Title: TKI-conditioned immunotherapy using *uv*-inactivated reovirus

promotes survival in hepatocellular carcinoma, mediated by cytotoxic CD4^{+}

T-cells

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ABSTRACT

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the third most common cause of cancer deaths worldwide.

Whilst immunotherapy combination regimens are now standard of care for advanced HCC,

tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs), such as the former first-line agent sorafenib, remain an

important choice for those unable to tolerate immunotherapies but provide marginal efficacy.

Therefore, we sought to determine whether the efficacy of sorafenib could be enhanced by

combining it with human *Orthoreovirus*, an oncolytic virus possessing immunostimulatory

properties. We discovered that *uv*-inactivated, replication-deficient reovirus, not live virus,

significantly extended the survival of mice bearing HCC tumors when combined with

sorafenib. This response was characterised by increased intra-tumoral expression of both

CCL5 and IFNB, and a skewing of the T-cell ratio in favor of non-canonical, CD4$^+$ cytotoxic

T-cells expressing granzyme B, but *not* perforin. This study highlights both the therapeutic

potential of *uv*-reovirus in TKI-conditioned HCC and the often-overlooked contributions of

non-classical immune mechanisms to therapeutic success.

One sentence summary: A unique therapy combining TKI-conditioning and *uv*-inactivated

reovirus suppresses the growth of hepatocellular carcinomas, mediated by GZMB$^+$CD4$^+$

cytotoxic T-cells.

INTRODUCTION

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the third leading cause of cancer deaths worldwide. A significant proportion of HCC patients (~40%) present with advanced disease at diagnosis, excluding them from potentially curative surgical interventions. Consequently, ~88% of patients succumb to the disease within 5-years post-diagnosis across disease stages. Systemic treatment options for patients with advanced HCC have greatly advanced in recent years, with combination regimens involving immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) now being standard of care. However, a significant proportion of patients are unable to tolerate ICI therapy, such as those with pre-existing autoimmune disease, for these patients, systemic treatment options are limited to TKI therapy, most commonly sorafenib (Nexavar™, Bayer/Onyx). The principle cellular targets for sorafenib are the receptor TKs VEGFR and PDGFR, and certain Raf family serine/threonine kinases. However, sorafenib also displays significant off-target effects (*1*) and has immunosuppressive properties (*2, 3*). The survival benefit gained following sorafenib treatment is limited (*4*), thus, considerable need exists for new approaches that augment TKI efficacy to improve both survival and quality-of-life outcomes for patients.

Oncolytic viruses (OV) are a promising area of cancer immunotherapy and can be well tolerated in patients, even those with pre-existing autoimmune disease. Numerous OVs are in clinical trials for a range of solid and hematological malignancies. OV-therapies are known to exert their anti-cancer activity *via* two global mechanisms. Firstly, direct tumor cell lysis: malignant cells frequently accumulate defects in innate anti-viral pathways, which, coupled with an enhanced rate of cell proliferation, creates a favorable environment for unrestricted viral replication leading to apoptotic cell death and lysis. Secondly, stimulation of anti-tumor immunity arises due to direct leukocyte stimulation, and the liberation of PAMPs, DAMPs and

other cell components including tumor antigens (either tumor-associated or tumor-specific),

following immunogenic cancer cell death. The balance between how these processes combine

to achieve efficacy logically varies according to both the OV, as well as the tumor in question.

Oncolytic human *Orthoreovirus* ("Reo": type-3, Dearing Strain, marketed as "Pelareorep",

[REOLYSIN^{TM}] by Oncolytics Biotech, Calgary) has been both widely and safely used in

numerous patient studies and is currently under fast-track review for both metastatic breast

cancer and advanced/metastatic pancreatic cancer (*5*). Although Reo exerts direct lytic effects

on cancerous cells, there is considerable interest in its ability to activate the immune system (*6-*

14). Host cells possess a variety of sensory mechanisms for the detection and prevention of

viral infection. These innate sensors are triggered in response to PAMPs common to most

viruses, such as nucleic acids. Reo harbors a segmented dsRNA genome that can be detected

by both endosomal Toll-like receptors (TLR3) and cytosolic RIG-like receptors (RIG-I and

MDA-5). Upon activation, these viral sensors trigger host cells to produce a wide variety of

inflammatory cytokines, but key among them are interferons. These potent mediators induce

an anti-viral state in neighbouring cells by upregulating the expression of interferon-stimulated

genes (ISGs), thereby limiting virus replication and spread. Importantly, interferons also

stimulate and enhance adaptive immune cell function, resulting in the neutralization of viral

particles and killing of infected cells. In the context of cancer, Reo can stimulate both dendritic

cell maturation (*7, 11*) and increase antigen exposure in infected tumor cells (*9, 10*). Together,

these promote the generation of antigen-specific cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T-cell responses capable of

breaking tumor immune tolerance in pre-clinical mouse models (*9, 10*). Immune activation is

also observed in patients treated with Reo as evidenced by increased expression of the

interferon gamma-inducible immune checkpoint molecule PD-L1 (*15*), increased levels of anti-

Reo neutralizing antibodies in peripheral blood (*16-20*), and the accumulation of intra-tumoral

T-cells (*21*).

CD4$^+$ T-helper cells (T$_H$-cells) are a critical component of the adaptive arm of the immune

system. As such, CD4$^+$ T$_H$-cells have diverse roles, including enhancing the functions of innate

immune cells and facilitating both cell-mediated and humoral responses against infectious

microorganisms and malignant cells. Despite their role as master co-ordinators, T$_H$-cells can

also exert direct toxicity against a range of cell types, under specific conditions. Cytotoxic

CD4$^+$ T$_H$-cells (CTHs) are frequently observed in patients with chronic viral infections, such

as human cytomegalovirus (hCMV) (*22-25*), hepatitis B, C and D viruses (*26*), human

immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (*27*) and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) (*28-31*), and in pre-clinical

mouse models of lymphocytic choriomeningitis (LCMV) and gamma herpes virus infection

(MHV68) (*32, 33*). CTHs are characterised by co-expression of granzyme B and perforin,

reminiscent of *bona fide* cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T-cells (CTLs), although they instead utilise an

MHCII-dependent, antigen-specific mode of target cell killing. T$_H$-cells also deploy a range of

granzyme/perforin-independent modes of cytotoxicity, including FasL/Fas and TNF-related

apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL), which are involved in the maintenance of peripheral

tolerance through activation-induced cell death (AICD) and the elimination of malignant or

virus-infected cells (*34-36*).

Here, we show that combining a *uv*-inactivated, replication-deficient Reo (*uv*-Reo) with the

targeted agent sorafenib dramatically extended the survival of mice bearing syngeneic HCC

tumors compared to the use of live Reo (Reo) in the same combination. Furthermore, the

combination of *uv*-Reo with sorafenib induced a T$_H$1-dominated anti-tumor immune response

underpinned, surprisingly, by multiple antigen-*independent* modes of killing. This multi-

faceted response involved tumor-borne expression of the T_H1-cell tropic chemokine, CCL5,

leading to a markedly increased CD4:CD8 ratio amongst tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL).

Ensuing production of TNFA and IFNG by T_H1-cells mediated paracrine tumor cell killing,

enhanced by sorafenib-induced sensitisation of HCC cells to death upon exposure to these

cytokines. The crucial remaining aspect of this response involved the therapy-induced

expression of IFNB, which engaged a proximity-dependent mode of killing in T_H1-cells that

was reliant on granzyme B, but neither perforin, nor MHCII. This study highlights the unique

immune mechanisms of *uv*-inactivated reovirus as an immunotherapeutic approach to enhance

the efficacy of sorafenib during the treatment of HCC.

RESULTS

Suppression of HCC tumor growth during uv-Reo/sorafenib therapy involves the skewing

of intra-tumoral T-cell ratios (T_H:CTL) in favor of CD4$^+$ T_H-cells.

We investigated the therapeutic effect of combining sorafenib with Reo in Balb/c mice

bearing syngeneic, subcutaneous 1MEA HCC tumors, controlling for virus-mediated effects

by including *uv*-inactivated virus (*uv*-Reo – *i.e.,* replication deficient). Reo and other

monotherapies produced a small, albeit statistically significant survival advantage. However,

when combined with sorafenib, *uv*-Reo substantially increased the survival of tumor-bearing

mice (**Fig. 1A,** *right panel*). This was not the case for Reo combined with sorafenib (**Fig. 1A,**

left panel). The therapeutic benefit of *uv*-Reo/sorafenib in combination was greatly reduced in

SCID mice, yet completely lost in SCID/Beige mice, supporting an immune-mediated

mechanism driven primarily by the adaptive response (**Fig. 1B**).

Thus, we examined the leukocyte composition of 1MEA tumors, grown in

immunocompetent Balb/c hosts, but this time harvested when responding to therapy (Therapy

phase – **Fig 1A,** *top panel*), to identify changes in infiltrating immune cell(s) that contribute to

the subsequent improved survival phenotype. A robust increase in CD3$^+$CD8$^+$ CTLs was

apparent in HCC tumors treated with Reo (monotherapy, and in combination with sorafenib)

(**Fig. 2A & C**). Nevertheless, based upon the survival phenotype (**Fig. 1A**), these CTLs alone

were unable to retard tumor growth long-term and adequately extend survival. *uv*-Reo

monotherapy failed to elicit a significant change in frequency for any leukocyte populations

investigated (**Fig. S1**). However, when combined with sorafenib, *uv*-Reo increased the

abundance of CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T_H-cells, but not CD3$^+$CD8$^+$ CTLs (**Fig. 2A - C**). This significantly

skewed the T-cell ratio in favor of CD4$^+$ cells (**Fig. 2D**) implying that the response to therapy

that underpinned the ensuing improved survival was dominated by T_H-cells.

We performed a cytokine array analysis to better understand how *uv*-Reo/sorafenib

therapy altered the cytokine milieu of the tumor microenvironment (**Fig. S2A**). We discovered

that elevated levels of intra-tumoral IFNG and TNFA mirrored the pattern of increased

abundance of CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T-cells (**Fig. 3A**). These cytokines are known to be expressed by T_H1-

activated T-cells and, accordingly, were expressed within the tumor-infiltrating CD3$^+$CD4$^+$

cells in mice treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy, as determined by flow cytometry (**Fig.**

3B). By contrast, levels of cytokines associated with T_H2 and T_H17 T-cell subsets did not mirror

the pattern of CD4$^+$ T-cell recruitment (**Fig. S2B**).

We also observed elevated levels of the chemokine CCL5 coincident with the increased

abundance of CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T-cells (**Fig. 3C**). *In vitro*, the expression of CCL5 by human and

murine HCC cells was significantly increased by treatment with *uv*-Reo compared to Reo, even

in the presence of sorafenib (**Fig. S2C - D**). CCL5 exerts a potent chemotactic effect on T_H1-

cells, but not naïve CD4$^+$ T-cells, and a specific small molecule inhibitor supported that this

chemotaxis is mediated by the CCR5 chemokine receptor (**Fig. 3D**). This was readily detected

on the surface of T_H1-activated T-cells *in vitro,* and on CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T-cells in mouse tumors

treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib (**Fig. 3E**). These data indicate that the combination of *uv*-Reo

and sorafenib exerts a suppressive effect on continuing HCC growth by skewing the intra-

tumoral T-cell ratio in favor of CD4$^+$ T_H1-cells, not CD8$^+$ CTLs.

T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells exert contact-independent tumoricidal activity against HCC

cells via a TNFA-dependent mechanism.

We co-cultured HCC cells with CD4$^+$ T-cells to determine whether the latter possessed

anti-tumor properties. T_H1-cells, but not naïve CD4$^+$ T-cells, displayed measurable tumoricidal

activity (**Fig. 4A**). However, target cell killing also occurred when the two cell types were

physically separated, demonstrating that a soluble factor was in part responsible (**Fig. 4B**).

Thus, we examined the tumoricidal activity of soluble mediators released by T_H1-cells known

to have cytotoxic properties, beginning with IFNG (*37, 38*). Exposure of human and mouse

HCC cells to increasing concentrations of IFNG failed to induce detectable toxicity (**Fig. S3A**).

However, pre-treatment of HCC cells with IFNG sensitised them to killing by T_H1-cells,

demonstrating that an additional soluble factor was involved (**Fig. S3B**). Next, we treated HCC

cells with sorafenib, using a clinically relevant dose, prior to exposure to increasing

concentrations of IFNG. Sorafenib is known to increase cancer cell sensitivity to a range of

death-inducing mediators *via* modulation of intra-cellular death pathways (*39, 40*), so we

hypothesised that sorafenib might sensitise HCC cells to IFNG. Sorafenib increased the

responsiveness of HCC cells to T_H1-mediated killing (**Fig. S3C**) in co-culture assays but did

so by sensitising them to a soluble mediator other than IFNG (**Fig. S3D**). Next, we discovered

that addition of TNFA-neutralizing antibodies to co-culture assays inhibited T_H1-mediated

HCC killing dose dependently (**Fig. 4C**). Antibody blockade of cancer cell killing was not

observed for other T_H1-derived cytotoxic mediators, such as TRAIL or LTA (**Fig. S3E – F**),

demonstrating that TNFA was the dominant soluble effector molecule. Thus, we added

recombinant TNFA to HCC cultures and found that it was directly cytotoxic (**Fig. 4D**).

Furthermore, this toxicity was significantly enhanced by prior treatment with either IFNG or

sorafenib (**Fig. 4E**); the same was also true for mouse HCC cells (**Fig. 4F**). Together, these data

demonstrated that TNFA was the dominant soluble mediator of T_H1-cellular cytotoxicity

towards HCCs, with a sensitising role for both IFNG and sorafenib. However, because T_H1-

cells were not exclusively recruited into tumors treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy, we

reasoned that additional mechanisms likely enhance tumor killing for this particular treatment

combination.

IFNB induces a close-contact antigen-independent tumoricidal activity in T$_H$1-cells mediated by granzyme B in the absence of perforin.

Type-I interferons are important mediators of anti-viral immunity *via* upregulation of interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs), as well as enhancing immune-mediated killing of infected cells. We, and others, have shown that Reo and *uv*-Reo are potent inducers of the type-I interferon, 'IFNB' (*11, 41*) particularly in the context of both HCC and primary liver tissue (*41*). Thus, we compared the levels of IFNB produced by both human and mouse HCC cells *in vitro,* and mouse tumors *ex vivo,* when treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo monotherapy or in combination with sorafenib. Human and mouse HCC cells responded to *uv*-Reo (alone and in combination with sorafenib) with a robust induction of IFNB expression, which, surprisingly, was significantly larger than the response to Reo (**Fig. 5A - B**), consistent with the expression pattern seen for CCL5, *in vitro* (**Fig. S2C - D**). We examined the intracellular signalling events in HCC cells treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone and in the presence of sorafenib to better understand the differential induction of IFNB. The transcription factors NF*k*B p65 (RELA) and IRF3 were phosphorylated to a greater extent in HCCs treated with *uv*-Reo compared to Reo, both in the presence and absence of sorafenib, as determined by Western blot (**Fig. S4A**). Therefore, we compared the contribution made by each of these factors to the expression of IFNB using luciferase reporter assays containing either IRF3 (PD116) or NF*k*B p65 (PRDII) binding elements from the IFNB promoter. The IRF3 reporter was more strongly activated in HCC cells infected with *uv*-Reo (in both the presence and absence of sorafenib) compared to Reo (**Fig. S4B**). However, the opposite was true for the NF*k*B reporter with more robust activation in the presence of Reo, not *uv*-Reo (**Fig. S4C**). These data indicated that the differential activation and functional output from these pathways contributed the difference in IFNB induction by Reo/*uv*-Reo.

Viruses dedicate considerable proportions of their coding capacity towards the production of

virulence factors that minimise the interferon response within infected cells. Reovirus is no

exception (*42, 43*) so we hypothesised this may account for the differential induction of IFNB

observed in HCC cells.   Consistently, infecting HCC cells with Reo prior to *uv*-Reo

significantly dampened the induction of IFNB compared to *uv*-Reo alone (**Fig. S4D**). In

addition, the kinetics of virus-induced IFNB expression were slower with Reo compared to *uv*-

Reo, indicating a delay in viral sensing (**Fig. S4E**). Critically, this effect was dependent upon

Reo replication, and so presumably gene expression, as a nucleotide analogue inhibitor of the

RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, 2'-C-methylcytidine, ameliorated the suppressive effect

(**Fig. S4D**). These data indicated that a virulence factor could account for the differential

induction of IFNB between Reo and *uv*-Reo, *in vitro*. Accordingly, Reo μNS protein is known

to redirect IRF3 to viral replication factories (*42*), consistent with decreased levels of

phosphorylated protein within Reo infected HCC cells (**Fig. S4A**). Thus, whilst attenuation of

the Type 3 Dearing strain may be severe compared to other *Orthoreoviruses*, it is by no means

absent.

Interestingly, the highest level of intra-tumoral IFNB was found in tumors from mice

treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy (**Fig. 5C**), suggesting that IFNB might play an important

mechanistic role in suppressing tumor growth. Thus, we added recombinant IFNB to co-

culture assays comprising HCC cells and T_H1-cells to determine how this affected target cell

killing. IFNB significantly enhanced the tumoricidal activity of T_H1-cells (**Fig. 5D**) but, unlike

IFNG or sorafenib, did so *via* a mechanism that required proximity between the two cell types.

Separation of human or mouse IFNB-stimulated T_H1-cells from target HCC cells reduced

killing to the level of untreated T_H1-cells (**Fig. 5E**). Next, we examined the effect of pre-

treating HCC target cells with IFNB to determine whether the enhanced killing was a

consequence of either increased target cell sensitivity or the increased killing capacity of T_H1-

cells. Consistent with the latter, target cell killing was only enhanced when IFNB was added

concurrently with T_H1-cells (**Fig. 5F**) demonstrating that the IFNB acted directly on CD4$^+$ T-

cells.

We next investigated potential mediators of IFNB-enhanced T_H1-mediated killing of

HCC cells, namely TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) and FasL/Fas, both of

which are known to be utilised by T_H-cells in a juxtacrine manner. IFNB induced dose-

dependent expression of both soluble, and membrane-bound TRAIL in T_H1-cells, but not in

naïve CD4$^+$ T-cells (**Fig. S5A – C**). However, addition of a TRAIL-neutralizing antibody to

co-culture assays did not inhibit IFNB-enhanced T_H1-mediated killing (**Fig. S5D**). Similarly,

surface FasL expression was induced in CD4$^+$ T-cells upon T_H1-activation, and the Fas receptor

was readily detectable on HCC targets. However, FasL expression was not further enhanced

upon treatment with IFNB (**Fig. S5E - F**) and the addition of Fas neutralizing antibodies to co-

culture assays also failed to diminish IFNB-enhanced HCC killing (**Fig. S5G**). Consequently,

we considered the involvement of MHCII-dependent degranulation, described previously for

cytotoxic CD4$^+$ T-cells (*44, 45*). However, MHCII was not detected on human or mouse HCC

targets, and again addition of MHCII-neutralizing antibody to co-culture assays had no effect

(**Fig. 6A - B**).

Despite the lack of MHCII involvement, addition of EGTA (a calcium chelating

inhibitor of degranulation) to co-culture assays dose-dependently inhibited IFNB-enhanced

target cell killing (**Fig. 6C**). Hence, we next quantified the proportion of CD4$^+$ T-cells with

surface expression of the degranulation marker CD107a and intra-cellular expression of both

granzyme B and perforin, important components of the apoptosis-inducing machinery

deployed by cytotoxic T-cells. Using both human and mouse CD4$^+$ T-cells, we observed a

marked increase in the proportion of T-cells with surface CD107a expression and intra-cellular

granzyme B (GZMB) following T_H1-activation. Furthermore, this expression was significantly

enhanced upon stimulation with IFNB, consistent with the additive enhancement of killing by

these treatments (**Fig. 6C – D**). GZMB was also abundant in supernatants from T_H1-activated

T-cells, and levels were further increased upon treatment with IFNB (**Fig. 6F**). Accordingly,

addition of a small molecule GZMB inhibitor to co-culture assays dose dependently inhibited

IFNB-enhanced killing (**Fig. 6G** – *left panel*). The same response was also seen in the presence

of a pan-caspase inhibitor (**Fig. 6G** – *right panel*). Interestingly, only 1% of T_H1-cells treated

with IFNB expressed perforin (PRF) and this was only at low levels (**Fig. S6A**). Perforin was

undetectable in naïve $CD4^+$ T-cells. Taken together, these data demonstrate that IFNB induces

an antigen/perforin-independent mode of HCC cell killing, involving the short-range release of

GZMB by T_H1-cells.

Finally, given that $CD8^+$ cells were also present within tumors treated with *uv*-Reo and

sorafenib (**Fig. 2**), we compared their ability to engage in antigen-independent HCC killing

with that of $CD4^+$ T-cells. Consistent with the notion that $CD8^+$ T-cells played a lesser role in

tumor response to therapy, whilst they could indeed kill HCCs upon activation and this was

further enhanced by IFNB, their tumoricidal activity was significantly lower than that of $CD4^+$

T-cells (**Fig. S6B**). Furthermore, $CD8^+$ T-cell tumoricidal activity required neither TNFA (**Fig.**

6SC) nor degranulation (**Fig. S6D**) and was therefore distinct mechanistically from that of

$CD4^+$ T-cells.

Thus, we conclude that greatly increased T_H:CTL ratio within tumors treated with *uv*-

Reo/sorafenib therapy (**Fig. 2D**) combined with enhanced levels of TNFA, IFNG, IFNB and

CCL5, allow efficient control of tumor growth *in vivo* mediated by T_H1-activated $CD4^+$ T-cells,

via at least two distinct antigen-independent HCC killing mechanisms.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates superior efficacy for an immunotherapeutic approach to HCC treatment combining *uv*-inactivated, replication-deficient reovirus with the targeted agent, sorafenib. This combination therapy significantly extended the survival of mice bearing HCC tumors and exerted its anti-tumor activity by engaging a multi-faceted, antigen-independent response from cytotoxic $CD4^+$ T_H-cells (CTHs). Notably, this therapy was superior to when Reo was used in combination, allowing us to map the response *via* differential analysis *in vivo* and *in vitro*.

The response stems from *uv*-Reo/sorafenib induced expression of both the chemokine, CCL5, as well as IFNB; both are likely induced because of increased IRF3 phosphorylation compared with Reo in combination. Elevated expression of CCL5 led to increased accumulation of $CCR5^+$ T_H1-activated $CD4^+$ T-cells in tumors, thereby skewing the CD4:CD8 T-cell ratio in favor of T_H1-cells, which was not observed with any other treatment. These tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) exerted paracrine tumoricidal activity *via* TNFA, the response to which was enhanced in HCC cells by both IFNG and sorafenib. Concomitantly, increased expression of IFNB in HCC cells following stimulation with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib was a crucial mechanistic switch, stimulating an antigen/perforin-independent degranulation mechanism involving GZMB that required close cell-cell contact. Hence, our findings support that *uv*-inactivated reovirus could be used to enhance the efficacy of sorafenib during the treatment of HCC by engaging $TNFA^+GZMB^+PRF^{neg}$ T_H1-cells.

CCL5 (RANTES) is a C-C motif containing chemokine with a pleiotropic role in cancer biology, being secreted by and acting on both immune and tumor cell compartments. In the latter, CCL5 promotes epithelial-to-mesenchyme transition (EMT) and increases cancer cell

motility, thereby driving invasion and metastasis in numerous of cancer types (*46, 47*). In the

former, CCL5 recruits a variety of leukocytes, including monocytes, NK cells, and CD4^{+} T-

cells, through binding to one of its cognate receptors, namely CCRs 1, 3 and 5. Reo-induced

expression of CCL5 has been demonstrated in numerous cancer models, including melanoma,

prostate, and ovarian, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (*6, 8, 9, 11*). However, here, we showed that

CCL5 was more strongly induced in HCCs by *uv*-Reo, not Reo, suggesting that the former was

a more potent innate immune stimulant, consistent with the enhanced activation seen in the

intracellular signalling pathways of infected HCCs. This differential response was also

observed in PBMCs *in vitro*, demonstrating that this phenomenon was not restricted to

malignant cells. Consequently, the precise cell type(s) responsible for the expression pattern

of CCL5 *in vivo* have yet to be defined, but this likely arises from the combined contributions

of a heterogeneous population of cells responding to Reo/*uv*-Reo.

Activated T_H-cells can develop into a variety of functionally distinct subpopulations each

expressing a unique repertoire of chemokine receptors, including those responsive to CCL5.

T_H1-cells drive cell-mediated anti-tumor immune responses, produce large amounts of the

inflammatory cytokines TNFA and IFNG, and favor CCR5 (*48*). T_H2-cells drive humoral

responses, produce large amounts of IL4 and IL13, and favor CCR3 (*48*). Collectively, the

results of our cytokine, chemokine, and receptor expression analyses are consistent with the

CCL5-driven recruitment of T_H1-cells into tumors undergoing *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy.

Consequently, in the absence of equivalently increased CD8^{+} T-cell recruitment, the intra-

tumoral CD4:CD8 T-cell ratio is skewed in favor of T_H1-cells.

TNFA was originally identified because of its ability to induce detectable cytolysis in some

tumor cell lines (*49*), including HCC (*50*). However, the role of TNF in liver cancer is complex

and studies are often contradictory. There is a considerable body of evidence detailing a pro-

tumorigenic role for TNF in the development of liver cancer (*51, 52*) and attempts to exploit

TNF as an anti-cancer therapy met with limited success and significant toxicity, when

administered systemically as a single agent (*53*). In pre-clinical cancer models, direct intra-

tumoral injection of TNF resulted in widespread necrosis. However, much of this effect was

attributed to the anti-vascular activity of TNF, rather than direct cytolysis (*54, 55*), as necrosis

was absent in avascular tumors (*56*). Therefore, the scientific consensus is that TNF possess

weak direct cytolytic activity when administered as a single agent and this is consistent with

our findings here in HCC. However, this limited tumoricidal activity can be significantly

enhanced by co-administration of IFNG, a phenomenon demonstrated in a variety of tumor

types, including melanoma, breast, pancreatic, colon, Ewing's sarcoma, and insulinomas (*54,*

55, 57-60), confirmed again here in our study on HCC. We now add to this by demonstrating

that HCCs are sensitized to TNFA-induced cell death by the targeted TKI sorafenib. Sorafenib

is recognized for sensitizing tumor cells to death induced by members of the TNF family,

including TRAIL and Fas, a process attributed to the downregulation of the anti-apoptotic

protein Mcl-1 (*39, 40*). Although it is likely that the response to TNFA is enhanced by sorafenib

in a similar way, the precise mechanism has yet to be determined. Interestingly, we also found

that the killing of HCCs by T_H1-cells, mediated by TNFA/IFNG, occurred even in the presence

of the pan-caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-FMK, implicating a caspase-independent pathway.

These data provide an important mechanistic insight and suggest that the efficacy of *uv*-

Reo/sorafenib therapy is underpinned, at least in part, by a skewing of T-cell ratios in favor of

IFNG$^+$ TNFA$^+$ T_H1-cells. However, their expression of IFNG and TNFA does not fully explain

how they control tumor growth in response to *uv*-Reo/sorafenib and not in other treatment

groups where they are also equally abundant.

We, and others, have demonstrated that *uv*-Reo elicits a significantly more robust induction of

IFNB (a type-I interferon) in treated cells compared with Reo (*41, 61*). Here, we have

confirmed these findings in both human and murine HCC cells. Our analysis indicates that this

differential expression of IFNB could be attributed to the presence of a virulence factor

produced by Reo that dampens the innate response to viral infection. Several reoviral proteins

have been implicated as suppressors of the interferon response, including the non-structural

protein μNS (*42*) and the structural protein σ3 (*43*). It is likely that one or both contribute to

the suppression of IFNB in HCCs infected with Reo, but not *uv*-Reo. The pattern of IFNB

expression *in vivo* likely reflects the contributions from a heterogeneous collection of cell types

e.g., immune, stromal, vascular and cancerous, all growing in 3D.

This study demonstrates that IFNB induces a GZMB-mediated, antigen/perforin-independent,

short-range tumoricidal activity in T_H1-cells. The expression of GZMB by $CD4^+$ T-cells is not

typically taught as part of conventional T-cell dogma but is well-documented in the context of

viral infection (*22, 26-28, 32, 33*). However, reports of perforin-independent, GZMB-mediated

killing mediated by $CD4^+$ T-cells are so infrequent that we could not find examples in the

reviewed literature. Hence, this study breaks new ground by demonstrating antigen-

independent mechanisms exerting toxicity against HCC. The precise mechanisms through

which GZMB mediates cellular toxicity in the absence of perforin remain incompletely

understood. Various cell entry pathways have been described, including pinocytosis (*62, 63*)

and the binding to surface moieties such as the cation-independent mannose-6-phosphate

receptor (CI-MPR) (*64, 65*), heparin sulfate proteoglycans (*65*), and membrane-bound hsp70

(*66*). GZMB has also been demonstrated to play an extracellular role, wherein the digestion of

extracellular matrix proteins such as vitronectin, fibronectin and laminin induced apoptosis in

cells sensitive to anoikis (*67*). However, whether T_H1-derived GZMB exerts its cytotoxic

activity against HCC cells *via* intra-cellular or extra-cellular pathways has yet to be determined.

CD8$^+$ T-cells were also present in tumors treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy. Consequently,

this study cannot completely exclude the possibility that they contribute, albeit in a minor

capacity, to the efficacy of *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy. In the context of antigen-independent

immunity, CD8$^+$ T-cells were less tumoricidal than their CD4$^+$ counterparts, and utilised

mechanisms independent of TNFA and GZMB. The abundance of CD8$^+$ T-cells was also

unchanged in *uv*-Reo/sorafenib treated tumors relative to live Reo controls. Consequently, the

CD4:CD8 T-cell ratio was significantly skewed in favor of the former, indicating that T_H-cells

were likely the dominant immune effector cell type in tumors responding to *uv*-Reo/sorafenib

therapy. However, this study cannot discount a role for antigen-specific immunity in the delay

of tumor re-growth following the cessation of *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy (Post-therapy phase),

which also contributed significantly to the therapy-induced overall survival advantage, and this

remains the focus of ongoing research.

Taken together, our data demonstrate an antigen/perforin-independent immune response

mediated by GZMB$^+$ T_H1-cells against hepatocellular carcinoma, induced by the unusual

combination of *uv*-inactivated reovirus and the targeted agent, sorafenib. This highlights a

possibly overlooked role for GZMB$^+$CD4$^+$ T_H1-cells in mediating antigen-independent anti-

tumor immunity, and further work is needed to fully understand how non-canonical effector

cells can be exploited as a therapeutic tool for the treatment of HCC.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Mouse models

All *in vivo* experiments were conducted with the approval of the University of Leeds Applications and Amendments (Ethics) Committee and in accordance with UK Home Office regulations (PP1816772). BALB/c mice (BALB/cAnNCrl [Charles River Laboratories]) were housed in individually ventilated cages. SCID (CB17-Prkdc^{SCID} [St. James Biomedical Services]) and SCID/Beige (CB17-Prkdc^{SCID} Lyst^{bg} [Charles River Laboratories]) mice were housed in isolator cages. All mice were housed with 12-h light/dark cycles at 22°C with access to food and water *ad libitum*. For overall survival studies, female mice, aged 7 – 8 weeks, were implanted subcutaneously (*s.c.,*) with 1MEA cells in 100 µL of PBS. Once palpable (~2 – 3 mm in diameter), tumor-bearing mice were treated with either live- or *uv*-reo (1×10^7 pfu) (Oncolytics, Calgary, AB, Canada) in 50 µL of PBS *via* intra-tumoral injection (*i.t.,*), three times per week for six weeks. Reovirus or vehicle (PBS) were given alone or in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/Kg) (Cell Guidance Systems, St. Louis, MO, US) or vehicle (PBS, 25% polyethylene glycol 400, 5% Tween-20, 5% ethanol) *via* oral gavage (*o.g.,*), daily for 4 four weeks. Mice were regularly examined for signs of deterioration in health or weight loss. Tumour diameter was measured in two dimensions using callipers and mice were culled by an approved schedule 1 method when they reached 15 mm in diameter, and this was used as a proxy for predicting cancer-induced mortality. For histological, proteomic and RNA analyses, female mice were implanted with murine HCC cells and treated with live- or *uv*-reo alone or in combination with sorafenib or vehicle as described above, for two weeks. Twenty-four hours after the last treatment the mice were culled by an approved Schedule 1 method and tissue processed accordingly.

Primary cell cultures and cell lines

Human HCC cell line 'HLE" (Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources [JCRB], Japan) and the murine HCC cell line '1ME A7.7R.1' (1MEA) (American Tissue Culture Collection [ATCC], Manassas, VA, US) were cultured at 37°C in humidified 5% CO_2 in complete growth medium comprising DMEM supplemented with 2 mM *l*-glutamine, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), and 1 % non-essential amino acids (NEAA) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US). Primary human T-cells were isolated from peripheral blood (NHS Blood & Transplant Service, UK) using Ficoll-Paque™ (Merck Group, Darmstadt, Germany) density gradient centrifugation followed by positive selection using antibody-coated magnetic beads directed against either human CD4 or CD8 antigen (Miltenyi Biotechnology, Cologne, Germany). Isolated CD4$^+$ T-cells were either maintained in a naïve state by seeding in complete growth medium alone or underwent T$_H$1-activation in tissue culture flasks pre-coated with anti-human CD3 antibody (10 μg/mL) (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US) in complete medium supplemented with anti-human CD28 antibody (5 μg/mL) (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US), rhIL2 (50 U/mL) (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US) and rhIL12 (10 ng/mL) (Peprotech, Cranbury, NJ, US), for three days. Isolated CD8$^+$ T-cells were kept in a naïve state or activated as described for T$_H$1-cells, but in the absence of rhIL12.

Murine CD4$^+$ T-cells were isolated from BALB/c mice using a CD4 negative magnetic selection kit (Miltenyi Biotechnology, Cologne, Germany) on single cell suspensions generated from mouse spleens and lymph nodes. Naïve CD4$^+$ T-cells were seeded into tissue culture flasks, pre-coated with anti-mouse CD3 antibody (3 μg/mL), in complete medium supplemented with anti-mouse CD28 antibody (3 μg/mL), anti-mouse IL4 (10 μg/mL) and recombinant mouse IL2 (5 ng/mL) and IL12 (10 ng/mL) (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US), for three days prior to use.

Chemotaxis assay

Naïve or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells were serum-starved for two hours in chemotaxis buffer comprising RPMI-1640 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US) and 0.5% BSA (Merck Group, Darmstadt, Germany) before use. For each assay, 3×10^5 naïve or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells were labelled with CFSE and seeded into tissue culture inserts (5 μm pore size), in 24-well plates, in chemotaxis buffer (RPMI-1640 + 0.5% BSA) with or without the CCR5 inhibitor (Maraviroc, 1 μM) or vehicle. The lower compartment contained either chemotaxis buffer alone or was supplemented with rhCCL5 (100 ng/mL) with or without Maraviroc or vehicle. Chemotaxis was allowed to proceed for 1.5 hours prior to cell counting using a CytoFLEX S flow cytometer.

Immunofluorescence

Tumor cryosections 14 μm thick were fixed with either ice-cold acetone (3 – 5 mins) or 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) (5 mins) with permeabilization using 0.1% Triton-X100 (5 mins). Fixed sections were blocked with goat serum (10%) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US) for 1 hour and incubated with fluorophore-conjugated primary antibodies (2 – 5 μg/mL) overnight at 4°C. Nuclei were counter-stained using DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US) and labelled sections were mounted in ProLong Diamond antifade reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US). Images of random fields of view (F.O.V.) were acquired using both Nikon A1R (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) and Zeiss LSM 980 (Zeiss Group, Oberkochen, Germany) confocal microscopes. Image processing and quantification was performed using 'Fiji' Image J (National Institutes of Health [NIH], Bethesda, MD, US).

Proteomics

For cytokine array, tumor protein extracts were generated from snap-frozen biopsies using a combination of TissueLyser LT (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and four rounds of freeze/thaw cycling, in PBS. Mouse cytokine arrays (Cytokine array 'C3' [Raybiotech, Peachtree Corners, GA, US]) were incubated with 1 mg total protein pooled from samples in the indicated treatment groups, taking an equal amount of protein from each sample. Membranes were developed using chemiluminescent substrate with a ChemiDoc^{TM} imaging system (Bio Laboratories, Hercules, CA, US) and image quantification was performed using 'Fiji' Image J. For ELISAs, debris-cleared supernatants were collected from human and mouse HCC cell lines following overnight incubation with live/*uv*-reo (2 PFU/cell) and from T-cells at three days post-activation. ELISAs were performed against human and mouse IFNB and CCL5, and human TNFA, IFNG and TRAIL as described in the manufacturer's instructions.

Flow cytometry

HCC cell lines were detached, and T-cells were pelleted, then washed twice in HBSS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US) and resuspended in staining buffer (HBSS + 0.5% BSA), on ice. Directly-conjugated antibodies ($2 - 5$ μg/mL) were incubated with cells for 30-minutes on ice and the labelled cells were then washed twice with ice-cold staining buffer prior to analysis. For tumour specimens, biopsies preserved in 90% FCS and 10% DMSO were thawed at 37°C in a water bath, wash twice in ice-cold HBSS and forced through a 70 μm nylon mesh using a syringe insert. Single cell suspensions were labelled with antibodies against cell surface antigens as described above and then prepared using a Cyto-Fast Fix/Perm kit (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US), according to the manufacturer's instructions, prior to staining of intra-cellular antigens on ice for 30-minutes in Perm buffer. Fully stained cells were washed twice each in

Perm buffer and staining buffer prior to data collection. Data were collected using a CytoFLEX

S flow cytometer and analysed using FlowJo software (FlowJo Llc, Ashland, OR, US).

HCC/T-cell co-culture assays

For standard target cell killing assays, human and murine HCC cells were labelled with

carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, US),

seeded into 96-well plates (1.5×10^4 cells/well) and allowed to attach overnight. Naïve and

T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells were labelled with near infra-red dye (NIR) (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA, US) and seeded with target HCC cells at a ratio of 50:1 (E:T ratio)

in the presence or absence of rIFNB (500 ng/mL human [Peprotech, Cranbury, NJ, US]; 50

ng/mL murine [BioLegend, San Diego, CA, US]), with or without neutralizing antibodies or

EGTA, where indicated. Following overnight incubation, all cells were collected, including

adherent and non-adherent, then labelled with Zombie UV viability dye (BioLegend, San

Diego, CA, US), and fixed in 4% PFA prior to analysis. Target cell killing was determined

using a CytoFLEX S flow cytometer. For assays involving tissue culture inserts, target HCCs

were labelled as described above and seeded into 24-well plates (3.0×10^4 cells/well). NIR-

labelled CD4$^+$ T-cells were seeded into the upper chamber of a tissue culture insert (0.4 μm

pore size) and rIFNB was added to both upper and lower compartments, simultaneously.

Following overnight incubation, adherent and non-adherent cells were collected for analysis

from the lower compartment only.

Statistics

All figures and statistical analyses were performed using Prism software (GraphPad, San

Diego, CA). All data presented are expressed as means ± standard error of the mean (SEM)

and were analysed by one-tailed or two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test where appropriate. P

values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Sample size (n) is indicated

where appropriate in figure legends.

List of Supplementary Materials

Fig. S1 – S6, supplementary figures and legends.

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Figure 1

A.

B.

C.

Figure 1. The survival of mice bearing syngeneic hepatocellular carcinomas is significantly extended by an immune-mediated mechanism induced by a combination of sorafenib and *uv*-Reo. (**A**) Immunocompetent Balb/c mice bearing HCC tumors were treated with either Reo (*left*) or *uv*-Reo (*right*) alone (1×10^7 pfu) or in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/Kg) and tumor volume was monitored over time as a surrogate for cancer-induced mortality (Overall Survival – OS), see experimental design displayed (*top*). Treatments are all significant w.r.t. vehicle ($p \leq 0.05$) and *uv*-Reo+sorafenib was significant w.r.t. *uv*-Reo alone ($p = 0.0189$) and sorafenib alone ($p = 0.0027$). (**B**) Immunodeficient SCID (*left*) or SCID/Beige (*right*) mice bearing HCC tumors were treated with *uv*-Reo or in combination with sorafenib and overall survival monitored as described above. Treatment with *uv*-Reo+sorafenib was significant w.r.t. all groups in SCID mice only ($p \leq 0.01$). (**C**) Immunocompetent Balb/c mice bearing HCC tumors treated as described in 'A' but culled at two weeks of treatment during the "Therapy-phase" for subsequent analysis, when inhibition of tumor growth was observed (n = 5 mice per condition).

Figure 2

Figure 2. CD4$^+$ T-helper cells, but not CD8$^+$ CTLs, accumulate in murine hepatocellular carcinomas responding to the combination of *uv*-reovirus and sorafenib. Cryosections from murine HCC tumors treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (1x10^7 pfu) and in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/Kg), sampled during the "*Therapy-phase*", were immunofluorescently labelled for (**A**) CTLs (CD3$^+$CD8$^+$) and (**B**) T$_H$-cells (CD3$^+$CD4$^+$). (**C**) The abundance was of CTLs and T$_H$-cells was quantified in random fields of view (F.O.V.) obtained by confocal microscopy and the ratio of the two cell types was determined (**D**). (Scale bar = 50 μm; * $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 5 mice per condition).

Figure 3. Treatment of murine HCC tumors with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy elicits at CD4$^+$ T$_H$1-cell response. (**A**) Cytokine array analysis of pooled protein extracts generated from murine HCC tumors treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (1x10^7 pfu) or in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/Kg), data are shown for IFNG and TNFA (samples pooled from 5 mice per treatment group). (**B**) Quantification of IFNG and TNFA in supernatants from unstimulated naive human CD4$^+$ T-cells or following three days of activation in the presence of antibodies against CD3/CD28 and the cytokines IL2 (50 U/mL) and IL12 (10 ng/mL). (**C**) Cytokine array data generated as described in 'A' showing data for CCL5. (**D**) Chemotaxis assay comparing migration of naive or T$_H$1-activated human CD4$^+$ T-cells towards recombinant human CCL5 (100 ng/mL) in the presence of the CCR5 inhibitor 'Maraviroc' (1 µM) or vehicle (DMSO). (**E**) Flow cytometric data showing expression of CCR5 on the surface of human CD4$^+$ T$_H$1-cells (*left*) and CD45$^+$CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ T$_H$-cells in murine HCC tumors treated with *uv*-Reo/sorafenib therapy (*right*) (Sora. = Sorafenib, CCR5i = Maraviroc; * $p<0.05$, $\neq$ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001).

Figure 4. T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells exert a TNFA-dependent tumoricidal activity that is enhanced by tumor cell exposure to IFNG or sorafenib. (**A**) Co-culture assay between human HCC cell line 'HLE' in the presence of either naive or T$_H$1-activated human CD4$^+$ T-cells. HLE target cell viability determined by flow cytometry following incubation overnight. (**B**) Co-culture assay between HLEs and human CD4$^+$ T-cells as described in 'A', but with one additional group in which T-cells and HLE target cells are separated by a tissue culture insert with 0.4 μm pore size. (**C**) Co-culture assay setup as described in (A), but in the presence of increasing concentrations of anti-human TNFA neutralizing antibody or isotype-matched control. (**D**) Human HLE HCC cells were treated with increasing concentrations of recombinant human TNFA overnight and tumor cell viability was then determined by flow cytometry. (**E**) Human HLE HCC cells were pre-treated with rhIFNG (100 U/mL) or sorafenib (7 μM) followed by increasing concentrations of TNFA overnight then tumor cell viability determined by flow cytometry. (**F**) Murine HCC cells '1MEA' were treated overnight with increasing concentrations of rmTNFA alone or following pre-treatment with rmIFNG (100 U/mL) or sorafenib (7 μM) then tumor cell viability was determined by flow cytometry (* $p < 0.05$, ≠ $p < 0.01$, + < 0.001, ^ < 0.0001; n = 4 – 8 per condition).

Figure 5. IFNB expression is preferentially induced by *uv*-Reo in HCC cells and elicits a proximity-dependent mode of tumor cell killing in T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells. Human (**A**) and murine (**B**) HCC cells were treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo (2 pfu/cell) alone or in combination with sorafenib (7 μM) overnight and IFNB was quantified in supernatants by ELISA (n = 3). (**C**) Total tumor lysates were generated from murine HCC tumors, grown *in vivo*, treated with either live- or *uv*-reo alone (1x10^7 pfu) and in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/kg) or vehicle then IFNB was quantified by ELISA (n = 5). (**D**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells with or without rhIFNB (500 ng/mL). Target HCC cell viability was determined by flow cytometry following overnight incubation. (**E**) Co-culture assay using human (*left*) and murine (*right*) cells setup as described in (D), but with one additional group in which T-cells and target HCC cells were separated by a tissue culture insert with a 0.4 μm pore size. (**F**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells with or without rhIFNB (500 ng/mL) added concurrently with T-cell seeding or added to HCC cells prior T-cell seeding (Sora. = Sorafenib; * $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 4 – 8 per condition).

A.

HCC: Cell surface MHCII

B.

HLE/CD4: MHCII neutralization

C.

HLE/CD4: Inhibition of degranulation

D.

CD4: CD107a expression   *CD4:* Granzyme B expression

E.

CD4: CD107a expression   *CD4:* Granzyme B expression

F.

GZMB

G.

HLE/CD4: Granzyme B inhibition   **HLE/CD4**: Caspase inhibition

Figure 6. IFNB induces an antigen and perforin-independent, granzyme B-dependent mode of tumoricidal activity in T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells. (**A**) Flow cytometric analysis of cell surface MHCII proteins on human (HLE) and murine (1MEA) HCC cell lines. (**B**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells in the presence of rhIFNB with or without anti-MHCII neutralizing antibodies or isotype matched control. (**C**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells alone, with rhIFNB and in the presence of increasing concentrations of degranulation inhibitor 'EGTA'. Flow cytometric analysis of cell surface degranulation marker CD107a and intracellular expression of GZMB using human (**D**) and murine (**E**) naive or T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells treated overnight with rIFNB (mouse 50 ng/mL; human 500 ng/mL). (**F**) The presence of GZMB was quantified in supernatants from human naive or T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells treated with or without rhIFNB overnight. (**G**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T$_H$1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells with or without rhIFNB (500 ng/mL) overnight in the presence of increasing concentrations of a GZMB inhibitor, pan-caspase inhibitor or vehicle. (GZMBi = GZMB inhibitor; * $p < 0.05$, ≠ $p < 0.01$, + < 0.001, ^ < 0.0001; n = 3 – 8 per condition).

A.

Figure S1. Leukocyte abundance in syngeneic mouse hepatocellular carcinomas is largely unaffected by treatment with either reovirus or sorafenib. Cryosections were taken from murine HCC tumors grown in syngeneic hosts during the "Therapy-phase" following treatment with either Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (1×10^7 pfu) or in combination with sorafenib (7 µM) or vehicle. Tumor cryosections were immunofluorescently labelled for the detection of pan-myeloid cells (CD11b$^+$), MDSCs (CD11b$^+$Gr1$^+$), dendritic cells (CD11c$^+$MHCII$^+$) or NK cells (CD3^{neg}CD27$^+$) (n = 5 mice per condition).

A.

Vehicle   Live-Reo   *uv*-Reo

Sorafenib   Sorafenib + Live-Reo   Sorafenib + *uv*-Reo

—— IFNG
—— TNFA
—— CCL5
—— IL17A
—— IL4
—— IL13
—— CCL17

B.

☐ Vehicle   ☐ Reo   ☐ *uv*-Reo

C.

HLE: CCL5 *(ELISA)*   hPBMC: CCL5 *(ELISA)*   1MEA: CCL5 *(ELISA)*

☐ Vehicle   ☐ Reo   ☐ *uv*-Reo

Figure S2. Reovirus alone or in combination with sorafenib induced an intra-tumoral cytokine profile inconsistent with the recruitment or either T_H2 or T_H17 CD4$^+$ T-cell. (**A**) Images of cytokine arrays generated using pooled total tumor protein extracts from murine 1MEA HCC tumors grown in syngeneic host collected during the "Therapy-phase" following treatment with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (1×10^7 pfu) or in combination with sorafenib (10 mg/Kg) or vehicle. Cytokines of interest are highlighted. (**B**) Semi-quantitative data for T_H2 and $T_H17$cytokines from protein arrays shown in 'A'. (Pooled lysates were generated from 4 – 5 mice per treatment group and each cytokine semi-quantitatively measured in duplicate) (**C**) CCL5 was quantified in supernatants from human HLE monolayer cells (*left*), human PBMCs (*centre*), and mouse 1MEA cells grown as spheroids (*right*) following overnight treatment with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (2 pfu/cell) or in combination with sorafenib (7 µM) (* $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 3 per condition).

Figure S3. The tumoricidal activity of T_H1-cells against HCC cells is enhanced by pre-treatment with IFNG or sorafenib and killing is mediated by neither TRAIL nor LTA. (A) Human and murine HCC cells were treated with increasing concentration of rIFNG overnight and tumor cell viability determined by flow cytometry. (**B**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells pre-treated with or without rhIFNG (100 U/mL) and T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells. Target HCC cell viability determined by flow cytometry following overnight incubation (**C**) Co-culture assay between human HCC cells pre-treated with or without sorafenib (7 µM) and T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells. Target HCC cell viability was determined by flow cytometry following overnight incubation. (**D**) Human and murine HCC cells pre-treated with sorafenib (7 µM) prior to exposure to increasing concentrations of rIFNG overnight. HCC viability was determined by flow cytometry. Co-culture assays were performed overnight between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells in the presence of increasing concentrations of neutralizing antibodies against either TRAIL (**E**) or LTA (**F**) and target HCC cell viability was determined by flow cytometry (* $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 4 – 8 per condition).

A.

HLE: Intracellular signaling

D.

HLE: Infection time course

B.

HLE: PD116 (IRF3) luciferase reporter

E.

HLE: Live-Reo pre-treatment

C.

HLE: PRDII (NFκB) luciferase reporter

Figure S4. Differential induction of IFNB by Reo/*uv*-Reo in HLE cells arises from the expression of a virus-derived virulence factor. (**A**) Human HLE HCC cells were treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo (2 pfu/cell) overnight and total protein lysates examined by Western blot, under denaturing and reducing conditions, for activation of downstream signalling pathways. HLE HCC cells were transfected with plasmid luciferase reporter constructs containing IRF3 (**B**) NF*k*B (**C**) and IRF3 responsive elements from the IFNB promoter and treated as describe in 'A' before luciferase activity was quantified. (**D**) HLE HCC cells were treated with Reo/*uv*-Reo (2 pfu/cell), RNA samples were collected at the indicated time-points post-infection and qRT-PCR was performed to quantify changes in the expression of *IFNB* over time. (**E**) HLE HCC cells were infected with Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (2 pfu/cell) or with Reo followed by *uv*-Reo six hours later in the presence or absence of 2'-C-methylcytidine (30 µM). Following incubation overnight, RNA was extracted and the expression of *IFNB* was determined by qRT-PCR (* $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 3 per condition).

Figure S5. The tumoricidal activity of T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells treated with IFNB is not mediated by TRAIL or FasL/Fas. (**A**) T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells were treated with increasing concentrations of rhIFNB overnight and the concentration of soluble TRAIL was measured in supernatants by ELISA (n = 9). (**B** - **C**) T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells were treated overnight as described in 'A' and cell surface expression of TRAIL was quantified by flow cytometry (n = 3). (**D**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive of T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells with or without rhIFNB in the presence of increasing concentrations of anti-human TRAIL neutralizing antibody. Following incubation overnight, target HCC cell killing was determined by flow cytometry (n = 8). (**E**) Human HLE HCC cells were treated with increasing concentrations of rhIFNB overnight and cell surface expression of FasL was quantified by flow cytometry (n = 3). (**F**) Expression of FasL receptor – Fas – on human HLE HCC cells was confirmed by flow cytometry (n = 3). (**G**) Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or T_H1-activated CD4$^+$ T-cells, with or without IFNB, in the presence of increasing concentrations of anti-human Fas neutralizing antibody or isotype matched control (csTRAIL = cell surface TRAIL; * $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 8).

A.

CD4: Perforin expression

B.

HLE/T-cell: T-cell comparison
(CD4 *vs.* CD8)

C.

HLE/CD8: Co-culture

D.

HLE/CD8: Co-culture

Figure S6. CD8$^+$ T-cells display inferior antigen-independent tumoricidal activity against HCC cells compared with CD4$^+$ T$_H$-cells and use neither TNFA nor degranulation as their principal mode of killing. (A) The proportion of perforin-expressing human (*top*) and murine (*bottom*) CD4$^+$ T-cells was quantified by intracellular flow cytometry using either naïve, T$_H$1-activated, or T$_H$1-activated T-cells in the presence of rIFNB (n = 3). **(B)** Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or activated T-cells in the presence of absence of rhIFNB (500 ng/mL). **(C)** Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and naive or activated CD8$^+$ T-cells in the presence of anti-human TNFA neutralizing antibody (10 µg/mL) or isotype matched control. **(D)** Co-culture assay between human HLE HCC cells and either naive or activated CD8$^+$ T-cells with or without rhIFNB (500 ng/mL) in the presence of the degranulation inhibitor 'EGTA' (2 mM). The degree of target cell killing was determined in all co-culture assay by flow cytometry following incubation overnight. **(D)** Comparison of CD3$^+$CD4$^+$ and CD3$^+$CD8$^+$ T-cell ratio in cryosections taken from murine 1MEA HCC tumors grown in syngeneic hosts and treated for two weeks with either Reo/*uv*-Reo alone (1x10^7 pfu) or in combination with sorafenib (7 µM) or vehicle (Act. = activated, Sora. = sorafenib; * $p<0.05$, ≠ $p<0.01$, + <0.001, ^ <0.0001; n = 8 per condition).