ENTPD3-specific CAR Regulatory T cells for Local Immune Control in T1D

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Abstract (146 words):

Despite advances in Type 1 Diabetes (T1D) management such a hybrid closed loop systems, patients still face significant morbidity, reduced life expectancy, and impaired glucose regulation compared to healthy individuals or those with pancreas transplants.

Here we developed beta cell-specific Chimeric Antigen Receptors (CAR) targeting the antigen ectonucleoside triphosphate diphosphohydrolase 3 (ENTPD3) using a novel cell-based phage display methodology. ENTPD3 is highly expressed on beta cells of both early and progressed T1D patients. ENTPD3 CAR regulatory T cells (Tregs) homed, expanded and persisted in pancreatic islets in a T1D mouse model (NOD) and completely prevented disease progression. Human ENTPD3 CAR Tregs displayed a stable regulatory phenotype, strong activation, and suppression. Importantly, ENTPD3 CAR T cells recognised and were fully activated by human islets.

This approach holds great promise as a durable treatment option for patients with prediabetes, new-onset diabetes, or those undergoing beta cell replacement therapy.

Introduction (375 words):

Patients diagnosed with Type 1 Diabetes (T1D) continue to face substantial challenges, experiencing significant morbidity primarily attributable to the complications arising from fluctuating blood glucose levels and overall see a reduction in life expectancy by a decade[1-3].

Although technological advancements, such as Continuous Glucose Monitoring (CGM) sensors and hybrid closed-loop pumps, have improved glycaemic control, particularly during nocturnal periods, they fall short of replicating the robust metabolic control achieved by endogenous beta cells[4,5].

While pancreas, islet or stem cell derived beta cell transplantation offers a potential biological replacement for beta cells, the associated challenges and risks, including immune rejection and the need for systemic immunosuppression, underscore the demand for innovative therapeutic approaches[6].

Disease modifying therapies and immune modulation strategies, particularly in the context of new-onset T1D, have recently demonstrated success in clinical trials, albeit leading to only transient preservation of minimally stimulated c-peptide responses[7,8].

Clinical trials administering polyclonal regulatory T cells (Tregs) in patients with T1D have shown a good safety profile but limited efficacy[9,10]. Pre-clinical data has shown superiority of antigen-specific Tregs over polyclonal Tregs in the NOD model of T1D and Tregs with beta cell-specific T cell receptors (TCR) have shown promise in establishing prolonged local tolerance in pre-clinical models[11-13] but challenges arising from Major Histocompatibility Complex II (MHC II) polymorphism and the heterogeneity of immune responses in T1D patients have hindered the development of a viable clinical product for over two decades.

Recent advancements in the use of Chimeric Antigen Receptor (CAR) Treg cells have demonstrated success in achieving local immune control in murine and humanized mouse models. MHC I A*02 specific CAR-Tregs, activated independently of MHC II restriction, exhibit localized accumulation and prevented allograft rejection in mouse models and humanized mice[14-16]. Ongoing clinical trials exploring the use of A2-CAR-Tregs in kidney and liver transplantation provide a foundation for extending this approach to the context of T1D.

Herein, we identified ectonucleoside triphosphate diphosphohydrolase 3 (ENTPD3) as beta cell specific target and have generated CARs directed against ENTPD3 using a novel phage display approach. We provide evidence for the antigen-specific functionality and safety of ENTDP3 CAR-Tregs *in vivo*, *in vitro* and *ex vivo*. Thus, ENTPD3-specific CAR Tregs offer a potential avenue for achieving durable, targeted and pancreas-specific immune control in patients with T1D.

Results (1653 words):

ENTPD3 as a Potential Target for Islet-Specific CAR-Treg Therapies

Previous attempts to develop CAR therapies targeting insulin, the most specific protein
associated with beta cells, were ineffective in preventing or treating T1D[17]. *In silico* research
suggested that ENTPD3, a surface protein, is highly expressed in both mouse and human
beta cells[18-20].

It is critical for potential therapeutic targets to be expressed at all stages of T1D
pathophysiology. We demonstrated by histological analysis of pancreatic samples from
patients at various stages of T1D, obtained through the nPOD (Network for Pancreatic Organ
Donors with Diabetes) consortium, that ENTPD3 is consistently co-expressed with insulin
across multiple stages of disease, from the autoantibody-positive stage to stage 3 (Fig. 1AB).
Notably, some expression was detected in non-beta cells, during established, long duration
T1D (Fig. 1A).

The protein expression of ENTPD3 was corroborated by a re-analysis of single-cell RNA
sequencing data from patients at different stages of T1D (Fig. 1C-E)[21], showing strong
expression in beta cells across both autoantibody-positive and overt T1D stages, and
notably, in delta cells as well. We confirmed specific expression of ENTPD3 in human
pancreatic islets by immunohistochemistry analysis of a wide panel of human tissues (Fig.
1F). Finally, we confirmed that in prediabetic and diabetic NOD mice, ENTPD3 was expressed
in islets, with minimal expression detected in surrounding ductal cells (Fig. 1G). These
findings indicate that the NOD mouse model is suitable for proof-of-concept testing of
ENTPD3-targeted CAR-Tregs.

Generation of ENTPD3-Specific Single-Chain Variable Fragment (scFv) Binders via Protein-
Cell Based Phage Display

Traditionally, CAR therapies have relied on a limited number of established monoclonal
antibodies[22]. In contrast, our approach sought to generate diverse scFv binders and assess
their functional properties. By employing human phage display libraries, we expedited the
translation of binders into human CARs for clinical trials without requiring murine-to-human
adaptation. Previous work from this lab has demonstrated that successful panning against
human peptide sequences can result in the selection of binders that cannot recognise intact
proteins on cell surfaces [23]. Consequently, we developed an assay that enriched scFv-phage
binders against correctly folded surface proteins on target cells (Suppl. Fig. 1A) using cell
sorting following rigorous pre-absorption and washing (Suppl. Fig. 2). This method produced
a diverse array of ENTPD3-specific binders (Fig. 2A). We also compared our novel strategy
with a classical protein-based panning approach. While a completely cell-based panning
approach on murine ENTPD3 yielded 8 % target-specific scFvs, a similar approach on human
ENTPD3 yielded only a single target-specific scFv. We refined our protocol by combining one
round of protein-based panning with two consecutive rounds of cell-based panning yielding
nearly 50% human ENTPD3-specific scFvs comprising a highly diverse repertoire of individual
scFvs.

We confirmed binding specificity using intact cells expressing ENTPD3 on the cell surface
(Fig. 2BC). Furthermore, murine ENTPD3-specific binders were shown to stain islets of
C57Bl/6 mice, confirming that selected binders could recognise ENTPD3 in the pancreas (Fig.
2D).

Interestingly, we were unable to identify binders that were cross-reactive for human and
murine ENTPD3 (Fig. 2BC), a finding likely attributed to the low sequence homology between
the human and murine extracellular domains (Suppl. Fig. 1B). Therefore, we continued with
different scFvs for either murine-specific ENTPD3 to perform proof-of-concept experiments
in NOD mice or human-specific ENTPD3 for further characterisation of human CAR Tregs,
respectively.

To rule out cross-reactivity with other membrane proteins, we screened the selected binders
against 5,500 human membrane proteins using a membrane proteome array, confirming
exclusive binding to ENTPD3 without cross-recognition of ENTPD1 or ENTPD2 (Fig. 2EF).
ENTPD3 is an ectonucleotidase involved in extracellular nucleotide and ATP hydrolysis and
thereby in purinergic signalling, and contributes to the regulation of insulin secretion[19,24].
Consequently, it was essential to demonstrate that our scFv binders did not interfere with
ENTPD3 enzymatic activity. We saw no evidence that scFv binding impaired ENTPD3
function, even when added at high concentrations (Fig. 2GH).

Murine ENTPD3-Specific CARs are Activated upon Target Engagement and Prevent
Cyclophosphamide-Induced Diabetes *In Vivo*

Murine   and   human   ENTPD3-specific   CARs   were   constructed   using   either   CD8
hinge/transmembrane domains or IgG hinge/CD4 transmembrane domains, the latter
featuring a mutated Fc receptor binding region to prevent nonspecific activation (Fig. 3AB).
These second-generation CARs included a CD3zeta activation domain and a CD28
costimulatory domain, which are optimal for Treg activation, as demonstrated by Levings
and colleagues[25]. The CARs were tested in T cell hybridomas where NFAT activation induced
eGFP expression via a minimal IL2 promoter (Suppl. Fig. 3A). CAR candidate m001 exhibited
strong target-specific activation without background signalling in both hinge formats (Fig.
3CD). Due to the ability of stimulation by cross-linking antibodies targeting Fab domain
candidate m001 in the long hinge format was selected for further analysis. This CAR was not
stimulated by the homolog ENTPD1 (Suppl. Fig. 3B). m001 also recognised MIN6 beta cells
(Suppl. Fig. 3CD) which were shown previously to express ENTPD3[19]. In murine CD4+ T cells,
ENTPD3-specific CARs stimulated target-dependent proliferation and activation (Fig. 3E,
Suppl. Fig. 4AB).

In a spontaneous diabetes NOD model where disease was synchronised by a single low-dose
cyclophosphamide injection, ENTPD3-specific CAR-T cells (m001) showed strong early
homing to pancreatic islets (day 3), unlike PE-specific control CAR-T cells (Fig. 3FG). In
contrast, ENTPD3-specific CAR-T cells (m001) were absent from pancreatic lymph nodes.
After 21 days, 15% of CD4+ cells in the pancreatic islets were ENTPD3 CAR-Tregs, reflecting a
combination of homing, expansion, and persistence (Suppl. Fig. 4C).

In the cyclophosphamide-induced T1D model (Fig. 3H), m001 CAR-Tregs prevented diabetes
onset, with no cases of T1D in the treatment group, compared to 50% incidence in control
animals (Fig. 3I). In this experiment, we confirmed that ENTPD3 CAR-Tregs persisted long-
term and were exclusively located in pancreatic islets (Fig. 3J). We observed no detectable
homing to off-target tissues such as the testes or colon, as confirmed by digital PCR (Fig. 3K).
Finally, murine ENTPD3 CAR-Tregs displayed a stable regulatory phenotype (Suppl. Fig. 5).

Generation of Human CARs Recognising ENTPD3

We deployed scFvs recognizing human ENTPD3 (Fig. 2B) to construct human CARs featuring
either CD8 hinge and CD28 transmembrane region or CH2CH3 hinge and CD28
transmembrane region and performed functional characterization in Jurkat cells expressing
luciferase under an NFAT-dependent minimal IL-2 promoter. Five CARs were identified that
exhibited strong activation with no tonic signalling in the absence of antigen (Fig. 4A).
Notably, CARs that strongly activated after recognising target cells over expressing ENTPD3
were also capable of recognising ENTPD3 on RT-4 cells, which endogenously express
ENTPD3.

The five CARs identified in the screening stage were transduced into human nTregs. In
activation assays using these cells, we observed robust upregulation of activation markers
CD69, CD137, and the Treg-specific marker GARP following activation by ENTPD3 (Fig. 4B-D),
with activation comparable to TCR stimulation. Coculture experiments of ENTPD3 expressing
B cells, allospecific T effector cells (Teff) and ENTPD3 CAR Tregs demonstrated that ENTPD3
CAR Tregs could be activated by B cells expressing ENTPD3 to cross-suppress CD4+ Teffs
activated by an TCR driven response to allogeneic B cells. This ability to control T cells with
different specificities is a crucial function of CAR-Tregs given the need to suppress T cells
reactive against various beta cell antigens within the islets (Fig. 4E). Importantly, CAR
transduction did not affect the stability of the regulatory phenotype, as evidenced by
sustained expression of CD25, FOXP3, CTLA-4, Helios and ICOS as shown for CAR candidates
h003 and h007 (Fig. 4F).

Second-generation CARs utilise partial activation motifs of the TCR complex, yet provide
CD28 costimulatory signals. We therefore compared human ENTDP3-specific CAR Tregs in
terms of CAR or TCR-based stimulation, focusing on the promising CAR candidate h003 more
closely. CAR stimulated h003 CAR Tregs produced comparable levels of IL-10, IL-8, and IL-17a
to those seen after TCR activation, with significantly increased TGF-β production (Fig. 5B).
CAR Treg phenotype was stable after both CAR and TCR stimulation indicative of high FOXP3
and CTLA4 expression, and activation marker GARP was upregulated (Fig. 5C). Epigenetic
demethylation of the TSDR region remained stable and indiscernible from untouched nTregs,
further confirming phenotypic stability (Fig. 5D)[26]. We further investigated the molecular
signalling pathways in CAR Tregs using RNA sequencing after CAR- and TCR-based activation.
Interestingly, critical Treg-associated genes, such as CD25, GARP, ICOS, and CTLA4, displayed
similar activation patterns, whereas LAG3, PD1 and TIGIT were more highly expressed after
CAR activation (Fig. 5E). While most genes were similarly regulated following TCR and CAR
stimulation, comparative cluster analysis identified genes uniquely upregulated following
CAR stimulation in cluster 2 (Fig. 5F), characterised by genes involved in IL-2 signalling and
NF-kB activation (Fig. 5G) and genes related to negative regulation of immune cells (Suppl.
Fig. 6). Additionally, further subtle differences in gene expression emerged as indicated by
pairwise comparison (Fig. 5H).

***Ex vivo* Validation of Human ENTPD3 CAR Engagement and Activation**

Based on these functional characteristics, three CAR candidates were selected for
subsequent testing against human islets. Given the semi-quantitative nature of *in vitro* Treg
function assays, we further characterised ENTPD3 CARs in Teffs, as quantitative differences
in vitro activation may correlate with variations in *in vivo* activity[27]. Notably, human CD4+
and CD8+ T cells transduced with the ENTPD3 CAR exhibited strong antigen-specific
activation and proliferation (Suppl. Fig. 7)

As no relevant humanised T1D animal model exists, we were unable to test human ENTPD3 CAR Tregs *in vivo*. Instead, we assessed the capacity of ENTPD3 CAR T cells to detect and interact with reaggregated human islets[28] (Fig. 6A), comparing them to preproinsulin-specific CD8+ T cells[29] and HLA-A*02-specific CAR T cells. ENTPD3 CAR T cells displayed time-dependent accumulation and invasion into the islets (Fig. 6B), leading to robust activation indicated by TNF-α and IFN-γ production and near-total destruction of beta cells and their function (Fig. 6CD). Remarkably, ENTPD3 CAR T cells exhibited stronger activation than both preproinsulin-specific CD8+ T cells and A2-specific CAR T cells. These experiments demonstrate that the amount of ENTPD3 on human beta cells and the signal transduction of ENTPD3 CARs are sufficient to activate T cells to full effector functionality.

Discussion (1611 words):

Polyclonal Treg therapies have demonstrated safety and phenotypic stability in clinical trials in T1D and after organ transplantation[9,10,30]. However, despite the excellent safety profile, these therapies lack efficacy. In the context of T1D a potential explanation is the scarcity of beta cell-specific Tregs within the natural repertoire, estimated at approximately one in a million Treg cells[31]. This rarity severely limits their ability to control autoimmunity specifically targeting pancreatic islets in T1D.

In contrast, studies dating back two decades have shown that Tregs specific to beta cell antigens, recognised through their TCRs, are considerably more potent than polyclonal Tregs. These antigen-specific Tregs can induce long-lasting local immune regulation, effectively curing new-onset T1D in mouse models[11-13]. Despite these promising preclinical results, translating this approach into the clinic has been impeded by the MHC II restriction of TCRs, which limits their broader applicability.

The development of CARs, capable of MHC-independent antigen recognition, has revolutionised the field of immunotherapy, particularly in oncology[22,27]. The success of CAR T cells in recognising tumour antigens has laid the groundwork for adapting similar technologies to regulatory T cells, with the goal of achieving local immune regulation in autoimmune diseases and transplantation. Notably, CARs targeting mismatched HLA-A*02 molecules have demonstrated local immune control in transplantation models without the need for systemic immunosuppression[14-16]. These promising findings have led to clinical trials evaluating the efficacy of CAR Tregs in kidney and liver transplantation (LIBERATE NCT05234190).

Our research identified ENTPD3 as a highly promising target for beta cell-specific CAR Tregs. ENTPD3 is expressed at relatively high levels in pancreatic beta cells and is present across all stages of T1D, from healthy individuals to patients with autoantibodies (aabs) and recent-onset T1D. Notably, ENTPD3 is also expressed in surrounding delta cells, even in long-standing T1D, suggesting a broad yet specific expression pattern that could be leveraged for targeted immune regulation.

It has been shown by us and others that scFv generated by phage display can be efficiently used in CAR studies[15,17,23,32,33]. However, these approaches deployed peptides and recombinant proteins which neglects the fact that most CARs target proteins are expressed on the cell membrane. Several attempts have been undertaken before to perform phage display directly on cells, but exclusively for the generation of antibodies[34-37]. Therefore, we established a novel phage display approach relying on scFv panning on cell lines expressing the target ENTPD3 for superior CAR generation. This approach allowed us to screen for binders specifically recognising properly folded ENTPD3 protein with high specificity. High sensitivity in CARs targeting ENTPD3 may be critical for detecting cells with low ENTPD3 expression, particularly in the context of new-onset T1D, where the number of beta cells is already severely reduced[27]. Furthermore, the use of human phage display libraries eliminated the need for humanisation of the CAR constructs, streamlining the translational pathway.

A significant challenge in CAR T cell therapy, particularly in oncology, has been the occurrence of off-target effects, where CARs inadvertently recognise and attack non-target tissues, leading to toxicities[38,39]. On-target/off-tumor effects are a also a common issue observed in CAR T therapies [18,20]. Similar risks for ENTPD3 CAR Tregs to encounter their

antigen outside the islet microenvironment are considered very low, as ENTPD3 protein
expression is highly restricted to pancreatic islets. Even if they did, they would require local
IL-2 signals, which are typically only available at sites of immune activation. Moreover, any
off-islet activation of Tregs would be of significantly lower consequence compared to CAR
Teffs as CAR Tregs are not inflammatory drivers. The low risk of side effects from Treg therapy
is supported by data from clinical trials with large doses of polyspecific Tregs[9,10,30].
Nevertheless, we conducted comprehensive analyses using tissue microarrays and
membrane proteome profiling, which confirmed the restriction of membranous ENTPD3
expression to the pancreas. Moreover, we demonstrated that ENTPD3 CARs do not inhibit
the enzymatic activity of ENTPD3, thus reducing the risk of unintended consequences from
CAR binding to ENTPD3[18,20] in the pancreas.

Although low levels of ENTPD3 mRNA signals were detected in tissues such as the testes and
colon, tissue microarray data showed no correlation with protein expression. This finding
was corroborated by *in vivo* biodistribution studies, where ENTPD3 CAR Tregs predominantly
localised to pancreatic islets and the spleen. No significant signals were detected in the
testes, colon, or other tissues, even with highly sensitive digital PCR. Importantly, 15% of the
CD4+ cells within the islets were ENTPD3 CAR Tregs, indicating a strong preferential homing
and localisation to the target tissue.

Mechanistically, ENTPD3 CAR Tregs differ from TCR Tregs in their mode of action. While TCR
Tregs primarily interact with MHC II and antigen-presenting cells (APCs), CAR Tregs act
directly within the target tissue, such as the pancreatic islets. This distinction explains why
ENTPD3 CAR Tregs were exclusively found in the islets, whereas beta cell-specific TCR Tregs
also accumulate in the lymph nodes[13]. We show that suppression of immune responses by
ENTPD3 CAR Tregs occurs through cross-suppression of CD4+ Teffs with various antigen
specificities. This is particularly important in T1D, where the autoimmune response targets
multiple beta cell antigens.

The concept of cross-suppression is supported by a strong preventative effect of ENTPD3
CAR Tregs in the NOD mouse model, where autoimmune responses are caused by several
autoantigens. Similar results have been reported in transplantation models, where A2-CAR
Tregs, after being activated by the HLA-A*02 molecule, locally controlled all other T cell
responses against fully MHC-mismatched grafts[15]. Moreover, recent work by Levings et al.
demonstrated that local activation of CAR Tregs can lead to the conversion of beta cell
antigen-specific naïve T cells into Tregs[40], a phenomenon previously described as "infectious
tolerance" by Waldman et al[41]. This may explain the persistence of immune tolerance even
in the absence of tissue-specific Tregs in certain transplantation settings[42].

At the molecular level, transcriptome analysis revealed that ENTPD3 CAR Tregs exhibit
activation patterns similar to those of TCR-activated Tregs, particularly with respect to key
regulatory genes such as IL-10, TGF-β, CTLA-4, and CD25. Notably, activation via the CAR led
to increased expression of inhibitory receptors like LAG3, PD1, and TIGIT, as well as gene
clusters involved in IL-2 and NF-κB signalling. Despite this, ENTPD3 CAR Tregs did not exhibit
signs of exhaustion, which has only been reported in CARs with excessive tonic signalling[43].

There have been concerns that CAR Tregs might induce cytotoxicity[44,45]. However, our
experiments with ENTPD3-positive target cells, including HEK and B cells, did not show any
evidence of cell killing. This aligns with recent findings by Meyer et al., who reported that
ENTPD3 CAR Tregs do not induce cytotoxicity[45]. Furthermore, in the NOD model, metabolic

function remained stable despite a high local density of ENTPD3 CAR Tregs in the islets,
further supporting the non-cytotoxic nature of these cells.

Maintaining the stability of the human Treg phenotype is critical for ensuring that ENTPD3
CAR Tregs do not differentiate into proinflammatory effector cells. To mitigate this risk, we
used highly pure, sorted naïve Treg populations (CD127-, CD45RA+) to avoid contamination
with less stable Treg subsets, such as induced Tregs (iTregs)[46,47].

Our ENTPD3 CAR Tregs demonstrated stable demethylation of CpG residues in the Treg-
specific demethylated region (TSDR) and retained strong suppressive function[26].

To further increase safety of the human ENTPD3 CAR Tregs, we might improve the vector
design by including FOXP3 transgene in conjunction with the CAR. It has been reported that
overexpression of FOXP3 can drive enhanced Treg stability and suppressor function, even
under low IL-2 or inflammatory conditions[48,49]. Similar improvements were also observed
with increased IL-2 signalling through cis-acting membrane-bound IL-2[50].

We did not investigate alternative intracellular signalling domains for the CAR, as Levings et
al. have shown that the combination of CD3ζ and CD28 provides a sweet spot for optimal
Treg activation[25]. While constructs incorporating 4-1BB/ζ domains are used in cancer CAR
therapies to delay exhaustion and promote CAR T cell persistence, these configurations have
not been beneficial for Tregs[25,44].

Other beta cell-specific CAR targets, such as insulin[17] and tetraspanin 7[23], have been
explored, but none have demonstrated significant efficacy. A CAR recognising a
preproinsulin peptide in the context of I-A^{g7} successfully prevented diabetes development[51].
This approach rather mimics a TCR, but would not interfere with endogenous TCRs.
However, a human version of this CAR would be MHC-restricted and would require sufficient
doses of MHC/peptide complexes for activation. Thus, ENTPD3 CAR Tregs offer a more
versatile and non-MHC-restricted approach for achieving local immune control in T1D.

Our results are a significant step towards the clinical translation of ENTPD3 CAR Tregs for
T1D therapy. Large doses of polyclonal human Tregs have been demonstrated as safe in T1D
patients, with transferred cells maintaining a stable phenotype for over a year without
transitioning into effector cells[9]. The human ENTPD3 CAR has undergone extensive
characterisation, showing high functionality and specificity in recognising human islets.

This form of local immune control could be employed during stages 2 and 3 of T1D to
support endogenous beta cell regeneration. In long standing T1D, where beta cell
destruction is more extensive, ENTPD3 CAR Treg therapy could be combined with islet
transplantation, potentially reducing the need for systemic immunosuppression currently
required in trials involving stem cell-derived beta cells. Ideally, this therapy could be
administered as a single, long-lasting "living drug"[13], offering sustained immune regulation.

Innovative gene and cell therapies, like CAR Tregs are on the rise and might revolutionize the
way we combat graft rejection and autoimmune diseases in the near future. Clinical trials
will be necessary to determine the optimal cell dose and whether reapplication will be
required to sustain long-term tolerance. Here we introduced ENTPD3 CAR Tregs as a
promising approach to achieve tissue-specific tolerance without compromising systemic
immune competence paving the way for a novel treatment option in T1D.

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Conflict of interest

TP, TR, MHW, MH and EJ are inventors on a patent application on antibodies against ENTPD3 and the corresponding CAR-Tregs. EJ is shareholder of Quell Therapeutics. JMcG, TL, MML, KB, LH, DP, AG, TG, EN, ND, VK, PC are officers of Quell Therapeutics and LD, LJ, BZ, MS, JP, IM are officers of Astra Zeneca.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: *ENTPD3 as potential target for islets-specific CAR-Treg therapies* **(A)** Human pancreatic sections (nPOD) of individuals with different disease progression (Single Autoantibody positive: AAb+ (S); Multiple Autoantibody positive: AAb+ (M); Early and late T1D) were stained with anti-ENTPD3 antibody (red). Insulin (green) and glucagon (blue) were co-stained. Non-diabetic sample served as control. **(B)** Quantification of islets staining for ENTPD3. Left: Number of beta cells (Insulin+). Right: Percentage of beta cells expressing ENTPD3. n per condition = 3-6. **(C-E)** ENTPD3 expression of human pancreatic cells of nPOD samples. **(C)** UMAP visualization of cellular clusters of human pancreatic islets. (D) UMAP visualizations of ENTPD3 expression in islets cells of healthy (Control), autoantibody-positive (AAB) and T1D individuals (T1D). **(E)** Quantification of D. Dot size resembling percent of cells expressing ENTPD3 within cell cluster. Colours indicating average expression strength. **(F)** Tissue micro array (TMA) of different human organs stained for ENTPD3 (brown) show that membranous ENTPD3 expression is highly specific to pancreatic islets. Hematoxylin counterstain in blue. **(G)** Pancreatic sections of healthy and diabetic NOD mice were stained for ENTPD3 (brown) and counterstained with hematoxylin (blue).

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Figure 3: *Murine ENTPD3-specific CAR are functionally stimulated upon target contact and prevent cyclophosphamide-induced diabetes in vivo* **(A)** Design of murine CD8-derived hinge CARs (short) and Fc-IgG-derived hinge CARs (long), containing a FOXP3 expression cassette separated by P2A cleavage side, and reporter gene Thy1.1 (CD90.1) under control of an IRES. **(B)** Illustration of both CAR constructs as expressed on the cell surface. **(C)** Representative plots of stimulation of m001 in short and long hinge CAR format, respectively, in NFAT-GFP reporter cell line. CAR stimulation shown as NFAT-controlled GFP expression and CAR

expression shown as anti-Fab antibody AF647 staining. **(D)** Screening of further murine
ENTPD-specific candidates for CAR stimulation in the aforementioned system. **(E)**
Proliferation of CAR T cells measured as dilution of CFSE signal. CFSE labelled murine CD4+
CAR T cells (mL-m001 or Control (PE-specific) CAR) were stimulated on mENTPD3 or control
antigen PE, or by aCD3/CD28 bead stimulus. Counts normalized to mode. Red: Stimulated
CAR T cells (of CD69+ Thy1.1+). Blue: Unstimulated cells (of CD69- Thy1.1-). Left:
Representative histograms. Right: Quantification of % Proliferation of stimulated CAR T cells
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multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(F)** Schematic overview of setup for CAR T cell
homing experiment in NOD mice. **(G)** Comparison of biodistribution of m001 and Control
(PE-specific) CAR Teffs. CD4+ populations were analysed for percentage of Thy1.1+ cells. Data
are presented as mean ± SD. n=3 per group. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and
multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(H)** Schematic overview of experimental setup for
prevention of cyclophosphamide-induced diabetes in NOD mice. **(I)** Diabetes-free individuals
over the course of the experiment. n=12 per group. Data from 8 independent experiments. p
value determined by log-rank test for m001 CAR cTreg compared to Control (PE-specific) CAR
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Biodistribution of m001 CAR Tregs in ENTPD3-expressing tissues by digital PCR. Organs of
two mice per group were saved at experimental endpoints and total gDNA was analysed by
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suppressive function **(A)** NFAT luciferase Jurkat cell line was transduced with CARs comprising
different human ENTPD3-specific scFv (h003, h007, h008, h002 and h006). After 5 days cells
were activated with human ENTPD3 extracellular domain peptide, cell lines expressing
ENTPD3 (RT-4 and ENTPD3.HEK293T) at indicated ratios or left unstimulated. Activation of
cells was determined by luminescence measurement. Heatmap shows relative activation
levels in response to stimulus. Black represents the lowest levels of activation with red/pink
showing highest levels of activation. Representative of 3 separate experiments. **(B-D)** Human
ENTPD3 CAR Tregs were co-cultured with ENTPD3 extracellular domain, ENTPD3 expressing
HEK293T cells, RT-4, EndoBH5 cells or controls (aCD3/aCD28 beads, WT HEK293T and no
stimulation). After 24h activation markers CD69 **(B)**, CD137 **(C)** and GARP **(D)** were assessed
by flow cytometry. Mean ± SD of n=6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and
multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(E)** CAR Tregs were co-cultured with WT B cell
line, ENTPD3 expressing B cell line or aCD3/28 beads and decreasing numbers of CTV-
labelled CD4+ Teffs for 5 days. Cells were assayed by flow cytometry and proliferation of Teffs
was determined by CTV dilution. Graphs show percentage suppression by ENTPD3 CARs and
mock transduced cells. Percentage suppression was calculated by normalizing proliferation of
Teffs stimulated in the presence of Tregs to Teffs alone. Data are presented as mean ± SD of
n=4-5 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA of B cells ENTPD3 and B cells WT
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Figure 5. *ENTPD3 CAR Tregs (candidate h003) maintain Treg-specific phenotype and gene expression upon stimulation* **(A)** Schematic overview and design of human CAR Treg stimulation assay containing TSDR, transcriptomics and phenotype markers and cytokine secretion readouts for testing of CAR h003. **(B)** Treg cytokine profile upon CAR and TCR-dependent stimulation. ENTPD3 CAR Treg cells were incubated with ENTPD3, PE (control antigen) or aCD3/CD28 beads. Cytokine concentration was determined by cytokine bead array. Data are presented as mean ± SD of n=6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(C)** Expression of Treg phenotype and activation markers FOXP3, GARP and CTLA4 upon stimulation measured by flow cytometry. ENTPD3-specific h003 CAR Tregs stimulated by aCD3/CD28 beads (black), ENTPD3 (orange) or unrelated control antigen (blue). Data presented as mean ± SD of 4-6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(D)** Analysis of demethylation status of Treg-specific demethylated regions (TSDR). Percentage of demethylation of different TSDRs is shown for ENTPD3 CAR Tregs (h003), Control (PE-specific) CAR Tregs, nTregs and Teffs. Mean of data from 3 donors. **(E)** Gene expression of Treg phenotype and activation genes upon stimulation of h003 CAR Tregs measured by RNA Sequencing. Black: TCR-dependent stimulation by aCD3/CD28 beads. Orange: CAR-specific stimulation by ENTPD3. Blue: Unrelated control antigen. Data mean ± SD of 3 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(F)** Cluster analysis of transcriptome data. Z-score (color coded) shown for TCR-dependent stimulation by aCD3/CD28 beads, CAR-specific stimulation by ENTPD3 and unstimulated (unrelated control antigen). Data of 3 donors per condition. **(G)** Analysis of Human Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) Hallmark gene sets of major clusters 1, 2 and 3. Size of dots represent ratio of represented genes within each cluster. P value is color coded. **(H)** Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes in pairwise comparison of CAR- (ENTPD3) and TCR- (aCD3/CD28 beads) specific stimulation. p values for all experiments * P < 0.033, ** P < 0.002, *** P < 0.001.

Figure 6: *ENTPD3 CARs interact with human islets micro tissue (hIsMT) spheroids* **(A)** Schematic assay setup. **(B)** Human CD8+ T cells expressing either ENTPD3 CARs (h003, h007 or h008) or HLA-A2 CAR, and GFP reporter cassette were co-cultured with hIsMT spheroids for live imaging. Images show the hIsMT alone, with non-transduced CD8 T cells (Mock), preproinsulin (PPI) specific cytotoxic lymphocytes (CTLs) or CD8 T cells expressing HLA-A2 CAR or ENTPD3 CARs h003, h007 or h008 for timepoints 0, 24, 48 and 72 h. T cells are shown in red, CAR expression is shown in green and hIsMT are stained cyan. **(C)** After 48 h samples of co-cultures were lysed and stimulated insulin secretion (left) and total content (right) was determined by ELISA. Individual dots are technical replicates. Bars represent mean ± SD of n=4-6 **(D)** After 72 h supernatants were collected and assayed for IFN-γ (left) and TNF-α (right). Individual dots are technical replicates. Bars represent mean ± SD of n=6. p values determined by One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test comparing all conditions to mock CD8 T cells. Outliers were be detected with ROUT's outlier test (Q=5%). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

ENTPD3-specific CAR Regulatory T cells for Local Immune Control in T1D

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Figure 4: *Human ENTPD3-specific CAR Tregs are functional and maintain Treg phenotype and suppressive function* **(A)** NFAT luciferase Jurkat cell line was transduced with CARs comprising different human ENTPD3-specific scFv (h003, h007, h008, h002 and h006). After 5 days cells were activated with human ENTPD3 extracellular domain peptide, cell lines expressing ENTPD3 (RT-4 and ENTPD3.HEK293T) at indicated ratios or left unstimulated. Activation of cells was determined by luminescence measurement. Heatmap shows relative activation levels in response to stimulus. Black represents the lowest levels of activation with red/pink showing highest levels of activation. Representative of 3 separate experiments. **(B-D)** Human ENTPD3 CAR Tregs were co-cultured with ENTPD3 extracellular domain, ENTPD3 expressing HEK293T cells, RT-4, EndoBH5 cells or controls (aCD3/aCD28 beads, WT HEK293T and no stimulation). After 24h activation markers CD69 (B), CD137 (C) and GARP (D) were assessed by flow cytometry. Mean ± SD of n=6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(E)** Rested CAR Tregs were co-cultured with WT B cell line, ENTPD3 expressing B cell line or aCD3/28 beads and decreasing numbers of CTV-labelled CD4+ Teffs for 5 days. Cells were assayed by flow cytometry and proliferation was determined by CTV dilution. Graphs show percentage suppression of ENTPD3 CARs and mock transduced cells. Percentage suppression was calculated by normalizing proliferation of Teffs stimulated in the presence of Tregs to Teffs alone. Data are presented as mean ± SD of n=4-5 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA of B cells ENTPD3 and B cells WT conditions, respectively. **(F)** At day 14 of expansion h003 and h007 CAR Tregs were collected and stained by flow cytometry for indicated markers. Percentage of each marker shown from the total CD4 population for Mock Tregs or gated on CAR+ cells for the CAR Tregs. Mean ± SD of n=8 donors. P values for all experiments * P < 0.033, ** P < 0.002, *** P < 0.001.

Figure 5. *ENTPD3 CAR Tregs (candidate h003) maintain Treg-specific phenotype and gene expression upon stimulation* **(A)** Schematic overview and design of human CAR Treg stimulation assay containing TSDR, transcriptomics and phenotype markers and cytokine secretion readouts for testing of CAR h003. **(B)** Treg cytokine profile upon CAR and TCR-dependent stimulation. ENTPD3 CAR Treg cells were incubated with ENTPD3, PE (control antigen) or aCD3/CD28 beads. Cytokine concentration was determined by cytokine bead array. Data are presented as mean ± SD of n=6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(C)** Expression of Treg phenotype and activation markers FOXP3, GARP and CTLA4 upon stimulation measured by flow cytometry. ENTPD3-specific h003 CAR Tregs stimulated by aCD3/CD28 beads (black), ENTPD3 (orange) or unrelated control antigen (blue). Data presented as mean ± SD of 4-6 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(D)** Analysis of demethylation status of Treg-specific demethylated regions (TSDR). Percentage of demethylation of different TSDRs is shown for ENTPD3 CAR Tregs (h003), Control (PE-specific) CAR Tregs, nTregs and Teffs. Mean of data from 3 donors. **(E)** Gene expression of Treg phenotype and activation genes upon stimulation of h003 CAR Tregs measured by RNA Sequencing. Black: TCR-dependent stimulation by aCD3/CD28 beads. Orange: CAR-specific stimulation by ENTPD3. Blue: Unrelated control antigen. Data mean ± SD of 3 donors. p values determined by two-way ANOVA and multiple comparison testing (Tukey's test). **(F)** Cluster analysis of transcriptome data. Z-score (color coded) shown for TCR-dependent stimulation by aCD3/CD28 beads, CAR-specific stimulation by ENTPD3 and unstimulated (unrelated control antigen). Data of 3 donors per condition. **(G)** Analysis of Human Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) Hallmark gene sets of major clusters 1, 2 and 3. Size of dots represent ratio of represented genes within each cluster. P value is color coded. **(H)** Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes in pairwise comparison of CAR- (ENTPD3) and TCR- (aCD3/CD28 beads) specific stimulation. P values for all experiments * P < 0.033, ** P < 0.002, *** P < 0.001.

Figure 6: *ENTPD3-specific CARs interact with human islets micro tissue (hIsMT) spheroids* **(A)** Schematic assay setup. **(B)** Human CD8+ T cells expressing either ENTPD3 CARs (h003, h007 or h008) or HLA-A2 CAR, and GFP reporter cassette were co-cultured with hIsMT spheroids for live imaging. Images show the hIsMT alone, with non-transduced CD8 T cells (Mock), preproinsulin (PPI) specific cytotoxic lymphocytes (CTLs) or CD8 T cells expressing HLA-A2 CAR or ENTPD3 CARs h003, h007 or h008 for timepoints 0, 24, 48 and 72 h. T cells are shown in red, CAR expression is shown in green and hIsMT are stained cyan. **(C)** After 48 h samples of co-cultures were lysed and stimulated insulin secretion (left) and total content (right) was determined by ELISA. Individual dots are technical replicates. Bars represent mean ± SD of n=4-6 **(D)** After 72 h supernatants were collected and assayed for IFN-γ (left) and TNF-α (right). Individual dots are technical replicates. Bars represent mean ± SD of n=6. p values determined by One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test comparing all conditions to mock CD8 T cells. Outliers were be detected with ROUT's outlier test (Q=5%). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.