell barcodes was performed with the

following criteria: (1) more than 32 TCR reads were detected. (2) the proportion of the

most frequent TCR sequence in cell barcode was over 0.6. (3) the cell barcode was

annotated to the T cell cluster in scRNAseq analysis. Finally, the most frequent sequence

of TCRα and TCRβ was adopted and paired in each cell barcode. Identified TCRα/β

sequence was imported into the meta.data matrix in Seurat object of scRNAseq data based

on the cellular barcode identities. T-cell clones were determined as cells with the same

TCRα and TCRβ pair, defined by V segment, J segment and CDR3 nucleotide sequence.

Frequency of each clone was calculated as the proportion of cells belonging to the clone

in all T cells whose TCRα and TCRβ pair was assigned.

Evaluating the exhaustion status of T cell clones by TCRseq on CD8^{+} TIL subsets.

To evaluate the exhaustion status of OL clones in oligoclonal and polyclonal

fraction, we first calculated the frequency of clones in "Pooled" CD8$^+$ TIL repertoire from

the repertoire of TIL subsets (PD1$^-$, Ly108, DP, and Tim-3) as the following equation:

$$Freq_{k\,Pooled} = \frac{\sum_i \; Freq_{k\,i} \times Count_i}{\sum_i \; Count_i},$$

where *Freq* means the frequency of each clone k, and *Count* means the cell count of each

subset i. Then, OL clones in oligoclonal and polyclonal fraction was identified based on

their frequency in Pooled repertoire as above. The total frequency of these clones in each

TIL subset was calculated, and defined as oligoclonal and polyclonal OL repertoire in

each TIL subset.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (ver9.2.0) software

(GraphPad Software) except for correlation analysis in Figure 2E and 3G. One-way

ANOVA with Tukey's post test was run on the comparison between treatment groups.

Spearman correlation test was run on the correlation analysis using cor.test function in

Microsoft R open 4.1.1. One-way Repeated-Measures (RM) ANOVA with Tukey's post

test was run on the comparison between CD8$^+$ TIL subsets. Paired t test was run on the

comparison between the dominance of oligoclonal or polyclonal fraction of dLN-tumor

OL. Multiple unpaired t tests was run on the comparison between DT treated and

untreated mice for each treatment group. Asterisks to indicate significance corresponding

to the following: n.s., not significant ($P>0.05$), $*P \leq 0.05$, $**P \leq 0.01$, $*** P \leq 0.001$.

 Supplemental information titles and legends

 Figure S1. Related to Figure 1 and 2. Increase in the polyclonal fraction of the dLN-

 tumor OL repertoire following anti-PD-L1 and anti-CD4 treatments in the B16 and

 LLC subcutaneous tumor models. (A) Clonality of $CD8^+$ $CD44^{high}$ T cells in the dLN

 (left) and $CD8^+$ T cells in the tumor (right) in a B16 model. (B) Flow chart used for

 defining the major, middle, and minor OL clones in the tumor in a B16 model. (C) Total

 frequency of the major, middle, and minor OL clones in the tumor in a B16 model. (D)

 Total frequency of the oligoclonal (left) and polyclonal (right) fractions of OL clones in

 the tumor of an LLC model. (E) Correlation between the tumor volume and the total

 frequency of the oligoclonal (left) or polyclonal (right) fraction of OL clones in the tumor

 in an LLC model.

 Means ± SEM are shown (n = 6–10 per group for the B16 model and n = 3–6 per group

 for the LLC model). One-way ANOVA and Tukey's *post-hoc* test were used in (A), (C),

 and (D); Spearman correlation test was used in (E); *$P \leq 0.05$; *$P \leq 0.01$; *** $P \leq 0.001$.

Figure S2. Related to Figure 3. Single-cell analysis of CD8$^+$ TILs following anti-CD4

mAb treatment. (A) Expression heatmap of the top 5 marker genes for each cluster. (B)

Pseudotime analysis on CD8$^+$ TILs. (Top) UMAP plot representing the pseudotime of

each cell. (Bottom) Violin plot showing the pseudotime for each cluster. (C) Violin plot

showing the module scores of feature genes related to cytotoxicity (top) and proliferation

(bottom). (D) Feature plots showing the expression of marker genes. (E) Clonality of the

CD8$^+$ TIL clusters. (F) Dot plot of the marker genes for the polyclonal and oligoclonal

fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire. The dot size represents the percentage of

expressing cells. The dot color represents the average expression level across cells.

Figure S3. Related to Figure 4. Oligoclonal and polyclonal fractions of the dLN-tumor OL repertoire in the CD8$^+$ TIL subsets following anti-PD-L1 or CD4+PDL1 treatment. (A) Clonality of the CD8$^+$ TIL subsets following the anti-PD-L1 (left) or CD4+PDL1 (right) treatment. (B) CD8$^+$ TILs, and PD1$^-$, Ly108, DP, and Tim-3 subsets of the CD8+ TILs were sorted from the same tumor. The clone frequency in the CD8+ TIL repertoire was compared with that in the "Pooled" repertoire, which was estimated from the frequency in each CD8$^+$ TIL subset, as shown in Figure 4C. (C) Frequency of the oligoclonal (red) or polyclonal (blue) fraction of OL clones in the CD8$^+$ TIL subsets following the anti-PD-L1 (left) or CD4+PDL1 (right) treatment. Lines indicate the data from the same mice. (D) Bar chart showing the proportion of the oligoclonal (red) or polyclonal (blue) fraction of OL clones in each CD8$^+$ TIL subset following the anti-PD-L1 (left) or CD4+PDL1 (right) treatment.

Mean ± SEM is shown in (A) and the mean is shown in (D) (n = 5 per group) (B); one-way RM ANOVA and Tukey's *post-hoc* test were used in (A); paired t-test was used in (D); *$P \leq 0.05$; ** $P \leq 0.01$.

Figure S4. Related to Figure 5. Depletion kinetics of migratory DCs following DT administration to Fscn1 KI bone marrow chimeric mice. (A) Schematic overview of the *Fscn1* allele in which the P2A-DTR-P2A-Cre sequence is knocked in. (B) Gating strategy used for analyzing the CCR7$^+$ DCs in the tumor (top) and migratory DCs (migDCs) or resident DCs (rDCs) in the dLN (bottom). (C) Kinetics of the DC subsets following DT administration. (left) The frequency of CCR7$^+$ DCs and DTR$^+$ CCR7$^+$ DCs among CD45$^+$ cells in the tumor was plotted. (right) Frequency of migDCs, DTR$^+$ migDCs, rDCs, and DTR$^+$ rDCs among live cells in the dLN were plotted.

Figure S4A was created using BioRender.com, and the means ± SEM are shown (n = 2 per group).

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1052

Figure 1

A

Day

B16F10 s.c.

aPDL1, aCD4, CD4+PDL1 i.p.

0   5   9   14

CD4⁺ / CD8⁺ T cells
dLN CD44ʰⁱ
Tumor → TCRseq

B

Tumor volume (mm³)

Days after tumor inoculation

○ Control
● aPD-L1
● aCD4
● CD4+PD-L1

**

**

C

Tumor weight (mg)

Cont   PDL1   CD4   CD4/PDL1

*

*

D dLN

TCRb / PI → Live cells

TCRb / CD45-IVS → TCRb⁺ IVS⁻

CD8 / CD4 → CD8⁺, CD4⁺

CD8 / CD44 → CD8⁺ CD44ʰⁱᵍʰ

E Tumor

TCRb / PI → Live cells

TCRb / dump → TCRb⁺ dump⁻

TCRb / CD45-IVS → TCRb⁺ IVS⁻

CD8 / CD4 → CD8⁺, CD4⁺

F

dLN   Circulation   Tumor

OL = 30%   **dLN-Tumor OL clones**   OL = 50%

G

Freq. (%)

Control   aPDL1   aCD4   CD4+PDL1

Non-OL / OL

dLN Tumor

H

OL clones (dLN, %)

Cont   PDL1   CD4   CD4/PDL1

**

**

I

OL clones (Tumor, %)

Cont   PDL1   CD4   CD4/PDL1

**

***

***

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Day

B16F10 s.c. — 0 → 5 (aCD4, i.p.) → 9 (aCD4, i.p.) → 14

dLN → CD8⁺ CD44ʰⁱ → Bulk TCRseq

Tumor → CD8⁺ → scRNA/TCRseq

OL Analysis

B

Cytotoxic · Tex term2 · IFN resp. · NV like · Tex prog1 · Prolif. · Tex term1 · Tex prog2

Clusters: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

UMAP_2 vs UMAP_1

C

Genes: Mki67, Isg15, Pdcd1, Havcr2, Ifng, Gzmb, Tnfrsf9, Tcf7, Il7r, Sell

Clusters 0–7

D

Tex Prog. Score

Tex Term. Score

Clusters 0–7

E

Oligoclonal
- NV like: 0.0%
- Tex prog: 4.4%

Polyclonal
- NV like: 0.9%
- Tex prog: 28.5%

F

OL freq. in Tumor (%)

Term | Prog

Categories: Total, Tex int, Tex term, Prolif., Cytotoxic, IFN resp., Tex prog1, Tex prog2, NV like

Legend: Oligoclonal (red), Polyclonal (blue), Non-OL (gray)

G

T_{EX} Prog. Score vs Freq. in tumor (%)
R = -0.39
P = 5.0×10⁻⁴

T_{EX} Term. Score vs Freq. in tumor (%)
R = 0.40
P = 3.8×10⁻⁴

Legend: Oligoclonal (red), Polyclonal (blue)

Figure 3

Figure 3 contains panels A–G showing experimental timeline, UMAP clustering, gene expression violin plots, Tex Prog./Term. scores, oligoclonal/polyclonal analysis, and correlation scatter plots.

Panel G:
- T_{EX} Prog. Score: R = -0.39, P = 5.0×10^{-4}
- T_{EX} Term. Score: R = 0.40, P = 3.8×10^{-4}

Figure 4

A

B

C

Subset	PD1⁻	Ly108	DP	Tim3	Pooled
Sorted cells	5,000	15,000	20,000	10,000	**50,000**
Freq. of clone A	0.04	0.2	0.02	0.01	**0.07**

Freq. in Pooled Tumor = (0.04 x 5000 + 0.2 x 15000 + 0.02 x 20000 + 0.01 x 10000) / 50000

D

E

Figure 5