Directed evolution-based discovery of ligands for in vivo restimulation of CAR-T cells

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Abstract

Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cell therapy targeting CD19 elicits remarkable clinical efficacy in B-cell malignancies, but many patients relapse due to failed expansion and/or progressive loss of CAR-T cells. We recently reported a strategy to potently restimulate CAR-T cells *in vivo*, enhancing their functionality by administration of a vaccine-like stimulus comprised of surrogate peptide ligands for a CAR linked to a lymph node-targeting amphiphilic PEG-lipid (termed CAR-T-vax). Here, we demonstrate a general strategy to generate and optimize peptide mimotopes enabling CAR-T-vax generation for any CAR. Using the clinical CD19 CAR (FMC63) as a test case, we employed yeast surface display to identify peptide binders to soluble IgG versions of FMC63, which were subsequently affinity matured by directed evolution. CAR-T vaccines using these optimized mimotopes triggered marked expansion and memory development of CD19 CAR-T cells in both syngeneic and humanized mouse models of B-ALL/Lymphoma, and enhanced control of disease progression. This approach thus enables vaccine boosting to be applied to any clinically relevant CAR-T cell product.

Introduction

CD19-targeted chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cell therapy elicits impressive anti-tumor activity in the treatment of relapsed or refractory B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (B-ALL) and lymphoma in both pediatric and adult patients[1,2]. This clinical success led to the FDA approval of four CD19-targeted CAR-T products, namely TECARTUS, KYMRIAH, YESCARTA, and BREYANZI[1]. However, a significant fraction (30-60%) of patients still experience leukemia relapse, among which ~50% are CD19-positive relapses[3], suggesting impaired function and/or persistence of the infused CAR-T cells. Robust CAR-T cell engraftment and expansion *in vivo* is a prerequisite for antitumor efficacy[4], a feature that is affected by several characteristics of the CAR-T cell product such as T cell quality[5], CAR designs[3,4,6] and the proportion of early memory T cells in the product[7]. In current CAR-T cell therapy treatment regimens, patients usually receive lymphodepletion to promote CAR-T cell engraftment[8]. Interestingly, multiple reports have shown a correlation between the early-stage expansion of CAR-T cells and initial tumor burden[8,9]. These findings suggest the capacity of CAR-T cells to receive antigen-specific stimulation post-infusion is critical for CAR-T cell expansion, engraftment, and potentially long-term persistence. However, whether the antigens presented by tumor cells are sufficient to optimally stimulate CAR-T cells remains unclear.

Vaccination is a natural process whereby T-cells receive antigen-specific stimulation leading to proliferation, differentiation, and induction of effector functions[10]– effects which could be beneficial in promoting CAR-T cell function *in vivo*. However, traditional vaccines provide antigens that must be processed into peptides by professional antigen-presenting cells (APCs) and presented on the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) molecules to stimulate T-cells through the T-cell receptor (TCR). This is challenging to adapt to the setting of engineered CAR-T cells, as current CAR-T products are polyclonal and express uncharacterized TCRs. Further, recent next-generation engineering efforts such as knocking CARs into the TCR locus produce CAR-T lacking endogenous TCRs[11]. Proof of concept demonstration of CAR-T cells generated from virus-specific T cells followed by vaccine boosting via the viral-specific TCR has been shown in small clinical trials, yet the benefits observed with this approach have been limited[12,13].

To overcome these issues, we recently developed a molecularly-targeted amphiphilic vaccine (amph-vax) approach to directly stimulate CAR-T cells through the chimeric antigen receptor[14,15]. Amph-vax molecules were generated by linking a CAR-ligand to albumin-binding phospholipid polymers. Following parenteral injection, these CAR-ligand conjugates associate with endogenous albumin present in interstitial fluid and are carried into lymph and downstream draining lymph nodes (dLNs). In the dLN, the lipid tails of amph-vax ligands insert into cell membranes, including membranes of professional APCs, allowing APCs to directly "present" the CAR ligand to CAR-T cells together with additional co-stimulation and cytokine support, making them *de novo* CAR-T cell-priming APCs (**Extended Data Fig. 1**)[14]. Amph-vax stimulation led to pronounced CAR-T cell expansion with enhanced functionality, memory formation and substantially enhanced tumor clearance[14,15]. Importantly, we also found that vaccine boosting of CAR-T cells promotes antigen spreading and the induction of endogenous anti-tumor immune responses, which prevent antigen loss-mediated tumor escape[15]. We demonstrated these effects using CARs that recognize synthetic ligands (e.g., fluorescein) and a model EGFRvIII-specific CAR, where the scFv domain of the chimeric receptor recognized a linear peptide epitope in EGFRvIII that is readily synthesized as an amph-ligand. However, to generalize this strategy and enable amph-vax boosting with any arbitrary CAR of interest, an approach is needed for *de novo* generation of surrogate peptide ligands for chimeric antigen receptors.

Here, we demonstrate a workflow to identify peptide mimotope ligands for CAR receptors using yeast surface display-based directed evolution[16], which allows for the generation of amph-vaccines that can be used with any CAR system. We demonstrate the pipeline by discovering an amph-ligand that can be used with all four FDA-approved CD19 CAR-T cell therapies. We created

a customized mimotope yeast library to identify peptides that bind to the licensed CD19 CARs.
Affinity maturation of hits from this library led to the identification of a peptide with high affinity for
the CAR. An amphiphile mimotope (amph-mimotope) vaccine based on this peptide efficiently
stimulated CD19 CAR-T cells *in vitro*, triggered their expansion *in vivo*, and enhanced clearance
of leukemia in both syngeneic and humanized mouse models of B-ALL/Lymphoma. To show
generality, we also generated amph-mimotopes for a second human CAR recognizing the
anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK) antigen and a murine CD19 CAR. Collectively, these results
show the successful development of a clinically translatable amph-mimotope vaccine with the
potential for endowing currently FDA-approved CD19 CAR-T cell therapies with enhanced anti-
leukemic activity.
164
165 **Results**
166
Antigen⁺ tumor cells drive transient CD19 CAR-T expansion but are insufficient to promote
long-term CAR-T persistence

CD19-positive relapse is often associated with limited CAR-T persistence and/or impaired
functionality[3,17]. To provide insight into whether the level of available antigen stimulation impacts
early CAR-T expansion/persistence, we analyzed data from several early clinical trials in children
and young adults (CAYA) with B-ALL from the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia (NCT01626495
[18] and NCT02906371[19]) and in adult patients with B-ALL (NCT02030847[20]) or B-cell lymphoma
(NCT02030834[21]) from the University of Pennsylvania. We found that CAR-T cell expansion is
generally associated with initial tumor burden, with CAR-T cells infused into patients with high
tumor burden (>40% bone marrow blasts in pre-infusion bone marrow aspirate) exhibiting more
pronounced expansion and longer persistence (**Fig. 1A-C, Extended Data Fig. 2A-B**). This
association is statistically significant in CAYA with B-ALL (**Fig. 1A-C**) and exhibits a trend towards
significance in adult B-ALL and B-cell lymphoma (**Extended Data Fig. 2A-B**), consistent with
observations from earlier studies[8,9].
Since CD19 CAR-T cells target normal B cells, continued B cell aplasia can be used as a
pharmacodynamic measure for the presence of functional CD19 CAR-T cells[22]. Nearly half of the
pediatric B-ALL patients receiving CD19 CAR-T cell therapy experienced B cell recovery after
initial B cell aplasia (**Fig. 1D**), indicating loss of functional CAR-T cells. Interestingly, there was
no significant association between the initial tumor burden and the probability of B cell recovery,
suggesting that increased early stimulation from tumor cells was not sufficient to maintain CAR-T
function. A recent long-term follow-up study found that a higher ratio of peak CAR-T expansion to
tumor burden correlates with overall survival and is a better prediction of long-term survival than
the absolute magnitude of T cell expansion or tumor burden[23]. These data suggest that if CAR-T
cells receive greater antigen stimulation following infusion, they can undergo greater expansion,
an important correlate of response to therapy[23,24]. However, sustained anti-tumor function over
time requires that T-cells receive restimulation by professional APCs, particularly dendritic cells
(DCs), which express high levels of costimulatory receptors and cytokines that are lacking from
tumor cells and resting B cells[25,26]. By mining a published dataset[27], we observed significantly
higher co-stimulatory molecule expression in DCs than healthy and likely-malignant B cells in B-
ALL patients (**Fig. 1E, Extended Data Fig. 3A-H**). We previously also observed that the
comprehensive suite of costimulatory molecules expressed by DCs is essential for promoting
memory differentiation and optimal amplification of CAR-T cells during vaccine boosting[14]. These
observations suggested to us that an efficient and safe DC-targeted vaccination approach to
reinvigorate and sustain CAR-T cell function could be impactful for enhancing current clinical
CD19-targeting CAR-T cell therapies.
202
Discovery of peptide ligands for CARs using yeast surface display

We previously demonstrated that a CAR-specific amph-vaccine could provide potent stimulation
of CAR-T cells *in vivo*[14,15]. The vaccine was created by linking a CAR ligand to an albumin-binding
PEG-lipid, which upon co-administration with adjuvant, would efficiently traffic to draining lymph
nodes and decorate the surface of APCs, allowing presentation of the ligand to CAR-T cells in
the LN (**Extended Data Fig. 1**). We demonstrated this proof of concept using CARs that
recognized arbitrary small molecule ligands (e.g., fluorescein (FITC)) or linear peptide epitopes
[14]. However, the antibody-based antigen-binding domain of the FDA-approved CD19 CARs
(which employ an antibody clone known as FMC63) binds to a conformational epitope spanning
multiple domains of the human CD19 antigen[28]. Further, the CD19 extracellular domain (ECD) is
difficult to express and prone to misfolding[29], making it challenging to use recombinant CD19 for
manufacturing an amphiphile vaccine to stimulate CD19 CAR-T cells. As it is common for CAR
binding domains to recognize complex conformational epitopes[30–32], we sought to establish a
general strategy to generate simple surrogate ligands for any CAR. We hypothesized that the
generation of mimotopes, linear synthetic peptides that are also recognized by the CAR binding
domain in addition to its native target antigen, could be an ideal option (**Fig. 2A**).
To identify mimotopes for FMC63, we employed a yeast surface display library[32]
presenting $\sim 5 \times 10^8$ randomized linear peptides of 10 amino acids (AA, 10mer) for screening
against recombinant FMC63 expressed as a full-length IgG (hereafter, FMC63^{IgG}, **Fig. 2B**). Initial
screening was performed using biotinylated FMC63^{IgG} attached to streptavidin beads for magnetic
enrichment of weakly-bound yeast clones. After a single round of screening using this enrichment
protocol, flow cytometry analysis identified two yeast populations P1 and P2, which bound with
higher or lower relative affinity to FMC63^{IgG}, respectively, but not an isotype control antibody (**Fig.
2C**). The two peptides shared a common enriched sequence motif RXCPWXCXXX. The presence
of two cysteines in the mimotope motif suggested the possibility that these mimotopes formed an
intramolecular disulfide bond, with the proline between the two cysteines likely promoting a hairpin
formation in the peptide structure[33]. Computational modeling of P1 (RHCPWNCSLL) and P2
(RICPWSCRAP) interactions with FMC63 using AlphaFold predicted the mimotopes take on a
curved alpha-helical structure, suggesting the formation of a cyclic structure with an intra-peptide
disulfide bond (**Fig. 2D**).
To confirm the presence of a disulfide bond within the mimotope and test whether the
disulfide is necessary for peptide binding to FMC63^{IgG}, we treated the yeast clone P1 with
increasing concentrations of the reducing agent dithiothreitol (DTT, **Fig. 2E**). Treatment with 10
mM DTT lowered Aga2p levels on the yeast cells by ~10-fold, likely due to cleavage of the
disulfide linkages anchoring the protein to the yeast cell surface. However, mild reductive
conditions (i.e., 0.1mM, 1mM DTT) largely preserved Aga2p on yeast surface but eliminated
FMC63^{IgG} binding (**Fig. 2E**). To further verify that this loss in antibody binding reflected loss of a
disulfide in the mimotope itself, we chemically synthesized a cyclic version of mimotope P1 and
monitored its binding to FMC63^{IgG} using ELISA in the presence or absence of pre-treatment of
the peptide with DTT, and found that FMC63^{IgG} recognized plate-bound P1 with an apparent K_D^{IgG}
of 1.4 μM, but this binding was completely ablated for DTT-treated P1 (**Fig. 2F**). Next, we created
amph-mimotope molecules by conjugating P1 functionalized with an N-terminal azide to DSPE-
PEG2k-DBCO through click chemistry (**Fig. 2G**). To test whether the amph-mimotope could insert
in cell membranes and enable CD19 CAR-T cell recognition, we labeled CD19-negative K562
cells with amph-P1 and then incubated them with human CD19 CAR-T cells *in vitro* (**Fig. 2G**).
Amph-P1-decorated K562 cells effectively triggered IFN-γ secretion from CD19 CAR-T cells but
to a much lesser extent than NALM6 cells (**Fig. 2H**). By contrast, amph-P1 failed to stimulate
control EGFRvIII CAR-T cells which responded robustly to amph-pepvIII (pepvIII, a minimal
epitope from EGFRvIII, **Fig. 2I**). These results confirmed that P1 is a functional mimotope with a
cyclic conformation required for its specific recognition by FMC63.
To demonstrate that the yeast mimotope library is suitable for identifying mimotopes for
any desired antibody, we repeated the library screen using an anti-mouse CD19 antibody (Clone

1D3) (**Extended Data Fig. 4A-D**) and an anti-human Anaplastic Lymphoma Kinase (ALK)
antibody of interest for CAR-T cell treatment of lymphoma and some lung cancers (**Extended**
Data Fig. 4E-F). These additional library screens successfully identified multiple binders for each
antibody, highlighting the potential of yeast surface display to effectively identify antibody-specific
mimotope peptides.
260
Affinity maturation of the CD19 mimotope

The affinity of a typical CAR toward its ligand is often in the low nanomolar range[34], however,
mimotope P1 only exhibited a low micromolar apparent affinity toward FMC63[IgG], and this
apparent K_D is likely a substantial overestimate of the monovalent affinity of the peptide for FMC63
given the bivalent IgG format used in our binding assays. We therefore aimed to further evolve
the mimotope to obtain variants with enhanced affinity. To this end, a new mimotope library V2
was generated bearing a shared motif derived from the two parental mimotopes, namely
RXCPWXCXXX, with a diversity of ~1.5×10^8 (**Fig. 3A**). We pre-enriched the V2 mimotope library
for binders using FMC63[IgG]-coated magnetic beads (see Materials and Methods), and found that
a significant portion of this bead-enriched library V2 could be positively stained with 20 nM
biotinylated FMC63[IgG], while the original P1 yeast clone showed no detectable binding at this
concentration (**Fig. 3B**). Flow cytometry sorting of the top 1% of the positive yeast cells followed
by sanger sequencing yielded dozens of mimotope clones. Sequence analysis of these
mimotopes revealed a consensus sequence with high-affinity binding potential to FMC63[IgG] (**Fig.**
3C). Several candidate mimotope clones resembling the consensus sequence were validated
experimentally, and all of them exhibited stronger binding than the original clone P1 (**Fig. 3D**).
We moved forward with mimotope F12 given its highest resemblance to the consensus sequence
and highest binding affinity to FMC63[IgG]. This sequence was bound to FMC63 with an apparent
K_D^{IgG} of 15.6 nM (again, a value likely overestimating the true monovalent K_D due to the avidity
effect of the bivalent FMC63 IgG). Alanine scanning across all AA positions in the F12 peptide
confirmed the determining role of R at position $1°$, C at positions $3°$ and $7°$, P at position $4°$, and
W at position $5°$ (**Fig. 3E**). Residues at the remaining AA positions contributed more modestly to
the overall affinity. Interestingly, inserting an extra 1-2 alanines between positions $6°$ and $7°$
completely disrupted F12 binding to FMC63[IgG] (**Fig. 3E**), likely through the disruption of the intra-
mimotope disulfide bond. Given the labile nature of the disulfide bond in the mimotope, we sought
to test if the disulfide bond can be replaced with a structurally similar yet non-reducible thioacetal
bond to produce a more stable mimotope (**Extended Data Fig. 5A-B**). Replacing the disulfide
bond with a thioacetal bond completely eliminated its binding to FMC63[IgG], perhaps because the
thioacetal bond is 0.9 angstrom (Å) longer than the disulfide bond (**Extended Data Fig. 5C**).
Next, we sought to evaluate the contribution of the flanking sequence to mimotope binding
with FMC63[IgG]. A 17 AA linker (GGGGS)$_3$AS was initially introduced between the 10-mer
mimotope and Aga2p during yeast library construction to avoid steric hindrance. We chemically
synthesized F12 mimotope variants with increasing length of the upstream linker and performed
ELISA to verify FMC63[IgG] binding. Strikingly, the addition of even a minimal SAS tri-amino acid
linker at the N-terminus of the peptide increased binding of F12 to FMC63[IgG] by a further ~100-
fold (**Fig. 3F**). Given these data, we created a third yeast library V3 with ~1×10^8 diversity with 0-
6 and 3-10 flanking residues extended from the N- and C-termini of F12, respectively (**Fig. 3G**),
aiming to identify mimotope variants with even higher affinity. We performed kinetic sorting by
competing off pre-bound biotinylated monovalent FMC63[scFv] using non-modified bivalent
FMC63[IgG] and were able to identify yeast populations with prolonged retention of biotinylated
FMC63[scFv], indicative of slower off-rates. Characterization of individual clones identified mimotope
variants with further increased affinity compared to the parental F12 clone (**Fig. 3H**). Notably,
clone F12-A1 exhibited a further ~10-fold increased affinity toward FMC63[scFv] compared to F12.
In the same competition assay as depicted in **Fig. 3G**, FMC63[scFv] remained bound on F12-A1

yeast surface over 24 hours in the presence of excess soluble FMC63^{IgG} but was competed off
the parental F12 clone within half an hour (**Fig. 3I**). Finally, we generated amphiphile conjugates
of P1, F12 and F12-A1. When presented on the cell surface, these amph-mimotope variants
exhibited apparent K_D^{scFv} values of >1µM, 33.6 nM, and 9.9 nM, respectively (**Fig. 3J**). Therefore,
these sequential affinity maturation screens effectively enabled the identification of mimotopes
with a much-improved affinity for the CAR antibody.
311
Optimized mimotopes bind to FMC63 without compromising its recognition of CD19

To gain a comprehensive view of how the CD19 mimotope interacts with FMC63, we leveraged a
recently solved crystal structure of FMC63^{scFv} in complex with CD19 (PDB:7URV)[30] and modeled
mimotope binding to FMC63^{scFv}. Both F12 and F12-A1 were modeled using Alphafold[35] and
Rosetta[36], and the FMC63^{scFv}-CD19, FMC63^{scFv}-F12, and FMC63^{scFv}-F12A1 binding interfaces
were analyzed using PDBePISA[37]. PDBePISA analysis recovered many of the previously defined
interactions between FMC63^{scFv} and CD19 through analysis of polarities and bond lengths **(Fig.**
4A), confirming the validity of PDBePISA in performing interaction interface analysis. Structural
modeling of F12 (**Fig. 4B**) or F12-A1 (**Fig. 4C**) interactions with FMC63^{scFv} showed that these
mimotopes engage FMC63^{scFv} at the same domain. The key residues on FMC63^{scFv} that are
essential for CD19 binding were found to be Y260, Y261, Y70, G263, W212, G262, S214, K69,
Y265, and G129 [30]. Of these key residues, both F12 and F12-A1 engage Y260 and S214 **(Fig.**
4D). However, only F12-A1 engages G263 (**Fig. 4D**), which likely explains its stronger binding to
FMC63^{scFv} than F12.
326   To experimentally assess potential overlaps in the binding interface of FMC63 to CD19 vs.
our mimotope peptides, we pre-blocked FMC63^{scFv}, FMC63^{IgG} or an alternative control anti-CD19
antibody HIB19^{IgG} with increasing concentrations of mimotopes F12 or F12-A1, and then added
the antibodies to CD19$^+$ NALM6 cells (**Fig. 4E**). When FMC63^{scFv} was pre-blocked with F12
peptide, binding to NALM6 cells was only compromised when the F12 concentration was 100 µM,
and NALM6 binding was nearly unaffected for FMC63^{IgG}. By contrast, F12-A1 abolished
FMC63^{scFv} or FMC63^{IgG} binding to CD19 when the mimotope concentrations were greater than 1
or 10 µM, respectively, consistent with its higher affinity for FMC63. However, when FMC63 CAR-
expressing Jurkat T cells were pre-blocked with increasing concentrations of F12 or F12-A1 and
stimulated with NALM6 cells, CD69 induction on Jurkat cells was not affected (**Fig. 4F**). Thus,
despite some ability of the mimotopes to interfere with soluble FMC63 binding to CD19$^+$ cells at
high concentrations, FMC63-CAR-T cells retained their full potential of recognizing CD19$^+$
leukemic cells even in the presence of mimotopes.
339
Amph-mimotope vaccination triggers FMC63-mCAR-T expansion *in vivo*

To test if amph-mimotope vaccines could efficiently stimulate human CD19-targeting CAR-T cells
in an immunocompetent mouse model *in vivo*, we established a hybrid CAR by fusing the FMC63
scFv to murine CAR signaling domains, (FMC63-mCAR, **Fig. 5A**). First, we validated the ability
of the amph-mimotope variants to stimulate FMC63-mCAR-T cells. K562 cells were pre-labeled
with amph-mimotope variants and co-cultured with FMC63-mCAR-T cells as in **Fig. 2G.** Amph-
mimotope-decorated target cells triggered IFN-γ production from the CAR-T cells, with the
stimulation efficiency positively correlating with FMC63-mimotope affinity and amph-F12-A1
providing the strongest CAR-T activation, comparable to stimulation by NALM6 cells (**Fig. 5B**).
To determine if these amph-mimotopes could be effectively presented by DCs *in vivo*, we
vaccinated C57BL/6 mice with 10 nmol amph-F12-A1, a dose we previously found to be effective
for amph-peptide stimulation of CAR-T cells. We formulated the mimotope with or without cyclic-
di-GMP, a STING agonist added as an adjuvant[38]. Following vaccination, we isolated CD11b$^+$
myeloid cells and CD11c$^+$ DCs from the draining inguinal lymph nodes and analyzed the presence

of surface-displayed amph-peptides using flow cytometry by staining the cells with biotinylated
FMC63[IgG] (**Extended Data Fig. 6A**). Interestingly, high levels of amph-mimotope were detected
on APCs for at least 24 hr, but only when amph-mimotope was co-administered with adjuvant
(**Fig. 5C**).
Next, we labeled FMC63-mCAR-T cells with cell trace violet (CTV) and transferred them
into C57BL/6 mice, followed by vaccination with amph-P1, amph-F12, amph-F12-A1 vaccine, or
an irrelevant amph-pepvIII as a control and flow cytometry analysis to detect CAR-T cell
proliferation (CTV dilution) 2 days later. This functional test of amph-mimotope stimulation
revealed a clear hierarchy of mimotope activity *in vivo*, with amph-P1 eliciting no CAR-T cell
proliferation, amph-F12 eliciting limited proliferation, and only amph-F12-A1 triggering
proliferation of the entire CAR-T population (**Fig. 5D**). These data suggest there is an affinity
threshold for mimotope vaccines to effectively stimulate CAR-T cells *in vivo*.
Clinical evidence indicates that lack of antigen exposure soon after adoptive transfer may
compromise CAR-T engraftment[39]. To test if amph-mimotope vaccine boosting post adoptive cell
transfer could promote FMC63-mCAR-T cell expansion and engraftment in the absence of
leukemia, naïve CD45.2[+] C57BL/6 mice received sublethal lymphodepletion followed by
intravenous infusion of either CD45.1[+] FMC63-mCAR-T or control untransduced T cells (**Fig. 5E**).
Without additional treatment, peripheral CD45.1^{+} CAR-T cells only occupied <5% of total CD8^{+} T
cells by day 4 and decreased to <3% by day 14 (**Fig. 5E**). By contrast, amph-F12-A1 vaccine
boosting rapidly amplified CD45.1 CAR-T cells, reaching ~40% of total peripheral CD8^{+} T cells
(~500 CAR-T cells per microliter of blood, **Fig. 5E, Extended Data Fig. 6B**) by day 14 after two
weekly vaccinations, and then slowly contracting over the next few weeks.
376
Amph-mimotope vaccine boosting of FMC63-mCAR-T in an immunocompetent mouse
model of B-ALL/Lymphoma
We next sought to evaluate effects of optimized amph-F12-A1 vaccine boosting of FMC63 CAR-
T in an immunocompetent mouse model of CD19^{+} hematological malignancy. We transduced
Eμ-Myc B-ALL/Lymphoma cells[40] with human CD19 and firefly luciferase. When these
hCD19^{+}Luc^{+} Eμ-Myc cells were inoculated into C57BL/6 mice, animals developed aggressive B-
ALL/Lymphoma with 100% penetrance and a median survival of 18 days (**Extended Data Fig.**
7A-C). FMC63[IgG] showed minimal binding WT B cells expressing mouse CD19, and FMC63-
mCAR-T effectively killed hCD19^{+} but not WT Eμ-Myc cells *in vitro* (**Extended Data Fig. 7D-E**).
On day 4 post leukemia engraftment, mice were infused with FMC63-mCAR-T alone of CAR-T
combined with three weekly amph-mimotope vaccine boosts (**Fig. 6A**). Treatment with CAR-T
alone resulted in moderate leukemia control (**Fig. 6A-B**); however, CAR-T in combination with
amph-mimotope boosting markedly suppressed disease progression (**Fig. 6A-B**). Enumeration
of CAR-T cells in the blood confirmed that vaccine boosting elicited a rapid CAR-T expansion
(**Fig. 6C**). Phenotypically, peripheral CAR-T cells from mice receiving vaccination were dominated
by an effector population on day 11, but by day 18, nearly 50% of CAR-T cells in vaccinated mice
exhibited a central memory phenotype compared to <20% in non-boosted animals (**Fig. 6D-E**).
Vaccine-boosted CAR-T cells also possessed significantly higher cytokine polyfunctionality (**Fig.**
6F-G). As a result, mice receiving both CAR-T and amph-mimotope vaccine had greatly extended
survival compared to those receiving CAR-T cells alone (**Fig. 6H**). Lymph nodes of amph-
mimotope-boosted animals retained organized T and B cell areas suggesting a lack of overt
toxicity of the vaccine boost to draining lymph nodes (**Extended Data Fig. 8A-B**), and no
mimotope-specific antibodies were induced (**Extended Data Fig. 8C**). Thus, amph-mimotope
boosting of FMC63 CAR-T cells induced multiple favorable effects on CAR-T cell phenotype and
increased the anti-tumor efficacy of CAR-T therapy.
We previously reported amphiphile-fluorescein (amph-FITC) boosting of CAR-T cells bearing
bivalent FITC/tumor antigen-specific CARs[14]. To compare amph-mimotope boosting of the FMC63-

mCAR vs. this alternative approach in the hCD19$^+$ Eμ-Myc model, we synthesized a tandem
FITC/hCD19-targeted murine CAR construct (i.e., αFITC-FMC63-mCAR), employing the same
high-affinity anti-FITC scFv we previously tested. *In vitro*, these dual-CAR T cells effectively
recognized and killed hCD19$^+$ Eμ-Myc cells (**Extended Data Fig. 7E**). Treatment of Eμ-Myc
tumor-bearing animals with tandem αFITC-FMC63-mCAR-T cells alone elicited similar tumor
control as the monovalent FMC63-mCAR-T (**Extended Data Fig. 9A-C,** compare with **Fig. 6A-**
B). However, while animals receiving treatment with the tandem CAR-T alone did not show signs
of toxicity until the tumors progressed, all animals receiving the amph-FITC vaccine boost rapidly
developed signs of severe toxicity immediately following the first vaccine boost, including
hypothermia and hunched posture, and despite similar early tumor control to the non-boosted
tandem CAR group, all animals receiving amph-FITC boosting died by day 20 (**Extended Data**
Fig. 9A-D). By contrast, mice receiving FMC63-mCAR-T + the amph-mimotope vaccine showed
no visible signs of toxicity during the treatment course (**Extended Data Fig. 9D**).
As the major difference between the amph-FITC and amph-mimotope vaccines is the
affinity of the ligands for the CAR (the 4m5.3 scFv used in the FITC CAR binds to fluorescein with
K_D = 270fM[41]), we hypothesized that these disparate outcomes reflect an over-stimulation of the
tandem αFITC-FMC63-mCAR T cells, leading to an exacerbation of cytokine release syndrome
(CRS) when these cells encounter circulating tumor cells in the B-ALL/Lymphoma model.
Comparison of CAR-T cell levels in the blood showed that CAR-T expansion induced by the two
vaccines was comparable, suggesting that increased toxicity following FITC boosting could not
be attributed simply to the number of CAR-T cells present (**Extended Data Fig. 9E**). However,
analysis of serum cytokines at day 6 after the first immunization (or earlier from moribund mice)
showed severe CRS in mice receiving amph-FITC vaccine + tandem CAR-T as exemplified by
massive elevations of serum IL-6, IL-10, and TNF-α (**Extended Data Fig. 9F**). However, these
signature CRS cytokines remained at low levels in mice receiving CAR-T only, or FMC63-mCAR-
T plus amph-mimotope vaccination (**Extended Data Fig. 9F**). To assess if this discrepancy was
triggered by the differential responses of CAR-T cells towards their respective vaccines, we co-
cultured CAR-T cells with the amph-vax-labeled K562 cells *in vitro* and found that amph-FITC
triggered much higher levels of IFN-γ and TNF-α secretion by tandem CAR-T cells than the amph-
mimotope elicited cytokine secretion from FMC63-mCAR-T cells (**Extended Data Fig. 9G-H**).
These results suggest that in the setting of cancers where CAR-T cells encounter a substantial
frequency of tumor cells in the blood, high-affinity ligand boosting can exacerbate CRS. This
provides an important additional rationale for the mimotope discovery pipeline, where moderate
affinity ligands can be readily isolated for any given CAR.
438
Amph-mimotope-labeled DCs enhance human CD19 CAR-T expansion and leukemia
clearance in a humanized mouse model

Human CAR-T cells are routinely evaluated in immunodeficient NSG mice, but this animal model
is problematic for testing lymphatics-mediated amph-vaccine boosting, as these mice have
generally defective lymph nodes and lymphatic development due to their lack of native
lymphocytes[42]. To overcome this technical hurdle, we devised an alternate strategy to test amph-
vaccine boosting of human CAR-T cells. We previously showed that amph-ligand vaccine
molecules label lymph node-resident DCs, which are the key APC population mediating the amph-
vaccine stimulation[14]. To mimic this process in NSG mice in a human-relevant setting, we
differentiated human peripheral blood monocytes into DCs *in vitro* and matured them with
lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and IFN-γ (**Fig. 7A**). These matured human monocyte-derived DCs
(MoDCs) exhibited significantly increased expression of multiple co-stimulatory molecules,
including CD80/86, 41BBL, OX40L, and ICOSL (**Fig. 7A**). Incubation of activated MoDCs with
amph-F12-A1 led to robust cell surface labeling with the mimotope (DC-mVax, **Fig. 7B**). DC-
mVax efficiently stimulated human CD19 CAR-T cell activation *in vitro* (**Fig. 7C**) but were

refractory to CAR-T cell killing (**Extended Data Fig. 10A**), consistent with our prior observations
that DCs were not eliminated during vaccine boosting *in vivo*[14], and work suggesting DCs have
mechanisms to resist CTL-mediated killing[43,44]. To determine if DC-mVax could activate and
expand human CD19 CAR-T cells *in vivo* in the absence of additional antigen, we infused human
CD19 CAR-T cells into non-leukemic NSG mice with or without subsequent *i.v.* infusion of DC-
mVax (**Fig. 7D-E**). Mice receiving a single dose of DC-mVax 24 hours post CAR-T infusion
exhibited significant expansion of CAR-T cells in the peripheral blood compared to those receiving
unmodified DCs, and circulating human CD19 CAR-T cells remained detectable at day 30 (**Fig.
7E**). Notably, the extent of CAR-T cell expansion markedly decreased when DC-mVax was
infused 7 days post CAR-T cell transfer, indicating that early antigen exposure plays an important
role in promoting CAR-T expansion and engraftment (**Fig. 7E**). Repeated dosing of DC-mVax on
day 1 and day 7 days led to a further increase in CAR-T cell expansion (**Fig. 7E**).
To determine if DC-mVax boosting could augment the anti-tumor activity of human CD19
CAR-T cells, we established leukemia in NSG mice by infusing luciferase-expressing NALM6
tumor cells as previously described[45]. Suboptimal doses of CD19 CAR-T cells were administered
on day 4 followed 24 hours later by repeated *i.v.* infusions of either unmodified DCs or DC-mVax
(**Fig. 7F**). Despite the presence of high levels of target cells, CAR-T cells alone showed poor
persistence/expansion compared to CAR-T cells boosted with DC-mVax (**Fig. 7G**). Notably, DC-
mVax boosting significantly enhanced CAR-T cytokine polyfunctionality (**Extended Data Fig.
10B-C**) and differentiation toward a central memory phenotype (**Extended Data Fig. 10D-E**).
While CAR-T cells alone only slightly delayed tumor expansion and moderately prolonged survival,
the addition of the DC-mVax boosting enabled this dose of CAR-T cells to substantially slow tumor
growth (**Fig. 7H-I**) and 30% of the animals completely rejected their tumors (**Fig. 7J**). Collectively,
these results demonstrated that a suitably affinity-matured amph-mimotope could act as an
effective vaccine to promote engraftment, expansion, and reinvigoration of human T cells
expressing the CAR currently used in all approved CD19-targeting CAR-T products and enhance
their anti-leukemic activity.
481
Discussion

Successful engraftment and persistence is critical for ensuring robust and long-term anti-leukemic
activity by CAR-T cells[1,46]. Analysis of data from recent CAR-T cell clinical trials suggested that
CD19-directed CAR-T cells initially expand more strongly if there is a high tumor burden,
consistent with the idea of CAR-T expansion that is commensurate with the dose of antigen
encountered. However, the long-term persistence of CAR-T cells does not correlate with the initial
tumor burden, suggesting that this initial stimulus vanishes over time as leukemic cells are cleared
from the body and/or that stimulation received from tumor cells or naïve B cells lacking appropriate
costimulatory signals is insufficient to maintain the CAR-T cell population. We and others have
recently demonstrated the ability of using a synthetic vaccine to boost CAR-T cells *in vivo* and
achieved enhanced therapeutic outcomes[14,15,47]. Our strategy of linking a ligand for the CAR to a
lymph node-targeting PEG-lipid amphiphile is simple but requires a suitable peptide or protein
ligand. The poor expression and misfolding of recombinant human CD19 ectodomain[29] make the
use of the native target antigen challenging for this approach. Here we demonstrate that surrogate
CAR ligands based on short peptides can be readily identified and affinity-matured using directed
evolution, enabling the generation of mimotope vaccines that efficiently boost CD19 CAR-T cells
analogous to natural CD19 antigen exposure. Vaccine boosting significantly impacted the
outcome of CD19 CAR-T cell therapy by increasing CAR-T cell expansion and engraftment as
well as augmenting CAR-T cell functionality. Importantly, the mimotope vaccine discovered here
is applicable to all four FDA-approved FMC63-based CD19 CAR-T cell therapies.
In addition to the human CD19 CAR mimotope, mimotopes for anti-mouse CD19 and anti-
human ALK CARs were also successfully identified using the same yeast mimotope library,

indicating the broad applicability of this library for identifying mimotopes for any desired antibody.
Experimental verification and structural modeling demonstrated that the CD19 mimotope
discovered through the yeast library forms a cyclic conformation that is essential for its recognition
by FMC63. Given that FMC63 recognizes a conformational epitope, it is possible that a mimotope
also needs to form a desired secondary structure to achieve strong binding. Notably, the CD19
mimotope only partially occupies the natural epitope binding domain on FMC63. This partial
occupancy appears to enable FMC63-based CD19 CAR-T cells to maintain their capacity to
recognize CD19^{+} leukemia cells even in the presence of the mimotope, which could be important
for allowing the CAR-T cells to continue sensing tumor cells in lymph nodes during vaccine
boosting. The transient surface presentation of amph-ligands also prevents CAR-T cells from
receiving excessive and prolonged antigen exposure, thus reducing the likelihood of CAR-T cell
exhaustion and severe cytokine release syndrome[14].
We previously reported an alternative approach for vaccine boosting CAR-T, where the
CAR itself is engineered as a tandem CAR with one binding domain recognizing a tumor antigen
and the other domain binding to the synthetic molecule FITC, enabling boosting of these tandem
CARs with the amph-FITC vaccine[14,15]. While this approach avoids the need to generate a new
amph-vaccine for each new CAR product, many CARs (such as the FMC63-based CAR products)
have already reached extensive clinical testing, providing a strong motivation to leave the CAR
design itself unchanged. In addition, the tendency of scFvs to undergo aggregation that can
induce detrimental tonic signaling in CAR T cells[48–50] may make the bivalent CAR approach
untenable for some CARs. In these settings, the amph-mimotope strategy is an ideal solution.
While B cells retain the antigen for CAR-T, evidence suggests that B cells themselves may
not be as effective as conventional DCs for restimulating CAR-T cells at least partially due to
greater expression of co-stimulatory molecules in DCs[26]. Our previous findings showed that co-
stimulatory molecules expressed by activated DCs are crucial for optimally expanding CAR-T
cells with amph-ligands[14]. This DC-specific effect is further exemplified in our DC-mVax boosting
of human CAR-T in NSG mice and amph-mimotope vaccine boosting of mouse CAR-T in the Eµ-
Myc B-ALL/Lymphoma mouse model, where vaccination not only drove CAR-T expansion but
also enhanced effector cytokine expression and promoted memory differentiation. Conventional
CD19 CAR-T cells expand and show efficacy following the first infusion, however, reinfusion of
CAR-T cells into patients experiencing CD19^{+} tumor relapse is often ineffective, with significantly
lower CAR-T expansion compared to the first infusion[39,51–53]. Therefore, one potential use of the
mimotope vaccine is to support CAR-T cells during reinfusion. Notably, even during the first
infusion, CD19 CAR-T cells rapidly decline after a transient expansion[9,54]. Despite the general
correlation of initial CAR-T expansion with baseline tumor burden, a long-term follow-up study in
B-ALL found that a higher ratio of peak CAR-T-cell expansion to tumor burden significantly
correlated with event-free survival and overall survival[23]. Although this effective ratio more likely
occurs in patients with lower tumor burden, administering the mimotope vaccine upon CAR-T
contraction during the first infusion could potentially reinvigorate CAR-T cells and sustain CAR-T
expansion to elevate this effective ratio in patients with both low and high tumor burden to improve
event-free survival.
Given the toxicity associated with rapid CAR-T activation and expansion in patients with
hematological malignancies, such as CRS and immune effector cell-associated neurotoxicity
syndrome (ICANS), amph-vaccine affinity, dose, and dosing intervals may need to be tailored
based on the CAR-T cell number and residual tumor burden in patients in future clinical trials. In
our previous work, the amph-FITC vax/tandem CAR-T combination enhanced CAR-T therapy
against solid tumors with transient mild toxicity[14]. However, in a side-by-side comparison, we
found that the amph-FITC vax/tandem CAR-T combination triggered a lethal CRS in the
immunocompetent Eµ-Myc B-ALL/Lymphoma mouse model, while amph-mimotope vax/CAR-T
treatment effectively controlled leukemia progression with limited toxicity. Our data suggests this
drastic discrepancy in toxicity profiles is linked to the much higher affinity of the tandem CAR

towards the amph-FITC vaccine vs. the amph-mimotope binding to FMC63. These data indicate that amph-vaccine ligand affinity plays a critical role in the outcome of CAR-T boosting in cancers involving substantial levels of circulating tumor cells that will trigger cytokine secretion in the blood. The mimotope discovery pipeline described here is well suited to identify effective and safe ligands, as it allows mimotopes with a wide range of affinities to be discovered.

One set of challenges for characterizing amph-vaccines designed for human T cells are the deficiencies of current humanized mouse models. The defective lymphatics, absent or disorganized lymph nodes, and poor crosstalk of mouse APCs with human T cells is a barrier to evaluating vaccine boosting of human CAR-T cells in NSG mice[42]. As an alternative, we evaluated vaccine boosting of mouse T cells bearing a hybrid FMC63-mCAR in immunocompetent C57BL/6 mice via standard vaccine administration routes and boosting of human CD19 CAR-T cells using mimotope-decorated human MoDCs in NSG mice via *i.v.* delivery. These two complementary approaches demonstrated the feasibility of the mimotope vaccine in the setting of natural trafficking and distribution from lymphatics to lymph nodes, as well as its capacity to stimulate human CAR-T cells upon insertion into the surface of human DCs.

mRNA vaccines encoding the target tumor antigen can also be employed to stimulate CAR-T cells[47]. Recently, a CLDN6-expressing mRNA vaccine was tested in a phase 1 clinical trial in combination with CLDN6-directed CAR-T cells and showed promise in improving CAR-T cell expansion in patients with solid tumors[55]. Importantly, CAR-T plus mRNA vaccination was well tolerated, suggesting the overall safety profile associated with this combination therapy. However, mRNA-LNPs differ from our amphiphile vaccines in their *in vivo* trafficking, biodistribution, and the duration of antigen presentation on the cell surface. Therefore their differential effects on boosting human CD19 CAR-T cells remain to be determined.

In summary, we have designed and validated a general strategy to generate mimotope ligands for any CAR. Using this methodology, we demonstrate an amph-mimotope vaccine that could be used clinically in tandem with all four FDA-approved CD19 CAR-T cell products. The ability of amph-mimotope vaccines to efficiently stimulate human CD19 CAR-T cells *in vivo* supports its potential use as a robust and clinically translatable approach for enhancing the engraftment, long-term persistence, and anti-leukemic activity of current CD19 CAR-T cell therapies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the Koch Institute Swanson Biotechnology Center for technical support, specifically the flow cytometry core facility. We thank Dr. Michael Hemann from the Koch Institute of MIT for sharing the Eμ-Myc cells. We thank Dr. Steve Albelda for his suggestions on the manuscript. **Funding:** This work was supported by the NIH (award EB022433 to DJI), the Marble Center for Nanomedicine (to DJI), and the Mark Foundation for Cancer Research (to DJI). L.M was supported by an American Cancer Society postdoctoral fellowship, the Cell and Gene Therapy Collaborative and the Junior faculty pilot program at CHOP, NIH New Innovators Award (DP2 AI164319-03), ITMAT at UPenn and NCATS (UL1TR001878). This work is also partially supported by Cancer Center Support (core) Grant P30-CA14051 from the NCI to the Barbara K. Ostrom (1978) Bioinformatics and Computing Core Facility of the Swanson Biotechnology Center. D.J.I. is an investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute. R.R. and A.N are supported by a National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship Program award. Parisa Yousefpour is supported by an NRSA F32 fellowship (award AI164829) from the NIH. M.R. is supported by the NIH NCI P01 PCA214278C, the R01/37-CA262362-01A1, the Laffey McHugh Foundation, and the Berman and Maguire Funds for Lymphoma Research at Penn. G.G is supported by the SITC-Mallinckrodt Pharmaceuticals Adverse Events in Cancer Immunotherapy Clinical Fellowship, and the Mario Luvini fellowship grant—Fondazione Ticinese per la Ricerca sul Cancro.

606
607 **Data and materials availability**: All data are available on request.

608
AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

L.M., D.J.I., and K.D.W designed the studies. L.M., T.M.G., R.R., and D.J.I. analyzed and
interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. L.M and N.M generated yeast mimotope libraries.
L.M. and T.M.G performed the experiments. B.C and I.S assisted with mimotope identification.
D.M.M. mined single cell RNA-sequencing data. L.M., L.Z., and R.S. carried out amphiphile-
mimotope synthesis. R.R. performed structural modeling. I.S. P.Y. and H.S. assisted with sample
preparation. W.A., A.N., R.T., and A.C. assisted with animal experiments. A.R. performed lymph
nodes immunofluorescence studies. B.G. performed ELISA analysis. S.K., R.M.M., S.A.G., L.P.,
G.G., S.J.S, N.F. and M.R. processed and provided the clinical data. E.B. and R.C assisted with
ALK mimotope identification and verification.

619
620
DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

L.M and D.J.I are inventors on patents filed related to the amphiphile-mimotope vaccine
technology. G.G. served as a scientific consultant for viTToria Biotherapeutics. M.R. holds patents
related to CD19 CAR-T cells, served as a consultant for NanoString, Bristol Myers
Squibb,GlaxoSmithKline, Scaylite, Bayer, and AbClon, receives research funding from
AbClon,NanoString, Oxford NanoImaging, viTToria biotherapeutics, CURIOX, and Beckman
Coulter. M.R. is the scientific founder of viTToria Biotherapeutics

656
657 **FIGURE LEGENDS**
658
Figure 1: CD19 CAR-T cell expansion and B cell aplasia in pediatric B-ALL patients with
initial high or low tumor burden, and rationale for a DC-targeting CD19-CAR stimulating
vaccine. (**A**) Scatterplot of peripherally circulating CAR-T cells in pediatric B-ALL patients with
initially high (≥40%, *n*=40) or low tumor burden (<40%, *n*=90) measured by quantitative
polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) over time during the first month after infusion. Solid lines show
trends generated by locally estimated scatterplot smoothing (loess). The median time to peak
CAR-T expansion was 10 days after infusion in both cohorts. (**B**) Maximum concentration and (**C**)
Area under the curve (AUC) of CAR-Transgene levels measured by qPCR, broken down by tumor
burden. ***, p<0.001, by Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. (**D**) Kaplan-Meier analysis of B cell aplasia for
all patients (black) or high (orange) or low (blue) tumor burden patients. B cell aplasia is defined
as the time to the emergence of ≥1% CD19-positive B cell in bone marrow aspirate or ≥3% B cell
by peripheral blood flow cytometry or CD19-positive relapse. Data were censored for patients
who had CD19-negative relapse, reinfusion for hematogones in the marrow, alternative therapy
including other CAR-T therapy or hematopoietic stem cell transplant, or non-relapse mortality. The
probability of continued B-cell aplasia at two years was similar in both cohorts (p = 0.76). At 6
months, it was 72% (95% CI 55-95) in high and 67% (95% CI 57-78) in low tumor burden patients.
(**E**) Box plot of costimulatory molecule module scores expressed by B cells (likely-healthy and
likely-malignant) and DC. Each point represents the average of all cells of that phenotype within
a patient. ****, p<0.0001, by a two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test.
678
Figure 2: Yeast surface display identifies CD19-CAR binding mimotopes. (**A**) Illustration of
CD19-CAR stimulation by natural CD19 or amph-mimotope. (**B**) Yeast surface display workflow
for identifying antibody-specific mimotopes. (**C**) Flow cytometry plots showing the successful
identification of yeast cell populations (P1 and P2) binding to 1 μM FMC63^{IgG} after a single round
of magnetic enrichment. (**D**) Structural modeling of mimotopes P1 and P2 binding to FMC63. (**E**)
Impact of the disulfide bond on mimotope binding to FMC63^{IgG} on yeast surface. Yeast cells
bearing mimotope P1 were treated with increasing concentrations of DTT, and then stained with
500 nM biotin-FMC63^{IgG} and an anti-HA tag antibody for analysis of binding by flow cytometry. (**F**)
ELISA analysis showing the impact of the disulfide bond on synthetic mimotope binding to
FMC63^{IgG}. (**G**) Scheme for amph-mimotope generation by click chemistry linkage of azide-
modified P1 to DBCO-PEG-DSPE, and schematic illustration of amph-P1 coating of target cells.
(**H**) CD19$^-$ K562 cells labeled with 100 nM amph-P1, unlabled K562 cells, or CD19$^+$ NALM6 cells
were co-cultured with CD19 CAR-T at a 5:1 E:T ratio for 6 hr followed by IFN-γ ELISA. (**I**) K562
cells unlabeled, labeled with 100 nM amph-P1, or labeled with 100 nM amph-pepvIII were co-
cultured with control EGFRvIII-CAR-T cells at a 5:1 E:T ratio for 6 hours followed by IFN-γ ELISA.
Error bars show mean ± s.d. with triplicate samples. **, p<0.01 by one-way ANOVA with Turkey's
post-test. A, B, and G are created with BioRender.com.
696
Figure 3: Affinity maturation of CD19 mimotopes. (**A**) Schematic workflow for identifying
affinity-enhanced mimotope variants of P1 from a motif-fixed mimotope library V2. Created with
BioRender.com. (**B**) Flow cytometry plots of 20 nM FMC63^{IgG} binding to yeast cells expressing
the V2 mimotope library. The yeast clone P1 was included as a control. The V2 mimotope library
was pre-enriched using FMC63^{IgG}-coated magnetic beads (see materials and methods). (**C**)
Weblogo showing the consensus mimotope sequence with high-affinity binding to FMC63^{IgG}. (**D**)
Binding of FMC63^{IgG} to select yeast clones assessed by flow cytometry. Amino acid sequences
and apparent binding affinity are shown for each yeast clone. Median fluorescence intensities
(MFI) at each concentration were fit for the calculation of apparent K_Ds . (**E**) Impact of individual
AA positions on FMC63^{IgG} binding. Yeast clones bearing F12 variants with 1-2 alanine (Red)

insertions or individual AA mutated to alanine (Red) were assessed for FMC63^{IgG} binding by flow
cytometry. (**F**) ELISA showing the impact of flanking residues on mimotope^{F12} binding to FMC63^{IgG}.
The apparent binding affinity was determined as in D. (**G**) Schematic workflow for identifying
affinity-enhanced mimotopes from mimotope library V3 using kinetic sorting. Yeast library V3 was
first stained with monovalent biotin-FMC63scFv, followed by competition with non-biotinylated
bivalent FMC63^{IgG}. Created with BioRender.com. (**H**) Binding of FMC63^{scFv} to select yeast clones
bearing various evolved mimotopes. The parental mimotope^{F12} sequence was underlined. The
apparent binding affinity was determined as in D and specified after the mimotope sequence. (**I**)
Representative histograms showing retention of prebound FMC63^{scFv} on yeast clone F12-A1 in
the presence of FMC63^{IgG}. Yeast cells were pre-stained with 50nM Biotin-FMC63^{scFv} followed by
incubation with 1µM FMC63^{IgG}. Yeast cells were sampled at indicated times for PE-streptavidin
staining as an indicator for the retention of Biotin-FMC63^{scFv}. (**J**) CD19^{-} K562 cells were labeled
by incubation with 500 nM of the indicated amph-mimotopes, washed, then incubated with various
concentrations of fluorescent FMC63^{scFv} followed by flow cytometry analysis of scFv binding;
apparent binding affinities were determined as in **H**. Error bars show mean ± s.d. with triplicate
samples.

Figure 4: Structural modeling of mimotopes complexed with FMC63. (A) Ribbon diagram of
FMC63^{scFv} (purple) in complex with human CD19 (green, PDB 7URV). Interactions involving key
residues of FMC63 are shown. Interacting sidechain atoms are shown and boxed. Interactions
involving backbone atoms are labeled without box. **(B-C)** Computational models generated using
Alphafold and Rosetta for FMC63^{scFv} bound to F12 (**B**) or F12-A1 (**C**), respectively. Interactions
involving previously mentioned key residues of FMC63 are labeled using the same scheme as in
A. For F12-A1, the orientation of mimotope is shown to best exhibit how it engages FMC63. The
panel in the bottom left depicts the complex in the same orientation as F12-FMC63. **(D)** Interface
footprint of mimotopes on FMC63. On the left side, the CD19 interface is shown in green, the F12
interface shown in orange, and overlapping residues are shown in red. On the right side, the CD19
interface is shown in green, the F12A1 interface shown in blue, and overlapping are residues
shown in red. **(E)** Recognition of natural CD19 recognition by FMC63^{scFv} in the presence of
mimotopes. Biotinylated FMC63^{scFv} was pre-incubated with various concentrations of F12 or F12-
A1 prior to staining NALM6 cells and detection via PE-conjugated streptavidin. For FMC63^{IgG}
binding, NALM6 cells were stained with the same concentrations of mimotope and FMC63^{IgG} with
no prior incubation, and binding was detected using PE-conjugated anti-mouse-IgG. A non-
competing IgG clone HIB19 is shown as a control. **(F)** Activation of mimotope-bound CD19 CAR-
T cells by target cells. CD19-CAR Jurkat T cells were pre-incubated with F12 or F12-A1 at
indicated concentrations, then co-cultured with NALM6 cells at a 1:1 E:T ratio for 16 hours
followed by flow cytometry analysis of CD69 expression. Shown in E-F are one representative
results of three independent experiments.

**Figure 5: Amph-mimotopes require a threshold affinity to stimulate CAR-T proliferation in
vivo**. (**A**) Schematic of hybrid FMC63-mCAR design. (**B**) Comparison with various amph-
mimotopes in stimulating FMC63-mCAR-T cells. K562 cells were labeled with 100 nM of amph-
mimotope variants for 30 min, washed, and co-cultured with FMC63-mCAR-T cells at a 1:1 E:T
ratio for 6 hours followed by ELISA measurement of IFN-γ secretion. (**C**) Amph-mimotope labeling
of APCs *in vivo*. C57BL/6 mice (*n*=3 animals/group) were vaccinated with 10 nmol amph-
mimotope ± CDG adjuvant, and 24 or 48 hr later, mimotope uptake by macrophages and cDCs
was detected by staining with FMC63 followed by flow cytometry analysis. Shown are
representative histograms of FMC63 staining. (**D**) Amph-mimotope vaccine stimulation of CAR-T

cells *in vivo*. WT C57BL/6 mice (*n*=3 animals/group) received adoptively transferred with 2x10^6
CTV-labeled FMC63-mCAR-T cells, then vaccinated 1 day later with 10 nmol amph-peptides +
25µg CDG adjuvant (Vax). Shown above is the timeline and below are representative histograms
of FMC63-mCAR-T cell proliferation in LNs 48 hours after vaccination. (**E**) Longitudinal monitoring
of CAR-T expansion in response to amph-mimotope vaccination. C57BL/6 mice (*n*=5
animals/group) were lymphodepleted (L.D.), adoptively transferred with 10^6 FMC63 CAR-T cells,
and then vaccinated at indicated time points, and circulating FMC63-mCAR-T cells were
quantified in the blood by flow cytometry over time. Error bars show mean ± s.d. with triplicate
samples for B, mean ± 95% CI for C-E. ***, p<0.0001;**, p<0.01; n.s., not significant, by one-way
ANOVA with Turkey's post-test for B-D, two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-test for E.

Figure 6: Amph-mimotope vaccine enhances FMC63-mCAR-T therapy in an
immunocompetent hCD19$^+$ Eµ-Myc B-ALL/Lymphoma mouse model. (**A-B**) Real-time whole
animal imaging tracking disease progression. C57BL/6 albino mice were lymphodepleted (L.D.)
and injected with 0.5x10^6 hCD19$^+$ Luc$^+$ Eµ-Myc cells. On day 4, mice were adoptively transferred
with 2x10^6 FMC63-mCAR-T cells, then vaccinated 1 day later with 10 µg amph-F12-A1 + 25 µg
CDG(*n*=8 animals/group). Shown are whole animal imaging at indicated times (**A**), and
quantification of total photon counts over time in each group (**B**). (**C**) Enumeration of circulating
CAR-T cells or control T cells by flow cytometry over time. (**D-E**) Immunophenotype of circulating
CAR-T cells on days 11 and 18. Shown are the representative flow cytometry plots (**D**), and
percentages of effector/effector memory (EM, CD44$^+$CD62L$^-$) and central memory (CM,
CD44$^+$CD62L$^+$) CAR-T cells (**E**). (**F-G**) Cytokine polyfunctionality of circulating CAR-T cells on
day 11. Shown are representative contour plots (**F**), and percentages of cytokine-secreting CAR
T cells (**F**). (**H**) The overall survival of Eµ-Myc mice under various treatment regimens. Error bars
show mean± 95%CI. *, p=0.0100; **, p<0.01; ***, p<0.001, ****, p<0.0001, by two-way ANOVA
with Tukey's post-test for B, by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-test for C, by unpaired t-test
for E, G, by Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test for H.

Figure 7: Amph-mimotope vaccine-labeled DCs augment human CD19 CAR-T therapy
against leukemia. (**A**) Schematic of approach to generate "DC-mVax" and representative
histograms depicting LPS/IFN-γ-induced upregulation of co-stimulatory markers on mature DCs.
(**B**) Representative histogram showing FMC63^{IgG} binding to DC-mVax. Activated MoDCs were
incubated with 500 nM amph-F12-A1 or control amph-pepvIII for 30min, washed, and then stained
with FMC63^{IgG}. (**C**) CAR-T activation by DC-mVax. Activated MoDCs were labeled with amph-
F12-A1 or amph-pepvIII as in (**B**) and then co-cultured human CD19 CAR-T cells at a 1:1 E:T
ratio. Shown is IFN-γ measured in the supernatant after 6 hr by ELISA. (**D**) Experimental setup
and timeline for E. (**E**) Quantification of circulating human CD19 CAR-T cells in the absence or
presence of a single dose of DC-mVax at day 1 or day 7 or two weekly doses of DC-mVax
administered following timeline in D (n=5 animals/group). (**F**) Experimental setup and timeline for
G-J. (**G-J**) Real-time whole animal imaging of B-ALL progression in NSG mice. Human CD19-
CAR-T cells were administered with or without DC-mVax and tumor progression was monitored
using *in vivo* bioluminescent imaging (*n*=5 animals/group. Shown are the enumeration of
circulating human CD19 CAR-T cells on day 21 (**G**), whole animal imaging at indicated times (**H**)
and quantification of total photon counts over time (**I**). Shown is one of two independent
experiments. (**J**) Overall survival of NSG mice under various treatment regimens. *n*=10 animals
assembled from two independent experiments. Shown are combined data from two independent
experiments. Error bars show mean ± s.d. with triplicate samples for C, and mean ± 95% CI for
E,G, I-J . ***, p<0.0001; **, p<0.01 by Student's t-test for C and G, by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's
post-test for E and I, and by Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test for J.

807
808 **References**
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927

Fig 1

Fig 2

A CD19 / Amph-mimotope / Tumor / APC / CD19-CAR (FMC63) / T cell

B Aga2p / HAtag / Mimotope / Aga1p / Yeast / Library (>10⁸ variants) / Magnetic enrichment / FACS enrichment / Wide-range affinity interaction (pM<Kd <µM) / FMC63

C Isotype^{IgG} (1µM) / FMC63^{IgG}(1µM) / FMC63^{IgG} binding / Mimotope surface display (HA tag) / P1 0.19 / P2 0.2 / P1 7.35 / P2 2.03

D P1 (RHCPWNCSLL) / P2 (RICPWSCRAP) / FMC63 scFv / Mimotope / Putative disulfide bond

E DTT(mM) 0 / 0.01 / 0.1 / 1 / 10 / Aga2p (HA tag) / FMC63^{IgG} binding

F OD(450nm) / FMC63^{IgG} (nM) / P1 / P1 (DTT-treated) / P1 (Oxidized) / +DTT / P1 (Reduced)

G DSPE-PEG$_{2000}$ / DBCO / Azido-Lysine / Mimotope / DSPE-PEG$_{2000}$ / Amph-mimotope / Amph-mimotope / Target cell / Co-culture / CD19 CAR-T / IFNγ

H CD19-CAR T IFNγ secretion (pg/mL) / unlabelled / amph-P1 K562 / NALM6 / **** / ****

I EGFRvIII-CAR T IFNγ secretion (pg/ml) / unlabelled / amph-P1 K562 / amph-pepvIII K562 / ns / ** / **

Fig 3

Fig 4

Fig 5

Fig 6

Fig 7

A Monocyte → Differentiation Maturation → DC → Amph-mimotope labeling → DC-mVax → i.v. injection

ImmatureDC
Mature DCs

CD80/86   41BBL   ICOSL   OX40L

Co-stimulatory ligand expression

B Amph-pepvIII
Amph-F12-A1

FMC63^IgG binding

C IFNγ secretion (pg/ml)
**
amph-pepvIII
amph-F12-A1

D Day 0 1 7

0.5x10⁶ CAR-T

DC-mVax (2x10⁶)

E
CAR-T + DC
CAR-T + DC-mVax (d1)
CAR-T + DC-mVax (d7)
CAR-T + DC-mVax (d1,d7)

Vax
** ** ** ** **

Vax
** ** **

Vax
** ** ** ** **

Days post vaccination

F Day 0 4 5 9 13 17 21

0.5x10⁶ NALM6-Luc cells

2x10⁵ CAR-T

DC-mVax (2x10⁶)

H Untransduced T   CAR-T + DC   CAR-T + DC-mVax

Day 3
Day 10
Day 14

Radiance (p/s/cm²/sr)
Color Scale
Min = 2x10⁵
Max= 1x10⁷

G # of CAR T cells per µl
**
CAR-T + DC
CAR-T + DC-mVax

I Untransduced T
CAR-T + DC
CAR-T + DC-mVax
***
***
***
Tumor signal Total flux (photons s⁻¹)
Days post tumor inoculation

J Untransduced T
CAR-T + DC
CAR-T + DC-mVax
***
***
***
Probability of Survival
Days post tumor inoculation