Discovery of a novel monoclonal PD-L1 antibody H1A that promotes T-cell mediated

tumor killing activity in renal cell carcinoma

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25

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Abstract

In the last decade, the therapeutic landscape of renal cell carcinoma has rapidly evolved with

the addition of PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint inhibitors in the armamentarium of

oncologists. Despite clinical evidence of improved oncological outcomes, only a minority of

patients experience long-lasting antitumor immune response and complete response. The

intrinsic and acquired resistance to PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint blockade is an important

challenge for patients and clinicians as no reliable tool has been developed to predict

individualized response to immunotherapy. In this study, we demonstrate the translational

relevance of an ex-vivo functional assay that measure the tumor cell killing ability of

patient-derived CD8 T cells isolated from peripheral blood. Cytotoxic activity of CD8 T cells

was improved at 3-month post-radical nephrectomy compared to baseline and it was

associated with higher circulating levels of tumor-reactive effector CD8 T cells

(CD11a^{high}CX3CR1^{+}GZMB^{+}). Pretreatment of peripheral immune cells with FDA-approved

PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors enhanced tumor cell killing activity of CD8 T cells but differential

response was observed at the individual patient level. Finally, we found a newly developed

monoclonal antibody (H1A), which induces PD-L1 degradation, demonstrated superior

efficacy in promoting T-cell mediated tumor killing activity compared to FDA-approved

PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors. To conclude, our study lays the ground for future investigation of the

therapeutic value of H1A as a next-generation immune checkpoint inhibitor. Furthermore,

further work is needed to evaluate the potential of measuring T-cell cytotoxicity activity as a

tool to predict individual response to immune checkpoint inhibitors in patients with advanced

renal cell carcinoma.

Introduction

Renal cell carcinoma (RCC) is amongst the top 10 most common cancers in both men and

women with an estimated 75,000 cases each year in the US. The prognosis is poor with 30%

of patients presenting with metastatic disease at diagnosis and approximately 30% of those

who initially present with localized disease develop metastases post-surgery. Immune

checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have revolutionized the therapeutic landscape of patients with

advanced RCC. PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint blockade has become front-line therapy with four

different treatments approved by the FDA since 2018[1]. The high rates of disease recurrence

post-surgery in patients with RCC has led to the testing of immune checkpoint inhibitors in the

adjuvant setting. In a phase III study (KEYNOTE-564 trial), the efficacy of pembrolizumab

(Keytruda, Merck), a humanized anti-PD-1 antibody, was investigated as adjuvant treatment

for RCC patients with high-risk of disease recurrence post-nephrectomy[2]. Following clinical

observation of improved disease-free survival compared to placebo, pembrolizumab has been

approved by the FDA in 2021, becoming the first immunotherapy for adjuvant treatment of

RCC. It remains that only a minority of patients demonstrate complete or durable response to

immune checkpoint inhibitors. At 30-month follow-up, 25% of patients treated with

pembrolizumab developed local or distant recurrence compared to 35% for the placebo group

at 2-year which indicates the need for patient selection. Two other phase III trials

(Checkmate-914, Immotion010) evaluating adjuvant nivolumab (anti-PD-1) plus ipilimumab

(anti-CTLA-4) (Opdivo plus Yervoy, BMS) and atezolizumab (anti-PD-L1) (Tecentriq, Roche)

did not meet their primary endpoint of disease-free survival but a cohort of carefully selected

patients may benefit from these agents.

Expression of PD-L1 in primary RCC tumors has been extensively investigated as potential

predictive biomarker of response to PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors[3]. In past clinical trials, metastatic

RCC patients with PD-L1-positive tumors showed better objective response rates to

PD-1/PD-L1 blockade compared to patients with PD-L1 negative tumors. However, several

limitations hinder the use of PD-L1 status to guide treatment decision such as PD-L1

expression discordance between primary tumors and metastases[4], variability in PD-L1

assays and scoring algorithms[5]. Furthermore, in the recent KEYNOTE-564 trial, no

significant difference was seen in response to adjuvant pembrolizumab in patients with

PD-L1-positive and -negative tumors[2]. With the advent of immuno-oncology drugs in the

adjuvant setting of RCC, there is an urgent need to develop tools to select the patients who will

benefit the most from a particular immunotherapeutic regimen.

The paradoxical response to PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors in patients with PD-L1-negative tumors

and inversely suggest that PD-L1 expression in non-tumor cells may also contribute to tumor

immune escape, hence, be better predictor of response to immunotherapy. PD-L1 expression

has been shown in myeloid cells[6] and antibody blockade of PD-L1 in antigen presenting

cells is essential for tumor control in preclinical models[7, 8]. Based on this evidence, we

sought to assess the impact of blocking immune cell-derived PD-L1 signaling on T-cell

mediated tumor cell killing. Herein, we isolated peripheral blood mononuclear cells from

patients surgically treated for RCC and quantify T-cell mediated tumor cell killing in response

to FDA-approved PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors. Similarly, we assessed for the first time the

therapeutic potential of a newly developed monoclonal anti-PD-L1 antibody (H1A clone) that

destabilizes PD-L1 on cell surface and induces its degradation[9].

Materials and Methods

Blood collection and patient characteristics

Blood was collected from 14 patients undergoing radical nephrectomy for clear-cell renal cell

carcinoma (ccRCC). Demographics and clinicopathological characteristics can be found in

Table 1. All samples were collected prior to surgery (baseline) and at 3-month post-surgery

with approved Mayo Clinic Institutional Review Board (IRB #16-006956). Whole patient blood

was drawn in EDTA-coated vacutainers (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Peripheral blood

mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated from patient blood by centrifugation with

Lymphoprep (StemCell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada) and SepMate devices (StemCell

Technologies, Vancouver, Canada). PBMC were resuspended in Cryostor freeze medium

and stored in liquid nitrogen until use. Platelet-poor plasma was obtained from centrifugation

of whole blood at 2,500 x g for 15 minutes at room temperature. Plasma was aliquoted in

cryovials and stored at -80°C until use.

PBMC activation and treatment

Human PBMC were thawed, washed with Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) twice and

resuspended in RPMI 1640 (Corning, New York, NY, USA) supplemented with 10% heat

inactivated FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA), rhIL2 (10 U/ml), rhIL15 (10 ng/ml)

and rhIL7 (10 ng/ml) (Peprotech, Cranbury, NJ). PBMC were incubated overnight followed by

addition of soluble anti-CD3 (5 µg/mL; catalog no. 555336, BD Pharmingen) to allow PBMC

activation prior to T-cell mediated tumor cell killing assay. For treatment with anti–PD-1/PD-L1

immune checkpoint inhibitors, antibodies were added at the time of activation and at 20 µg/ml.

Cell lines

Human 786-O ccRCC cell line (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) was maintained in a humidified

incubator at 5% CO_2. 786-O cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 (Corning, New York, NY, USA)

with 10% fetal bovine serum (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and 5% penicillin and

streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). PD-L1 was knocked-out in 786-O cells

using CRISPR/Cas9 technology to exclude any direct effect of anti-PD-L1 antibody on tumor

cells in the tumor killing assay.

T-cell mediated tumor cell killing

Target 786-O cells were trypsinized and labeled with Calcein-AM (5 µmol/L, catalog no.

C1430, Invitrogen) for 30 minutes at 37°C in dark, washed with Hank's Balanced Salt Solution

(HBSS) twice and resuspended at 1×10^5/mL in RPMI 1640 medium. Human PBMC and

target cells were mixed at target to effector ratio 1:20 in FBS-free RPMI 1640 medium and

seeded into wells of a 96-well U-bottom plate. Plate was briefly centrifuged at 300 x g for 1

minute, then incubated at 37°C for 4 hours. Saponin (0.1%) was added to wells that contained

only tumor cells to provide a value for "maximum calcein release.". In addition, target cells

without effector cells were used to measure spontaneous release of calcein and medium only

was used to measure fluorescence background. All experimental and control conditions were

performed in four replicates. After 4-hour incubation, the plate was centrifuged at 500 x g for 5

minutes. Hundred microliters of the 200-µL supernatant was transferred to a new, opaque

(black) 96-well flat-bottom plate (catalog no. 237105, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Calcein

fluorescence was read using an automated fluorescence measurement system (BioTeK

Synergy HTX multi-mode reader) with an excitation of 485 × 20 and an emission filter of 528 ×

25, scanning for 1 second per well. Read-outs were exported to Microsoft Excel. Values for

fluorescence background (medium only) were subtracted to all experimental and control

values. To calculate the percentage of cytotoxicity, we used the following formula: %

cytotoxicity = 100 x [(B-A)/(C-A)] with A=values for spontaneous release, B=values for

experimental conditions and C=values for maximum release).

Soluble PD-L1 ELISA

For detection of soluble PD-L1 in blood of RCC patients, ELISA plates (Immulon 2HB 96-well

plates, Biolegend) were coated with 100 ng per well (100 µl) of monoclonal antibody against

PD-L1 (H1A clone) overnight at 4 °C. Free binding sites were blocked with 200 µl of blocking

buffer (Pierce) for 1 hr at room temperature. Then 50 µl of plasma samples were mixed with

BSA 1% and added to each well in duplicates. After overnight incubation at 4°C, biotinylated

monoclonal PD-L1 antibody (B11 clone) was added to each well and incubated for 1 hr at

room temperature. A total of 100 µl per well of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated streptavidin

(BD Biosciences) diluted in PBS containing 0.1% BSA was then added and incubated for 1 hr

at room temperature. Plates were developed with tetramethylbenzidine (Pierce) and stopped

with 0.5N H_2SO_4. The plates were read at 450 nm with a BioTek plate reader. Recombinant

human PD-L1 protein (R&D Systems, Cat# 156-B7) was used to make the standard curve

ranging from 0.3125 to 10 ng/ml.

Statistical Analysis

Student *t*-test (parametric), Mann-Whitney test (non-parametric) was employed to compare

two groups. One-way ANOVA (parametric) and Kruskal-Wallis (non-parametric) tests were

used to compare three or more groups. The results were considered significant for p values

<0.05. p values were either specified in the figure or denoted as asterisk: * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$,

*** $p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$. All data were analyzed and plotted in GraphPad Prism 9.3.0.

Results

Improved tumor cell killing by peripheral T cells following radical nephrectomy

While regarded as an immunogenic tumor, RCC elicits immune dysfunction through infiltration

of immunosuppressive cells and expression of immuno-inhibitory molecules including

PD-L1[10, 11]. We sought to determine the impact of radical nephrectomy on peripheral CD8

T cell function using our *ex-vivo* platform to quantify the cytotoxic activity of CD8 T cells[12].

Five out of 11 samples (45.4%) showed detectable killing at baseline (pre-nephrectomy)

(**Figure 1A**). The median killing rate of patient-derived CD8 T cells was 11.4% with a range

from 4.0% to 32.5%. At 3-month post-nephrectomy, 72.7% (7/11 samples) showed killing

activity with 6 patients showing an elevation in killing efficiency and 1 patient showing a

decrease from baseline to 3-month post nephrectomy (11.4% vs 0%). Four patients showed

no T-cell killing efficiency at both baseline and 3-month post-surgery. Median killing rate at

3-month post-nephrectomy was 21.4% (range: 0%-52.5%), 1.9 times higher than at baseline

(p=0.0245). In our cohort, 4 out of 11 patients (36.3%) had metastatic disease at the time of

radical nephrectomy. By subgrouping patients based on the metastasis status, no significant

difference was observed in the killing rates of CD8 T cells at baseline and post-nephrectomy

(**Figure 1B**). Median tumor cell killing rates were also not significantly different between non

metastatic and metastatic RCC at both baseline and post-RN. Our ex-vivo data demonstrate

that radical nephrectomy is associated with enhanced tumor cell killing ability of peripheral

CD8 T cells even in patients who present with metastatic disease at diagnosis.

To explain the enhanced killing activity of peripheral CD8 T cells following radical

nephrectomy, we measured blood levels of tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8 T cells expressing

CX3C chemokine receptor 1 (CX3CR1) and Granzyme B (GZMB). We and others have shown

that CD11a is highly expressed in peripheral CD8 T cells in response to tumor antigen

presentation[13, 14]. A subset of recently activated tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8 T cells

expresses CX3CR1 and GZMB and show improved cytotoxicity activity leading to better

patient outcome [14-18]. Levels of tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8 T cells post-RN were

increased in 7 out of 11 patients (% increase = 44%) compared to baseline (**Figure 1C**). Only

2 patients showed decreased levels of CD11a^{high}CD8 T cells and 2 patients had unchanged

levels. For CD11a^{high}CD8 T cells positive for CX3CR1 and GZMB, 6 out of 11 patients showed

increased levels post-RN, 2 patients decreased levels and 3 patients unchanged levels

(**Figure 1D**).

Both ex vivo cytotoxicity assay and CD8 T cell immunophenotyping was performed in PBMC

isolated from 12 patients at 3-month post-nephrectomy (**Figure 1E-1F**). Five samples showed

no evidence of cytotoxic activity while 7 samples showed detectable activity with a median

tumor cell killing of 26.4% (range: 10.8%-52.5%). The percentage of CD8 T cells expressing

high levels of CD11a was slightly higher in patients showing cytotoxic activity (mean 10.27%

vs 7.7%, p=0.20) (**Figure 1E**). Cytotoxic activity of CD8 T cells was associated with higher

levels in tumor-reactive CD8 T cells positive for the effector markers CX3CR1 and GZMB

(median 9.62% vs 19.6%, p=0.11) (**Figure 1F).** Differential levels of circulating tumor-reactive

effector T cells in patients may result from the presence of immunosuppressive signals

preventing expansion of peripheral tumor-reactive CD8 T-cells. In the form of soluble protein

or carried by extracellular vesicles, PD-L1 has been recently showed to suppress T-cell

activity locally and systemically[19-21]. Furthermore, high concentrations of circulating PD-L1

have been associated to worse prognosis and resistance to immune checkpoint blockade

[21-23]. In our study, we observed lower levels of tumor-reactive effector CD8 T cells in

patients with blood concentrations of PD-L1 superior to 1 ng/ml (median=6.146 ng/ml)

compared to patients with less than 1 ng/ml of circulating PD-L1 (median=0.121 ng/ml)

(p=0.032) (**Figure 1G**).

These findings demonstrate that peripheral expansion of tumor-reactive CD8 T cells with an

effector phenotype is a prerequisite for effective cytotoxic killing of tumor cells. Furthermore,

our data supports circulating PD-L1 as a negative regulator of systemic antitumor immune

response in RCC patients.

Treatment of patient-derived PBMCs with anti-PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint inhibitors

enhanced CD8 T tumor cell killing activity

Targeting PD-L1/PD-1 interaction between tumor and immune cells has been the primary

focus for the development of immune checkpoint inhibitors. Recent studies highlighted the

important role of PD-L1 expressed by myeloid cells in modulating tumor-specific CD8 T cell

activation and function[6-8]. Here, we tested the efficacy of FDA-approved immune

checkpoint inhibitors to stimulate the cytotoxic function of patient-derived CD8 T cells

collected at 3-month post nephrectomy. To avoid interference with PD-L1 expressed by tumor

cells, we used 786-0 tumor cells knocked out for PD-L1 as target cells. In PBMC treated with

pembrolizumab (anti-PD-1), 10 out of 11 samples showed increased in T-cell killing rates with

a median of 37.8% (range: 17.4%-57.7%) in pembrolizumab group compared to 14.6%

(range: 0%-52.5%) in the control group (**Figure 2A**). No detectable killing activity was found in

6 samples of the control group but upon pembrolizumab treatment, tumor cell killing was

observed in all samples. At the individual level, median increase of killing rates between

control and pembrolizumab-treated cells was 18.3% (range: 0%-44.4%). In the

nivolumab-treated group (anti-PD-1), all samples responded to treatment and similar increase

to pembrolizumab group was observed with a median killing rate of 36.6% (range:

22.7%-65.4%) (**Figure 2B**). In the atezolizumab-treated group (anti-PD-L1), one patient

showed no difference in T-cell cytotoxic activity compared to control (**Figure 2C**). Median

killing rate in the atezolizumab group was 29.9% (range: 10.0%-52.5%) with a median

increase of 13.8% compared to control group. Individual response to immune checkpoint

inhibitors is heterogeneous with some patients showed stronger response with nivolumab

while others had better killing activity with pembrolizumab (**Figure 2D**). Overall, no best

response was observed with atezolizumab across all patients. Higher response with

nivolumab was observed in 9 patients but it was not statistically significant. Three patients

showed higher response to pembrolizumab and 1 patient had no difference in killing rates

between both treatments. Altogether, our data demonstrate that treatment of PBMC with

immune checkpoint inhibitors enhance T-cell tumor cell killing function but individual response

varys with drug treatment.

Discovery of H1A, a novel monoclonal PD-L1 antibody that outcompetes FDA-approved

immune checkpoint inhibitors

Our group has recently produced a novel monoclonal antibody that induces PD-L1

destabilization at the cell surface resulting in its degradation[9]. In tumor cells, we

demonstrated that H1A-mediated PD-L1 degradation increases sensitivity to radiotherapy and

DNA-damaging agents. Here, we sought to evaluate the efficacy of H1A in promoting a T-cell

mediated tumor cell killing from RCC patient-derived PBMC. All patients responded to H1A

treatment compared to control group (**Figure 3A**). Median killing rate in H1A-treated group

was 41.7% (range: 25.0%-71.2%) which corresponds to an increase of 28.3% compared to

control group. Overall, median killing rate was significantly higher in the H1A group than in the

pembrolizumab group (p=0.0003) and the nivolumab group (p=0.003) (**Figure 3B**). In terms of

individual response, all H1A-treated patients showed improved tumor cell killing efficiency

compared to other treatment groups.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated for the first time the efficacy of PD-1/PD-L1 immunotherapies in

eliciting patient-derived T-cell cytotoxic activity. Our study stands out by being the first to

determine the functional consequences of targeting PD-L1/PD-1 signaling in the peripheral

immune compartment. We employed our *ex vivo* T-cell tumor cell killing assay to measure the

ability of patient-derived CD8 T cells to kill tumor cells in response immune checkpoint

blockade. We also tested a newly generated monoclonal antibody (H1A) inducing cell-surface

PD-L1 degradation[9]. Our study demonstrates the utility of an ex-vivo T-cell cytotoxicity assay

to quickly assess response to immune checkpoint blockade in an individualized manner.

Furthermore, it provides a scientific justification to dissect the mechanism(s) of action of

immune checkpoint blockade in peripheral immune cells and its impact on antitumor immunity.

Finally, our work lays the ground for future studies evaluating the therapeutic potential of H1A

as next-generation adjuvant therapy for RCC.

The clinical benefit of radical (cytoreductive) nephrectomy in patients with metastatic RCC

treated with immune checkpoint inhibitors is object of debate. The use of upfront cytoreductive

nephrectomy is justified by the biological rationale that debulking of the primary tumor mass

may eliminate immuno-inhibitory signals released by tumor cells and suppressor immune

cells[24, 25]. Prior to the immune checkpoint inhibitor era, CARMENA and SURTIME trials

showed that immediate cytoreductive nephrectomy does not improve clinical outcome in

metastatic RCC patients treated with tyrosine kinase inhibitors[26, 27]. Survival benefit of

upfront cytoreductive nephrectomy prior to treatment with immune checkpoint blockade has

only been reported in retrospective studies[28]. As the therapeutic landscape of metastatic

RCC rapidly evolves, the role of cytoreductive nephrectomy in the immunotherapy era is

currently evaluated in randomized clinical trials (PROBE, NORDIC-SUN trials)[29]. Here, we

show that tumor cell killing rate is significantly higher with CD8 T cells isolated

post-nephrectomy compared to baseline. In line with this, we observed that radical

nephrectomy is associated with elevation of peripheral tumor-reactive CD8 T cells expressing

the effector markers CX3CR1 and GZMB in a majority of patients and regardless the

metastatic status. Our data corroborates with a prior study showing a significant reduction in

circulating exhausted CD8 T cells (BTLA$^+$) between baseline and 30 days post

nephrectomy[30]. Altogether, our data suggest that some patients may benefit from radical

nephrectomy to eliminate immunosuppressive signals (e.g soluble PD-L1) generated by the

primary tumor and restore a pool of circulating tumor-reactive CD8 T cells with high cytotoxic

activity.

Predicting response to immune checkpoint blockade prior to initiation of treatment or early in

the course of treatment remains a critical unmet need as it will help reduce overtreatment,

treatment-related toxicities and healthcare expenditures while improving patient outcome. In

addition, selecting the right treatment among the available immunotherapies is a challenging

scenario faced by patients and clinicians. To overcome this challenge, we established an

ex-vivo individualized functional assay that quantitatively measures the cytotoxic activity of

CD8 T cells isolated from patient peripheral blood. We tested the efficacy of FDA-approved

immune checkpoint inhibitors (pembrolizumab, nivolumab and atezolizumab) on the killing

activity of CD8 T cells isolated from RCC patients post-nephrectomy. Most patients

demonstrated improved T-cell mediated killing activity upon PBMC treatment with immune

checkpoint inhibitors including those with no detectable killing activity at baseline. In all cases,

atezolizumab treatment led to inferior induction of T-cell killing activity compared to other

immune checkpoint inhibitors which corroborates with the limited activity of atezolizumab as

adjuvant and front-line therapy in RCC[31]. T-cell killing rates were not statistically different

between pembrolizumab and nivolumab but divergence in response to treatment was

observed at the individual patient level. Out of 13 patients, 5 patients showed an increase of

more than 20% in killing rates with nivolumab compared to pembrolizumab. Inversely, only 1

patient showed similar increase with pembrolizumab compared to nivolumab. At this time, it is

unknown whether nivolumab can lead to superior efficacy compared to pembrolizumab as no

head-to-head comparison studies have been conducted yet. Pembrolizumab has been

recently approved for adjuvant treatment in RCC[32] but primary results for nivolumab are not

expected before 2024. Both antibodies bind PD-1 with very high affinity and specificity and

their pharmacological characteristics are similar. Despite they bind the same target,

differential response to pembrolizumab and nivolumab for the same patient suggest distinct

but uncharacterized yet mechanism(s) of action.

Immune checkpoint blockade has significantly improved overall survival in patients with

advanced cancers but only a minority of patients experience complete and durable response.

Novel immunotherapies are still needed for patients with resistant and refractory advanced

cancers. In line with this, our group has recently developed a novel monoclonal antibody,

called H1A, that binds PD-L1 and downregulates its expression at the plasma membrane[9].

Cell-surface expression of PD-L1 is regulated by CMTM6 (CKLF Like MARVEL

Transmembrane Domain Containing 6) which protects PD-L1 from lysosomal and

proteasomal degradation[33, 34]. H1A binding to PD-L1 reduces PD-L1/CMTM6 interaction

leading to PD-L1 destabilization and lysosomal degradation[9]. The unique mechanism of

action of H1A can kill two birds with one stone as PD-L1 degradation can not only prevent the

extrinsic function of PD-L1 (i.e PD-L1/PD-1 binding) but also inhibit pro-tumorigenic PD-L1

intracellular signaling[35]. In this study, we showed that treatment of PBMC with H1A boosts

T-cell mediated killing activity. Noteworthy, we found a significant increase in T-cell killing

rates with H1A compared to pembrolizumab and nivolumab supporting the therapeutic

potential of H1A antibody as next-generation immunotherapy.

We recognize few limitations in our study. All patients enrolled in the study did not receive

immune checkpoint inhibitors following nephrectomy, therefore we were not able to assess

the predictive value of our ex-vivo functional assay with patient clinical response. With the

recent approval of immune checkpoint inhibitors as front-line treatment for metastatic RCC

and adjuvant treatment for localized high risk RCC, such analysis will be feasible in a near

future. The size of the study cohort is small and further validation is warranted using a larger

number of patients. Cytotoxic activity of CD8 T cells were measured with an immortalized

RCC tumor cell line (786-O) as reference target cell line to assess the impact of PD-L1/PD-1

blockade in the immune cell compartment. Future work using patient-derived tumor cells is

ongoing to determine the translational potential of our ex-vivo functional assay in evaluating

response to immune checkpoint inhibitors in an individualized manner.

Conclusions

The low rates of durable responses to immune checkpoint inhibitors in RCC stress the need to

develop tools to predict patient response to immunotherapy and design novel and effective

immunotherapies. In this proof-of-concept, we showed differential T-cell cytotoxic activity in

response to various FDA-approved immune checkpoint inhibitors. We demonstrated the

therapeutic value of a newly developed PD-L1 monoclonal antibody that induces strong

cytotoxic tumor cell killing from RCC patient-derived CD8 T cells.

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Author Contributions

Conflict of Interest: A patent applications has been filed with Mayo Clinic in regard to the
development and application of the H1A antibody.

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	Number of Patients	%
	14	100
Age (years)		
Mean (range)	62 (39-74)	
Gender		
Male	8	57
Female	7	43
T Stage		
T1a	3	21.4
T1b	2	14.2
T2b	1	7.1
T3a	4	28.5
T3b	3	21.4
T4	1	7.1
N Stage		
N0	7	50.0
N1	1	7.1
Nx	6	42.9
M Stage		
M0	8	57.1
M1	6	42.9
Tumor Grade		
2	5	35.7
3	4	28.6
4	5	35.7
Tumor Necrosis		
No	4	28.6
Yes	10	71.4
Tumor Size (cm)		
Mean (range)	8.1 (1.7-13.4)	

Table 1. Demographics and Patient Characteristics

Figure 1. Improved tumor cell killing activity by peripheral T cells following radical nephrectomy

A) Percentage of tumor cell killing by peripheral CD8 T cells isolated from RCC patients prior to (baseline) and 3-month post radical nephrectomy (RN). N= 11 patients, Wilcoxon paired t test.

B) Percentage of tumor cell killing by peripheral CD8 T cells isolated from RCC patients stratified by metastasis status at diagnosis, M0= no evidence of metastatic disease (N=7 patients), M1= evidence of metastatic disease (N= 4 patients), Wilcoxon paired t test.

C) Percentage of peripheral tumor-reactive CD8$^+$ cells defined as positive for CD11a^{high} in patients at baseline and 3-month post-RN. Wilcoxon paired t test.

D) Percentage of peripheral tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8$^+$ cells positive for effector markers CX3CR1 and GZMB in patients at baseline and 3-month post-RN. Wilcoxon paired t test.

E) Percentage of peripheral tumor-reactive CD8$^+$ cells defined as positive for CD11a^{high} in patients subgrouped by detectable ex vivo cytotoxic activity. Mann Whitney test. Data are presented in mean +/- sd.

F) Percentage of peripheral tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8$^+$ cells positive for effector markers CX3CR1 and GZMB in patients subgrouped by detectable ex vivo cytotoxic activity. Mann Whitney test. Data are presented in mean +/- sd.

G) Percentage of peripheral tumor-reactive CD11a^{high}CD8$^+$ cells positive for effector markers CX3CR1 and GZMB in patients subgrouped by blood levels of soluble PD-L1. Mann Whitney test. Data are presented in mean +/- sd.

Figure 2. Treatment of patient-derived PBMCs with anti-PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint inhibitors enhances CD8 T tumor cell killing activity
A) B) C) Percentage of tumor cell killing by peripheral CD8 T cells following patient-derived PBMC treatment with pembrolizumab (A), nivolumab (B), atezolizumab (C). N= 14 patients, Wilcoxon paired t test.
D) Comparison of tumor cell killing rates between treatment groups and control group. Dunn's multiple comparison test.

Figure 3. Discovery of H1A, a novel monoclonal PD-L1 antibody that outcompetes FDA-approved immune checkpoint inhibitors

A) Percentage of tumor cell killing by peripheral CD8 T cells following patient-derived PBMC treatment with anti-PD-L1 antibody clone H1A. N= 14 patients, Wilcoxon paired t test.

B) Comparison of tumor cell killing rates between treatment groups and control group. Dunn's multiple comparison test.