Low-Strength Type I Interferon Signaling Promotes CAR T-Cell Treatment Efficacy

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ABSTRACT

CD19-directed chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T-cell therapy has significantly advanced the

treatment landscape for relapsed/refractory diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (r/r DLBCL). However,

up to 60% of patients do not achieve a complete response. To uncover determinants of therapeutic

efficacy, we analyzed the infusion products of eight r/r DLBCL patients with distinct clinical

responses to axicabtagene ciloleucel using single-cell transcriptomics. Compared to patients who

exhibited progressive disease, infusion products of complete responders demonstrated enriched

signatures of type I interferon (IFN-I) signaling. Based on these findings, we developed a novel

strategy to improve CD19-directed CAR T-cell treatment efficacy by incorporating IFN-I as an

enhancer during the ex vivo manufacturing process. For both CD28- and 4-1BB-costimulated

second-generation CARs, we found that low-strength IFN-I signaling enhanced CAR T-cell

cytotoxicity and in vivo efficacy. On the other hand, high-strength IFN-I signaling compromised

cell viability and in vivo efficacy. Our low-strength IFN-I signaling approach leverages an existing

FDA-approved pharmacologic agent and is compatible with current CAR constructs and

manufacturing workflows. Together, our results establish IFN-I as a potent and costimulation-

independent enhancer of CAR T-cell efficacy and provide a translationally feasible approach to

enhance CAR T-cell therapies for r/r DLBCL.

INTRODUCTION

Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T-cell therapy has advanced the standard-of-care for hematologic malignancies, achieving complete response rates ranging 39-71% across relapsed/refractory diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (r/r DLBCL)[1], acute lymphoblastic leukemia[2], and multiple myeloma[3,4]. However, the therapy's effectiveness is constrained by significant rates of treatment failure. In r/r DLBCL, only ~40% of patients exhibit a complete response, whereas the remaining ~60% of patients exhibit a partial response, stable disease, or progressive disease, as defined by the International Working Group response criteria.[1] Patients who cannot clear their lymphoma burden have limited therapeutic options and often succumb to their disease.

Existing studies have correlated treatment failure with diminished CAR T-cell polyfunctionality[5], increased T-cell exhaustion signatures within CAR T-cell products[6–8], inhibition by CAR Tregs[9], as well as failure of CAR T cells to persist and expand in vivo[1,10], among others[11]. Given the importance of CAR T-cell-intrinsic factors in determining treatment outcomes, we investigated the infusion products (IP) of CAR T-cell therapy patients with r/r DLBCL using single-cell transcriptomics. We observed that, compared to patients with progressive disease, the IPs of complete responders demonstrated enriched signatures of type I interferon (IFN-I) signaling. This observation was also validated using an independent, published dataset from Maus et al.[12]

As potent immunomodulators, IFN-I cytokines have long been of interest for their potential to modulate immunotherapy response rates.[13,14] Upon binding to type I interferon receptors (IFNAR), IFN-I cytokines trigger a phosphorylation cascade that activates transcription factors such as signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT1), STAT2, and interferon regulatory factor 9 (IRF9).[13] These transcription factors coordinate transcription of interferon-stimulated genes, such as *IRF7*, *MX1*, *ISG15*, *ISG20*, *IFITM1/2/3* which mediate antiviral immunity and effector functions.[13,15] In CD8^{+} T cells, IFN-I signaling enhances cytotoxicity[16] and induces central memory differentiation[17], while also controlling T-cell exhaustion[18], inhibitory

receptor expression[19], and apoptosis[20,21]. Due to their immunomodulatory effects, clinical

formulations of IFN-I cytokines (e.g., Avonex, Intron A, Alferon N) have been approved by the

FDA for the treatment of malignancies (e.g., hairy cell leukemia, follicular lymphoma)[22],

autoimmune diseases (e.g., multiple sclerosis)[23], and viral infections (e.g., hepatitis B and C)[24].

Despite being an attractive FDA-approved cytokine for regulating immune functions in cancer,

autoimmunity, and infection, IFN-I has not been utilized to modulate CAR T-cell therapy responses.

Given our bioinformatic discoveries and the literature-established roles of T-cell-intrinsic

IFN-I signaling in modulating T-cell differentiation and functionality[13], we hypothesize that IFN-I

signaling enhances CAR T-cell efficacy during the ex vivo manufacturing process. In this study,

we detail our discovery and development of IFN-I cytokines as an enhancer to partially address

CAR T-cell therapy failure rates. Through in vitro functional assays and in vivo lymphoma

xenograft mouse models, we demonstrate proof-of-principle for a novel ex vivo manufacturing

method that leverages low-strength, FDA-approved IFN-I cytokines to improve the in vivo

treatment efficacy of CAR T-cell therapy.

RESULTS

Enrichment of IFN-I signaling in infusion products of complete responders.

To uncover determinants of therapeutic efficacy, infusion products from 8 r/r DLBCL patients

treated with CD28-costimulated CD19-directed CAR T cell therapy (axicabtagene ciloleucel, "axi-

cel") at the University of Chicago Medicine were profiled using single-cell sequencing. The cohort

included 5 patients who achieved a complete response (CR) at one month post-infusion and

another 3 patients who exhibited progressive disease (N-CR) (**Figure 1a**). After removing low-

quality cells, we obtained 27,879 cells distributed among 7 T-cell clusters (**Figure 1b**) based on

gene expression (**Figure 1c**, figure S1a). No cluster was patient specific (**Figure 1d**, figure S1b).

The two CD8$^+$ clusters were annotated as central memory (CM, *SELL$^+$IL7R$^+$TBX21$^-$KLRG1$^-$*) or

effector memory (EM, *SELL$^-$IL7R$^+$TBX21$^+$KLRG1$^+$*) T cells. The two CD4$^+$ clusters were

annotated as memory (Mem, *FOXP3^{lo}IL7R$^+$CTLA4^{lo}*) or regulatory (Treg, *FOXP3^{hi}IL7R$^-$CTLA4^{hi}*)

T cells. The remaining three clusters consisted of naïve-activated (*SELL$^+$IL7R$^+$TCF7$^+$CD38$^+$*),

unconventional (*TRDC$^+$NCAM1$^+$*) as a mixture of γδ and natural killer phenotypes, and

proliferating (*MKI67$^+$TOP2A$^+$*) T cells. No discernable composition differences were found

between CR and N-CR patients (**Figure 1b**, **d**, figure S1c).

Gene set enrichment analysis revealed distinct differences between CR and N-CR T cells.

CR T cells were enriched for signatures of type I interferon signaling ("IFNα response"), cytolysis,

and leukocyte degranulation, whereas N-CR T cells were enriched for signatures of cell growth,

hypoxia, and glycolysis (**Figure 1e**). Notably, the CR-specific IFNα response signature was

enriched in CR T cells across T-cell clusters (**Figure 1f**) and individual patients (**Figure 1g**).

To validate our discovery of CR-specific IFN-I signaling signatures, we tested our findings

using an independent and published single-cell transcriptomic dataset from Maus et al. (*n* = 15

patients with lymphoma who received axi-cel, **Figure 1a**).[12] This cohort included 10 patients who

achieved a complete response (CR) and 5 who did not (N-CR), as assessed one-month post-

infusion. After filtering out low-quality cells, performing dimensionality reduction, and clustering,

we uncovered the same 7 T-cell clusters identified in our own dataset (**Figure 1h**) based on gene

expression (**Figure 1i**, figure S2a). No cluster was patient specific (**Figure 1j**). Notably, expression

of ISGs (including *ISG20*, *IFITM1/3*) was upregulated in IP of CR (figure S2b). Most importantly,

IFNα response signatures was enriched in IPs of CR. The CR-specific IFNα response signature

was consistently observed across all T-cell clusters except Tregs (**Figure 1k**, figure S2c) and

individual patients (**Figure 1l**).

Taken together, findings from the discovery and validation datasets strongly support an

association between IFN-I signaling and improved CAR T-cell clinical efficacy.

IFN-I signaling increases CAR T-cell cytotoxicity.

Previous studies have demonstrated the immunomodulatory role of T cell-intrinsic IFN-I

signaling.[13] For instance, IFN-I signaling promotes cytotoxicity[16], T_h1 polarization[25–27], and central

memory phenotype differentiation[17], all of which may be desired CAR T-cell characteristics and

potentially explain the differential clinical responses observed in the two patient cohorts. Based

on these findings and our bioinformatics analyses, we hypothesized that IFN-I signaling can

enhance CAR T-cell efficacy. To test this hypothesis, we generated both CD28- and 4-1BB-

costimulated CD19-directed CAR T cells from primary human T cells. Our CD28-costimulated

CAR is based on axicabtagene ciloleucel (axi-cel, **Figure 2b**), whereas our 4-1BB-costimulated

is based on lisocabtagene maraleucel (liso-cel, **Figure 2c**). To induce IFN-I signaling, we treated

CAR T cells with exogenous IFN-α2, a highly potent, FDA-approved, and clinically compatible

IFN-I subtype, for culturing CAR T cells (**Figure 2a**). Prior to addition of IFN-α2, we confirmed that

CAR T cells globally expressed the type I interferon receptor in a transduction-independent and

costimulation-independent manner (Figure S3a, c).

Since each downstream target of IFN-I signaling exhibits varying sensitivity to IFN-I

concentrations[28], we hypothesized that the IFN-I culturing concentration may affect CAR T-cell

functions. To determine the IFN-I concentrations for our study, we initially titrated IFN-α2 on both

CD28- and 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells and measured intracellular interferon regulatory

factor 7 (IRF7), a key ISG[29] (figure S3b, d). IFN-I signaling reached saturation at concentrations

above 3000 IU/mL of IFN-α2, consistent with previous studies.[16,27] We also observed half-maximal

IRF7 upregulation at approximately 100-300 IU/mL of IFN-α2. Consequently, we established

three culturing conditions: IFN-α2 at saturating concentration ("IFNα-hi", 3000 IU/mL), IFN-α2

near half-maximal effective concentration ("IFNα-lo", 300 IU/mL), and no IFN-α2 ("IFNα-neg", 0

IU/mL). We confirmed that these conditions resulted in concentration-dependent upregulation of

ISGs, including *MX1*, *IRF7*, and *ISG15* (figure S4).

CAR T cells were treated based on the three culturing conditions for downstream

experimentation (**Figure 2a**). Since IFN-I signaling can inhibit viral transduction[30], we chose to

add IFN-α2 after CAR transduction, which enabled us to achieve consistent transduction

efficiency and expression of both CD28-costimulated (**Figure 2d**, **f**) and 4-1BB-costimulated

CARs (**Figure 2e**, **h**) across the three culturing conditions. Between culturing conditions, IFN-I

signaling did not affect CD4/CD8 ratios (**Figure 2g**, **i**), memory phenotypes (figure S5a-d), or IFN-

I receptor expression (figure S5e-h). To test cytotoxicity, CAR T cells were co-cultured with OCI-

Ly8 target cells, a CD19$^+$ human DLBCL cell line. In both CD28- and 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T

cells, we observed IFN-I signaling significantly increased CAR T-cell cytotoxicity (**Figure 2j**, **l**),

expression of cytolytic molecules (granzyme B, perforin, **Figure 2k**, **m**), and secretion of cytokines

(IL-2, TNF, IFNγ, **Figure 2n-o**), in a concentration-dependent manner. These findings suggest

that IFN-I signaling increases CAR T-cell cytotoxicity.

High-strength IFN-I signaling increases apoptosis, whereas low-strength IFN-I signaling does not.

After the manufacturing process, both CD28- and 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells cultured under

the IFNα-hi condition, but not the IFNα-lo condition, consistently yielded fewer viable cells

compared to the IFNα-negative condition (**Figure 3a, c**). Given previous reports that IFN-I

signaling can inhibit cell proliferation[31], we evaluated whether CAR T-cell proliferation was

affected by IFN-I signaling through assessing the proliferation marker, Ki-67. No significant

differences in Ki-67 expression were observed across the three culturing conditions, indicating

that IFN-I signaling does not impair CAR T-cell proliferation during ex vivo expansion (**Figure 3b,**

d, figure S6). Since IFN-I signaling also reportedly promotes T-cell apoptosis[20,21], we next

quantified CAR T-cell apoptosis via Annexin V staining. Flow phenotyping revealed that CAR T

cells in the IFNα-hi condition trended towards increased apoptosis, whereas those in the IFNα-lo

condition did not (**Figure 3e-f**).

To further investigate the cellularity and apoptosis of CAR T cells from the three culturing

conditions following antigen-specific stimulation, we subsequently quantified cellularity and

apoptosis of CAR T cells after stimulation with OCI-Ly8 target cells. Following stimulation, CAR

T-cell cellularity in the IFNα-lo and IFNα-neg conditions was statistically indistinguishable (**Figure**

3g-h). On the other hand, CAR T-cell cellularity in the IFNα-hi condition was significantly depleted

compared to the other two conditions. At the timepoint when CAR T-cell cellularity in the IFNα-hi

condition significantly diverged (day 6 post-stimulation in the representative data), we observed

a corresponding enrichment in apoptosis (**Figure 3i-j**).

Taken together, these findings suggest that high-strength, but not low-strength IFN-I

signaling increases CAR T-cell apoptosis, thereby negatively affecting persistence during both ex

vivo expansion and antigen-specific activation.

Low-strength IFN-I signaling promotes CAR T-cell treatment efficacy in vivo.

Given that the IFNα-lo condition uniquely increases CAR T-cell functionality (**Figure 2**) without

compromising cell viability (**Figure 3**) in both CD28- and 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells, our

data demonstrate that low-strength IFN-I signaling promotes CAR T-cell efficacy in vitro by

balancing function with persistence. Based on these in vitro conclusions, we hypothesized that

the IFNα-lo condition uniquely optimizes CAR T-cell treatment efficacy in vivo.

To test our hypothesis, we analyzed the efficacy of CAR T cells prepared from the three

culturing conditions in a xenograft mouse model based on the OCI-Ly8 cell line (**Figure 4a**). To

control for donor-donor heterogeneity, CAR T cells were derived from multiple independent

donors (three for CD28-costimulated CAR T cells and two for 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells).

Across donors, CAR T-cell injection prolonged survival relative to the PBS-only control. For CD28-

costimulated CAR T cells with donors 1 and 2, CAR T cells from the IFNα-lo condition significantly

prolonged survival and slowed down tumor progression relative to CAR T cells from the IFNα-neg

and IFNα-hi conditions (**Figure 4b**, figure S7a). For donor 3, although the differences between

CAR T cells from IFNα-lo and IFNα-hi conditions were relatively modest compared to other

donors, one mouse treated with CAR-T cells from the IFNα-lo condition showed a significantly

better and sustained response (Figure S7b-c). For 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells with donors

4 and 5, CAR T cells from the IFNα-lo condition consistently yielded superior outcomes compared

to CAR T cells from the IFNα-neg and IFNα-hi conditions, leading to improved survival and tumor

control (**Figure 4c**, figure S7d). Taken together, our findings support our hypothesis and indicate

that CAR T cells generated from the IFNα-lo condition, regardless of costimulatory domain, exhibit

enhanced in vivo efficacy compared to those from IFNα-neg or IFNα-hi conditions across multiple

donors.

In conclusion, our in vitro and in vivo studies support a model in which low-strength IFN-I

signaling selectively promotes CAR T-cell treatment efficacy (**Figure 4d**). IFN-I signaling

promotes CAR T-cell functionality in a concentration-dependent manner, leading to more effective

cytotoxicity, cytokine release, and tumor control. However, at a high enough concentration, IFN-I

signaling also increases T-cell apoptosis, leading to reduced yield, poorer persistence, and

ineffective tumor control. Although the optimal level of IFN-I signaling may be subject to donor-

donor heterogeneity, CAR T cells treated with low-strength IFN-I signaling, regardless of

costimulatory domain, consistently exhibit enhanced effector functions without significantly

increased apoptosis.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we leveraged single-cell transcriptomic analyses of patient IPs from two independent datasets, in vitro functional and phenotypic analyses, and in vivo xenograft mouse studies, to establish that low-strength IFN-I signaling during the ex vivo CAR T-cell manufacturing process selectively promotes CAR T-cell treatment efficacy in vivo in a costimulation-independent manner. Our strategy of harnessing IFN-I signaling to enhance CAR T-cell efficacy is grounded in clinical data and existing literature, while also highlighting IFN-I as an enhancer with significant translational potential for use during the CAR T-cell manufacturing process.

There are major attractive qualities that make IFN-I a uniquely promising and translatable enhancer for both CAR T-cell therapy and other emerging cellular therapy modalities. Unlike all other natural and engineered cytokines being developed as CAR T-cell enhancers (including IL-7, IL-10, IL-15, IL-21, Fc-IL-4)[32–36], IFN-Is are uniquely biocompatible drugs with an existing and extensive clinical track record for the treatment of malignancies[22], autoimmune diseases[23], and viral infections[24]. First discovered in the 1950s for their antiviral activities, IFN-I is one of only two cytokines ever approved by the FDA for cancer treatment (the other being IL-2).[37] Biologically, IFN-I elicit a known signaling pathway through the type I interferon receptor to induce antiviral interferon stimulated genes.[13,15] Their pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics have been thoroughly explored in pre-clinical and clinical studies.[38] By uniquely employing a biologically, pharmacologically, and clinically characterized pharmacophore, our low-strength IFN-I manufacturing method is straightforward and less likely to introduce uncharacterized toxicities. We also point out that our method was mechanistically inspired by bioinformatics findings from clinical biospecimens, thereby recapitulating a physiological and clinically relevant phenotype.

In terms of basic biology, we found that IFN-I signaling enhances CAR T-cell cytotoxicity in a dose-dependent manner; however, excessively strong IFN-I signaling also increases apoptosis, thereby reducing persistence. Our findings are compatible with existing literature on T-

cell-intrinsic effects of IFN-I signaling. Enhancement of cytotoxicity and type I cytokine secretion

among CD8^{+} and CD4^{+} T cells after culturing with exogenous IFN-I is well-established.[16,39]

Moreover, the field's current understanding is that T-cell-intrinsic IFN-I signaling leads to different

consequences, depending on whether TCR stimulation temporally precedes ("in-sequence") or

follows ("out-of-sequence") IFN-I signaling.[13,40] In-sequence signaling generally enhances T-cell

functions, while out-of-sequence signaling generally does the opposite.[13] In our studies, since T-

cell activation (via CD3/CD28 Dynabeads) preceded IFN-I treatment, our CAR T cells were

subject to in-sequence signaling under the current paradigm. Moreover, our findings mirror the

expected consequences of in-sequence IFN-I signaling. Lastly, the concentration-dependent

nature of our model is compatible with other studies demonstrating that different cellular functions

exhibit varying sensitivities to IFN-I signaling.[28]

Our findings may also reconcile the currently obscure relationship between IFN-I signaling

and CAR T-cell function. On one hand, Jung et al. and Evgin et al. reported that IFN-I signaling

hinders CAR T-cell efficacy.[21,41] Both groups subjected their CAR T cells to IFN-β, which has up

to 30-fold higher affinity for the type I interferon receptor compared to IFN-α2.[42] Taking into

account their high-affinity IFN-I subtype and culturing concentrations, their conditions are similar

to our IFNα-hi condition, which accounts for their negative findings. On the other hand, Zhao et

al. reported that IFN-I signaling enhances CAR T-cell efficacy.[43] We reason their positive findings

are due to their CAR T cells receiving a weak IFN-I stimulus, since they did not add exogenous

IFN-I in their in vitro system. In conclusion, our model demonstrates a non-linear relationship

between IFN-I signaling and CAR T-cell efficacy, thereby potentially reconciling these intriguing

prior studies.

Our study advances the understanding of IFN-I signaling in T cells and lays the foundation

for translational applications in CAR-T cell therapies, though several avenues remain for

exploration. While our experiments generated CAR-T cells from healthy donors for mechanistic

studies, future research should focus on using T cells from cancer patients. Since cancers often

suppress IFN-I signaling to evade immune detection and weaken IFN-I-driven immune

responses[44–46], modulating IFN-I signaling in cancer patient-derived CAR-T cells may yield

significantly improved therapeutic effects. Furthermore, we tested only two IFN-I concentrations,

emphasizing the need for more rigorous dosing studies to determine the optimal therapeutic

window. Finally, although our study focused on IFN-α2 due to its clinical relevance, it underscores

the broader potential of the IFN-I family, with many subtypes still underexplored and potentially

capable of further enhancing CAR-T cell functionality through cytokine modulation.

METHODS

Collection of patient biospecimens

Deidentified patient biospecimens were gathered in accordance with ethical guidelines under the

institutional review board at the University of Chicago Medicine. Residual infusion product cells

were collected from the patient's infusion product bag and stored in CELLBANKER 1 (Amsbio,

11888). Cells were cryopreserved in liquid-phase nitrogen.

Single-cell RNA-seq data generation.

Cryopreserved biospecimens were thawed and washed with cold FACS buffer (PBS, 2% BSA,

0.05% sodium azide). Antibody-stained cells were conjugated with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Near-IR

viability dye (Invitrogen, L34975) at 1:1000 dilution in PBS for 5 minutes at room temperature.

Finally, cells were washed 3x in cold cell media (RPMI, 10% FBS) before sorting (BD Biosciences,

FACSAria Fusion) for live cells. Sorted cells were partitioned into droplets for single-cell RNA-seq

via Chromium Next GEM Single-Cell 5'Kit v2 (10x Genomics, 1000263). RNA-seq libraries were

prepared according to manufacturer protocols. Libraries were quantified via the Qubit dsDNA HS

Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Q32851), quality-checked for fragment sizes via high-sensitivity D5000

screentapes (Agilent, 5067-5592), pooled, and sequenced (Illumina, Novaseq-6000 and Nextseq-

550).

Single-cell RNA-seq data analysis.

Alignment, filtering, counting, and demultiplexing of RNA-seq reads were performed using the

Cell Ranger *count* (10x Genomics, version 7.1.0). For alignment, the GRCh38 reference genome

was appended with the CAR transgene sequence of axicabtagene ciloleucel.

Downstream analysis was performed using Seurat[47] (version 4.3.0). After converting count

matrices and merging all Seurat objects, we filtered cells with >15% mitochondrial reads and

40,000 UMIs to remove debris, doublets, and dead cells. The matrix was normalized using

NormalizeData with default options. The top 5,000 variable genes found by *FindVariableFeatures*

with the default "vst" method were taken as variable genes. Data were centered and scaled using

ScaleData, with additional regression against (1) the percent of mitochondrial RNA content and

(2) difference in cell cycle S-phase and G2M-phase scores. Scaled data were then used for

principal component analysis (PCA) using *RunPCA*. Data harmonization to remove patient-

specific effects was performed on the principal components using Harmony[48] (version 0.1.1)

through *RunHarmony*. Top 50 harmony components were used for Uniform Manifold and

Projection (UMAP) dimensionality reduction via *RunUMAP*. The same harmony components were

used to construct the shared nearest neighbor (SNN) graph using *FindNeighbors*, which was then

partitioned to identify clusters using *FindClusters* with the "original Louvain" algorithm.

Differentially expressed genes were determined using *FindMarkers* in Seurat package

with default parameters. Gene set enrichment analysis and pathway enrichment analysis were

carried out using clusterProfiler[49] (version 4.6.2) based on pathways from the msigdbr database's

built-in msigdbr[50] package (version 7.5.1). Gene module scores were calculated for each cell

using *AddModuleScore* in Seurat for msigdbr or customized gene sets.

Lentiviral production and transduction.

CD28- or 4-1BB-costimulated anti-CD19 human CARs were designed based on the sequences

of axi-cel or liso-cel. The axi-cel sequence was obtained from a previously published sequencing

study,[51] while the liso-cel sequence was retrieved from the Global Substance Registration System

database (UNII: 7K2YOJ14X0). A GFP-tagged, CD28-costimulated or 4-1BB-costimulated, anti-

CD19 human CAR was cloned onto the pHR vector backbone to constitute the transfer plasmid.

Plasmids were transfected into the Lenti-X 293T packaging cell line (Takara, 632180) for lentiviral

production. In brief, Lenti-X 293T cells were seeded and grown overnight to ~90% confluence.

Subsequently, transfer, packaging (psPAX2), and envelope (pMD2.G) plasmids were co-

transfected into Lenti-X 293T cells via Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen, L3000001). After 72 hours,

the viral supernatant was collected and stored at -80°C until transduction. During transduction,

lentiviruses were added to human primary T cells along with protamine sulfate (Millipore Sigma,

P3369-10G) to a final concentration of 10 µg/mL. Cells were spinoculated at 800 x g for 60

minutes at room temperature.

CAR T-cell production and culturing.

PBMC samples were collected from healthy donors under an Institutional Review Board approved

protocol. Cryopreserved human PBMCs were thawed in warm T-cell media (RPMI supplemented

with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 50 µM 2-mercaptoethanol).

Subsequently, PBMCs were cultured for 3 hours in complete T-cell media (T-cell media

supplemented with 50 units/mL of IL-2) in order to allow monocytes to adhere to the culture flask.

The non-adhered cells were transferred to a new culture flask. Cells were counted via the LUNA-

FL cell counter. T-cell percentage (% CD3$^+$) was calculated by flow cytometry.

T cells were seeded in complete T-cell media at 0.75 x 10^6/mL. CD3/CD28 Dynabeads

(Gibco, 11161D) were washed and added at 1:1 ratio. After overnight activation, T cells were

transduced with CAR lentiviruses (MOI of 5). The media was refreshed after 24 hours with

complete T-cell media dosed with recombinant human IFN-α2 (BioLegend, 592702). T cells were

subsequently expanded, and media was refreshed every 2 days.

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR.

CAR T cells were treated under IFN-I culturing conditions for 24 hours. Then, cells were collected,

and stained for viability (Invitrogen, L34975). Live CAR T cells were sorted (BD Biosciences,

FACSAria Fusion). Total RNA was extracted using the Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit (NEB,

T2010S), according to manufacturer protocols. RNA was quantified via the Qubit RNA HS Assay

Kit (Invitrogen, Q32852). cDNA was synthesized using the GoScript Reverse Transcription

System (Promega, A5000).

347   Quantitative PCR was performed using Taqman Gene Expression Assay (ThermoFisher

348   Scientifc, 4331182) and Applied Biosystems TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (ThermoFisher

349   Scientifc, 4304437), on LightCycler® 96 Instrument (Roche). The cycling conditions were as

350   follows: UNG incubation at 50°C for 2 minutes, initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed

351   by 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15 seconds and annealing/extension at 60°C for 60

352   seconds. Each sample was run in triplicate.

353   The specific Taqman Gene Expression Assay used were as follows: *ACTB*

(Hs01060665_g1), *IRF7* (Hs01014809_g1), *MX1* (Hs00895608_m1), and *ISG15*

(Hs01921425_s1). Relative gene expression levels were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method,

with *ACTB* serving as the internal control. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way

ANOVA followed by a Tukey's post hoc test for significance.

In vitro co-culture immunoassays.

For all co-culture immunoassays, CAR T cells (E) and luciferized OCI-Ly8 cells (T) were seeded

under a fixed E/T ratio. To measure in vitro cytotoxicity, co-cultures were established with E/T

ratio of 1:1. After 6 hours, One-Glo Luciferase substrate (Promega, E6110) was added to each

well. Residual tumor cells were quantified via luciferase activity. As a positive control, target cells

were directly lysed with 1% NP-40 (Abcam, ab142227). To measure cytotoxic molecule

expression, co-cultures were established with E/T ratio of 1:1 with 1x brefeldin A (BioLegend,

420601). After 4 hours, cells were collected for intracellular staining and flow cytometry. To

measure cytokine secretion, co-cultures were established with E/T ratio of 1:1. After 24 hours, the

culture supernatant was collected and stored. Secreted cytokines were quantified using

LEGENDplex immunoassays per manufacturer's protocol (BioLegend). To measure in vitro

persistence, co-cultures were established with E/T ratio of 1:5. Every three days, cells were

counted using Precision Count Beads (BioLegend, 424902) and measured for apoptosis on flow

cytometry. Cell media was then refreshed.

Flow cytometry.

Cells were washed with cold FACS buffer (PBS, 2% BSA, 0.05% sodium azide). Fc receptors

were blocked by incubation with Human TruStain FcX (BioLegend, 422301) at 1:50 dilution for 5

minutes at 4°C. Then, cells were incubated for 30 minutes at 4°C in the dark with an antibody

staining solution for surface antigen staining . Antibodies were used according to manufacturer

recommendations. After staining, cells were incubated briefly either with live/dead staining

solution or apoptosis staining solution for 10 minutes at room temperature. Then, cells were either

washed and resuspended in FACS buffer or resuspended in Annexin V Binding Buffer (BioLegend,

422201). Cells were ready for analysis by flow cytometry or intracellular staining.

For intracellular staining, cells stained for surface antigens were subject to the BD

Fixation/Permeabilization Kit (BD Biosciences, 554714) for cytotoxic molecule staining or True-

Nuclear™ Transcription Factor Buffer Set (BioLegend, 424401) for IRF7 staining, following

manufacturer recommendations. In brief, Cells were fixed in fixation buffer, washed 3x in

permeabilization buffer, and incubated for 60 minutes at 4°C in the dark with a staining solution

containing antibodies and permeabilization buffer. After staining, cells were washed 2x in

permeabilization buffer, 1x in FACS buffer, and resuspended in FACS buffer for analysis by flow

cytometry.

For Ki-67 staining, cells stained for surface antigens were washed 2x in PBS, fixed in

prechilled 70% ethanol overnight, washed 2x in FACS buffer, and incubated for 30 minutes at 4°C

in the dark with Ki-67 antibody staining solution. After staining, cells were washed 2x in FACS

buffer, and resuspended in FACS buffer for analysis by flow cytometry.

Flow cytometry was performed on LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences) or Aurora (Cytek

Biosciences). Data were analyzed using FlowJo software (version 10.10.0).

Antibody panels.

All antibodies were used according to manufacturer recommendations. APC-anti-IFNAR2 (10359-

MM07T-A) was from Sino Biological. All other antibodies originate from BioLegend. For surface

staining, AF647-anti-CD3 (clone: UCHT1, 300416), BV421-anti-CD3 (clone: UCHT1, 300434),

BV510-anti-CD4 (clone SK3, 344633), PerCP/Cy5.5-anti-CD8α (clone SK1, 344709), PE-anti-

CD45RA (clone HI100, 304107), BV421-anti-CD45RO (clone UCHL1, 304223), and AF647-anti-

CCR7 (clone G043H7, 353217) were used. For intracellular staining, PE/Cy7-anti-granzyme B

(clone QA16A02, 372213), PE-anti-perforin (clone B-D48, 353303), and PE-anti-IRF7 (clone

12G9A36, 656003) were used. For live/dead staining, Zombie NIR Fixable Viability Kit (423106)

was used in PBS. For apoptosis staining, BV421-Annexin V (640923) or PE/Cy7-Annexin V

(640950) was diluted in Annexin V Binding Buffer (422201). For Ki-67 staining, PE-anti-Ki-67

(clone Ki-67, 350503) was used.

Lymphoma xenograft mouse model.

Immunocompromised NOD *scid* IL2Rgamma[null] (NSG, Strain #005557) mice were purchased

from JAX and maintained at the animal resource center (ARC) of the University of Chicago in

accordance with institutional guidelines. Mice were monitored daily. Care and experimental

procedures were carried out in line with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

approved protocols of the Animal Care Center at the University of Chicago.

5×10^6 OCI-Ly8-Chili-luc cells in 100 μL PBS were intravenously injected into 8-12-week-

old NSG mice to build a xenograft lymphoma model. 5×10^5 or 1×10^6 CAR T cells were

intravenously injected 1 week later. Lymphoma progression was monitored using either IVIS

Spectrum (PerkinElmer) or Lago X (Spectral Instruments Imaging) following the Intraperitoneal

injection of D-luciferin potassium (PerkinElmer, 122799). Animals were anesthetized at 2%

isoflurane throughout acquisition. Bioluminescence was quantified with Aura software (Spectral

Instruments Imaging). Mice were euthanized upon manifestation of paralysis, impaired mobility,

or poor body condition (BCS<2).

Statistical analysis.

Statistical tests were performed on R (version 4.2.1) or GraphPad Prism 10 (version 10.1.1).

Comparisons between two groups were performed using Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test. Comparisons

between more than two groups were performed by either one-way or two-way ANOVA followed

by Tukey correction for multiple comparisons. Survival data were analyzed using the Log-Rank

(Mantel-Cox) test. To assess correlation, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was calculated,

as indicated.

Data availability.

All data are available from the authors upon reasonable request.

Code availability.

Codes   supporting   the   analyses   performed   in   this   study   are   available   at

https://github.com/ertingtang/IFN-I-CART.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.H. and E.T. designed the study, designed experiments, analyzed and interpreted data and

wrote the manuscript. J.H. supervised the project and edited the manuscript. E.T., G.C., Y.Z.

performed single-cell analyses. Y.H., generated single-cell patient data. Y.H., E.T., and N.W.A.

performed in vitro experimentation. E.T., D.N., N.S.A, and Y.H. performed in vivo studies. P.A.R.

coordinated patient biospecimens for these studies. All authors contributed intellectually or

assisted with experiments in this manuscript.

DECLARATIONS OF INTERESTS

J.H., Y.H., and E.T. are listed as inventors on a patent related to interferon-enhanced CAR-T cells

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Corporation. Speaker's Bureau: Kite Pharma, Inc./Gilead; Consultancy on advisory boards:

AbbVie, Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, BMS, Janssen, BeiGene, Karyopharm

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 MAIN FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. Enrichment of IFN-I signaling in infusion products of complete responders.
(**a**) Cartoon depicting study design of single-cell analysis on infusion products of patients who
received axi-cel from discovery dataset and validation datasets. CR, complete responder, N-CR,
non-complete responder. (**b**) UMAP demonstrating 7 T-cell clusters in infusion product from
discovery dataset. (**c**) Violin plots depicting normalized expression levels of representative
markers for each cluster. (**d**) Stacked bar graphs depicting T-cell cluster proportions for each
patient in discovery dataset. (**e**) Gene set enrichment analysis comparing CR and N-CR T cells.
For each gene set, direction and statistical significance of enrichment are indicated by the circle's
color and size, respectively. (**f**) Violin plots depicting IFNα response signature scores in CR and
N-CR T cells from each T-cell cluster. Signature scores were compared by Wilcoxon Rank-Sum
test. (**g**) Tilemap depicting scaled IFNα response signature scores in each T-cell cluster across
patients. (**h**) UMAP demonstrating 7 T-cell clusters in infusion product from validation dataset
from Maus et al. (**i**) Violin plots depicting normalized expression levels of representative markers
for each cluster. (**j**) Stacked bar graphs depicting T-cell cluster proportions for each patient in
validation dataset. (**k**) Violin plots depicting signature scores in CR and N-CR T cells from each
T-cell cluster. Signature scores were compared by Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test. (**l**) Tilemap depicting
scaled signature scores of IFNα response gene sets in each T-cell cluster across patients. No
Treg was found in P17 infusion products, colored in gray.

Figure 2. IFN-I signaling increases CAR T-cell cytotoxicity.
(**a**) Workflow of CAR T-cell ex vivo generation, treatment, and culturing. (**b-c**) CD28- or 4-1BB-costimulated CAR designs based on the construct used in axicabtagene ciloleucel (**b**) or lisocabtagene maraleucel, respectively (**c**). (**d-e**) Representative flow plots depicting gating for CAR expression (top) and T-cell lineages (bottom) in CD28-costimulated (**d**) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**e**) CAR T cells. (**f**, **h**) Transduction percentage as measured by meGFP fluorescence among T cells from each culturing condition in CD28-costimulated (**f**, n=3) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**h**, n=3) CAR T cells. (**g**, **i**) Stacked bar plot comparing CD8 vs CD4 proportions in CD28-costimulated (**g**, n=3) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**i**, n=3) CAR T cells. (**j-m**) Cytotoxicity of CD28-costimulated (**j-k**) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**l-m**) CAR T cells. (**j**, **l**) direct cytotoxicity against firefly luciferase-expressing OCI-Ly8 target cells at E/T ratio of 1:1 via 6-hr bioluminescence assay (n=5). (**k**, **m**) intracellular staining for granzyme B (right) and perforin (left) after 4-hr of coculture with OCI-Ly8 at E/T ratio of 1:1 as measured by flow cytometry (n=3). (**n-o**) Concentration of cytokines secreted by CD28-costimulated (**n**) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**o**) CAR T cells into the supernatant after 24-hr of coculture with OCI-Ly8 at E/T ratio of 1:1 as measured by ELISA (n=5). From left to right, IL-2, TNF, and IFNγ. All data are reported as mean ± standard error. Statistical analysis were performed via one-way (**f**, **h**, **j-o**) or two-way (**g**, **i**) ANOVA with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons. All panels are representative data from 3 independent donors.

Figure 3. High-strength IFN-I signaling increases apoptosis, whereas low-strength IFN-I
signaling does not.
(**a**, **c**) Relative counts of live CAR T cells from the three culturing conditions after CAR T-cell
manufacturing in CD28-costimulated (**a**, n=5) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**c**, n=6) CAR T cells.
Counts were normalized to the IFNα-neg condition. (**b**, **d**) Proliferation of CAR T cells from the
three culturing conditions in CD28-costimulated (**b**, n=3) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**d**, n=3) CAR T
cells. Left, representative flowplots depicting gating for Ki-67$^+$ proliferating CAR T cells at the day
when IFNα was removed. Right, Ki-67$^+$ proliferating cell proportions among CAR T cells. Non-
activated naïve T cells from human PBMCs were used as a biological control for gating. (**e**, **f**)
Apoptosis of CAR T cells from the three culturing conditions after CAR T-cell manufacturing in
CD28-costimulated (**a**, n=5) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**c**, n=6) CAR T cells. Left, representative
flow plots depicting gating for viable, early apoptotic, and dead cells among CAR T cells. Right,
staining for Annexin V positivity among live CAR T cells. (**g**, **h**) Line graphs depicting viable CAR
T-cell cellularity of CD28-costimulated (**g**, n=3) and 4-1BB-costimulated (**h**, n=3) CAR T cells in
vitro following coculture with OCI-Ly8 at E/T ratio of 1:5. (**i**, **j**) Apoptosis of CD28-costimulated
CAR T cells (**i**, n=3) and 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells (**j**, n=3) from the three culturing
conditions at day 6 after coculture with OCI-Ly8 cells at E/T ratio of 1:5. Left, representative flow
plots depicting gating for viable, early apoptotic, and dead cells among the three culturing
conditions. Right, staining for Annexin V positivity among live CAR T cells. All data are reported
as mean ± standard error. Statistical analysis were performed via one-way (**a-f**, **i-j**) or two-way (**g**,
h) ANOVA with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons. Panels **a**, **c**, **e-j** are representative data
from 3 independent donors. Panels **b**, **d** are representative data from 2 independent donors.

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Figure 4. Low-strength IFN-I signaling promotes CAR T-cell treatment efficacy in vivo.
(**a**) Schematic depicting timeline for NSG mouse model based on OCI-Ly8 lymphoma cell line.
Seven days following OCI-Ly8 injection, mice were randomly divided into groups that were treated
with either PBS or CAR T cells from the three culturing conditions. (**b**) Kaplan-Meier analysis of
survival of OCI-Ly8-bearing mice treated with PBS or 5×10^5 CD28-costimulated CAR T cells from
various culture conditions. CAR T cells were generated from donor 1 (left, n=8,12,13,8), and donor
2 (right, n=5,5,4,4). (**c**) Kaplan-Meier analysis of survival of OCI-Ly8-bearing mice treated with
PBS or 5×10^5 (left) or 1×10^6 (right) 4-1BB-costimulated CAR T cells from various culture
conditions. CAR T cells were generated from donor 4 (left, n=6,6,6,6), and donor 5 (right,
n=4,5,5,5). (**d**) Cartoon summarizing effects of IFN-I signaling on CAR T cells at different doses.
Statistical analysis were performed by log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test.