Title: Intra-tumoral delivery of FLT3L with CXCR3/CCR5 ligands
promotes XCR1+ DC1 infiltration and activates anti-tumor immunity.

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Abstract

Tumor infiltration by dendritic cells (DCs) has been identified as a biomarker associated with favorable outcomes and improved responses to immunotherapies by T cell immune checkpoint blockade. However, tumor induced immunosuppressive pathways contrive efficient DC infiltration. This calls for the development of DC-targeted interventions purposed to stimulate DC infiltration and local expansion. Here we deliver a proof-of-concept for a cell-based immunotherapeutic approach promoting circulating DC progenitors infiltration in the tumor together with their local expansion. We report that engraftment of autologous mesenchymal stromal cells engineered to express the membrane bound form of FLT3L (eMSC-FLT3L) uniquely induce DC infiltration, T cells activation and anti-tumor immunity, when combined with an adjuvant like the poly(I:C) double stranded RNA mimic. Mechanistic experiments demonstrate that poly(I:C)-induced CXCR3 and CCR5 ligands (CXCL9, CCL5) are required for intra-tumoral DC and T cell recruitment and for the therapeutic effect of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy. Stromal cell-based delivery of CXCL9 and CCL5, together with FLT3L, by-passes the requirement for poly(I:C) agonist and is sufficient to induce T cell and DC recruitment within tumors. These findings are transferrable to human settings as we show that eMSCs-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 stimulate tissue infiltration by human $XCR1^+$ DC1s in mice harboring a 'Human Immune System' (HIS mice). Lastly, we report that engraftment of eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 in the tumor induces anti-tumor immunity and partially overcomes resistance to immune checkpoint blockade. Altogether, these data support the therapeutic potential of expanding intra-tumoral DC1s using a continuous and local source of FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5.

One sentence summary: Intra-tumoral delivery of FLT3L synergizes with CXCL9 and CCL5 to activate the expansion of intra-tumoral DCs.

	Main Text:

	INTRODUCTION

An important factor limiting the development of anti-tumor immunity lies in the extent

of tumor infiltration by immune cells, including dendritic cells (DCs). DCs are sentinel cells of

the immune system initiating the tumor-immunity cycle (1, 2).

Tumor-associated DCs (TADCs) up-take antigens by phagocytosis and migrate to tumor

draining lymph nodes (tdLNs) after up-regulating CCR7. If engaged in immunogenic

maturation by the activation of proper innate signalling pathways, DCs can prime anti-tumor

CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells in tdLNs (2, 3). Once activated, effector T lymphocytes can migrate

back to tumors *via* efferent lymph and then blood (2). All these activities define DCs as initiators

of the cancer-immunity cycle.

In addition to this virtuous cycle of T cell activation in tdLN, intra-tumoral DCs also

have local roles. Indeed, they participate to the recruitment of CXCR3$^+$ effector T cells via the

release of CXCL9 chemokines (4–6). Also, intra-tumoral DCs shape niches supporting the

survival of tumor-infiltrating T cells (TILs) by delivering specific trophic cues. For instance,

CXCL16$^+$ TADCs attract CXCR6$^+$TCF1$^-$ effector and promote their survival by trans-

presenting IL15 (7). DCs establish local interactions with CD28$^+$ T cells and preserve their

fitness (8). Finally, CCR7$^+$ LAMP3$^+$ DCs also populate Tertiary Lymphoid Structures (9), some

"stem immunity hubs" related-lymphoid aggregates where they colocalize with TCF1$^+$CD8$^+$

TILs (6, 10) and establish some tripartite interactions with CXCL13$^+$CD4$^+$ T cells and

TCF1$^+$CD8$^+$ TILs (11).

DCs are classified into two major subsets: XCR1$^+$ type 1 DCs (DC1s), which express

IRF8 and an heterogenous population of CD11b$^+$ DCs expressing IRF4 and encompassing

DC2s and DC3s. DC1s play a non-redundant role in the rejection of immunogenic tumors (12)

and are essential for the efficacy of immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) therapies, as

demonstrated in pre-clinical models (13, 14). Furthermore, DC1 infiltration in human tumors

correlates with favorable clinical outcomes and response to ICB (15, 16). Mechanistically, DC1

would fine tune the CD8$^+$ T cell response by maintaining the pool of TCF1$^+$ TILs along tumor

development thereby fueling a reservoir of T cells potentially promoting effector anti-tumor

responses (17). However, DC1s infiltration within tumors remains generally limited (18) (19,

20). COX enzymes in tumor cells limit the activation of NK-dependent DCs recruitment (16)

(21). Also, oncogenic pathways such as β-catenin limit the recruitment of DC1s by limiting

CCL4 production (*20*). Therefore, enhancing the recruitment and activation of intra-tumoral

DC1s remains an unmet therapeutic need to overcome cancer-induced immune suppression.

Mechanistically, recruitment of circulating DCs have been investigated in the context

of pre-clinical models of immunogenic tumors (*15*, *20*, *21*). Böttcher *et al.* have identified that

DC1s recruitment depends on NK-cell derived CCR5 ligands (CCL4, CCL5), as well as XCR1

ligands (XCL1, XCL2) (*21*). It is unclear if infection activated CCR2-dependent pathways (*22*)

also control DC1s recruitment.

The FLT3L-FLT3 signalling pathway is essential for the homeostasis of conventional

DCs, including DC1s, in both mice (*23*, *24*) and humans (*25*). Intra-tumoral FLT3L is an

important biomarker associated to the density of TADCs, particularly DC1s, in human

melanoma (*15*). FLT3L-FLT3 pathway supports DC development and maintenance in both

lymphoid organs and peripheral tissues (*23*). Tissue FLT3L supports the proliferation of DC

precursors (pre-DCs) in bone marrow and peripheral sites (*23*, *26*). Of note, radio-resistant cells

control homeostatic levels of FLT3L (*27*). Within secondary lymphoid organs, stromal cells

contribute to DC pool maintenance. For example, a CCL19$^+$GREMLIN$^+$ fibroblastic niche

support DCs survival at homeostasis (*28*) via FLT3L production (*29*). However, the cellular

sources of FLT3L within tumors are not very well known. Barry *et al.* have shown that NK

cells represent a substantial source of FLT3L (*15*) but other sources like T cells (*30*) or mast

cells (*27*) might participate to local FLT3L production.

Administration of recombinant soluble FLT3L is an effective approach to expand

circulating DCs (*31*) in humans but it faces questionable safety issues with general modification

of hematopoiesis and expansion of tolerogenic DCs (*32*). Furthermore, systemic recombinant

FLT3L might promote immune tolerance, as it leads to the expansion of regulatory T cells (*33*)

(*34*). Lastly, combination therapies of FLT3L with innate agonists such as anti-CD40 (*19*) or

poly(I:C) (*14*) raise some toxicity concerns associated to systemic inflammation.

Here, we have reasoned that targeted, local interventions in the tumor microenvironment

(TME) could optimize local generation of immunogenic DCs (*35*), while avoiding most

systemic effects underpinning immune regulation or toxicity. Here, we explore the therapeutic

potential of delivering engineered autologous stromal cells within the TME. Engrafted stromal

cells are expressing chemotactic factors supporting DC infiltration, differentiation, proliferation

and maintenance. We identify that stromal membrane bound form of FLT3L combined to

poly(I:C) or CXCL9 and CCL5 is sufficient to activate the local recruitment and accrual of

DC1s, T and NK/ILC1 cells within tumors. Furthermore, we show that these immunotherapies

stimulate anti-tumor immunity and partially overcome resistance to ICB. Altogether, these

findings open a new avenue to rewire the tumor microenvironment by local cell-based

therapeutic intervention.

RESULTS

Intra-tumoral delivery of engineered mesenchymal stromal cells expressing membrane bound FLT3L does not alter intra-tumoral and systemic DC1 populations

We have previously demonstrated that engineered stromal cells expressing human FLT3L act as "synthetic niches" able to support the differentiation of human tissue DCs in immunodeficient mice (*36*). In a first attempt to stimulate intra-tumoral DCs accumulation, we generated stable, autologous, fibroblastic cell lines from embryonic fibroblasts of C57BL/6 mice and termed as engineered mesenchymal stromal cells thereafter (eMSC). eMSC-FLT3L express homogeneously the membrane form of human FLT3L, as detected by flow cytometry (Fig. **1A**). We found that eMSC-FLT3L but not eMSC-Control (eMSC-Ctrl) stimulated the differentiation of DC1s and DC2s, when co-injected with CD45.1 bone-marrow hematopoietic stem cell progenitors (HSPCs) in basal membrane extract plugs in the dermis of tumor free mice, showing that FLT3L expressed in eMSC-FLT3L was functional (Fig. **1B-C, S.1A**). On the contrary, rec-huFLT3L did not stimulate DC differentiation within the plugs. We next decided to inject eMSC-FLT3L within subcutaneous B16 melanoma tumors expressing ovalbumin (B16-OVA), which have a primary resistance to immune checkpoint blockade (ICB). First, we found that gp38$^+$GFP$^+$ eMSC-FLT3L were still detectable on site 14 days after intra-tumoral injection, validating their persistence within the TME (Fig. **1D-E**). We next compared intra-tumoral engraftment of eMSC-FLT3L to B16F10 cells overexpressing human FLT3L (B16-huFLT3L) and assessed their impact on DCs differentiation. In contrast with B16-huFLT3L, B16F10 tumor bearing mice that had received intra-tumoral engraftment of eMSC-FLT3L at day 7 did not display an elevation of systemic FLT3L serum levels at day 12 (Fig. **1F-G**). However, we did not observe an increase of DC1s in the tumor (Fig. **1H**), lymph node (Fig. **1I**) nor spleen (Fig. **1J**).

We conclude that intra-tumoral injection of eMSC-FLT3L does not alter intra-tumoral and systemic DC1 populations.

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L synergizes with poly(I:C) to activate anti-tumor immunity

We next wondered if innate agonist administration would circumvent the inability of eMSC-FLT3L to expand intra-tumoral DCs. We chose to use poly(I:C) because it had previously been shown to stimulate anti-tumor immunity in combination with recombinant, soluble FLT3L (*14*). We designed our intra-tumoral cell-based therapy as two injections of eMSC-FLT3L and one injection of poly(I:C) within B16-OVA tumors (Fig. **1K**). We found that only eMSC-FLT3L in combination with poly(I:C) induced tumor regression as assessed by the tumor growth (Fig.

1L) and the tumor weight (Fig. **1M**). In addition, the combination therapy extended the survival of mice. Importantly, 10% of the mice treated with the combination therapy eliminated the tumor without relapses until day 90 (Fig. **1N**). In a clinical translational point of view, we asked if adult, autologous fibroblasts would represent a suitable option for eMSC-based immunotherapy. To test this, we generated a CD45⁻CD31⁻ stromal fraction from adult murine visceral and inguinal adipose tissues. We transduced them to express membrane bound human FLT3L (eAMSC-FLT3L) (Fig. **1O**). Following the same experimental plan as previously described (Fig. **1K**), we found that eAMSC-FLT3L displayed similar efficiency as eMSCs-FLT3L, when combined with poly(I:C), as showed by the reduced tumor growth (Fig. **1P**) and tumor weight (Fig. **1Q**).

We conclude that adult fibroblasts are amenable to engineering for local immunotherapy. Altogether, these experiments show that local cell-based delivery of FLT3L within the TME in combination with poly(I:C) is a potent therapy to control tumor growth.

Fig1. Intra-tumoral engraftment of autologous mesenchymal stromal cells expressing membrane bound FLT3L stimulates anti-tumor immunity in the presence of poly(I:C)

Figure 1: Intra-tumoral engraftment of autologous mesenchymal stromal cells expressing membrane bound FLT3L stimulates anti-tumor immunity in the presence of poly(I:C)

(A) Expression of GFP (eMSC-Ctrl) and human membrane-bound FLT3 ligand in mouse embryonic fibroblasts (eMSC-FLT3L).

(B) Experimental design to assess the ability of eMSC-FLT3L to drive DCs differentiation *in vivo*. Hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) isolated from CD45.1$^+$ bone marrow cells were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) in CD45.2$^+$ C57BL/6 mice, along with eMSC-FLT3L, eMSC-Ctrl, recombinant huFLT3L or alone, in a basement membrane extract preparation (Geltrex®). These synthetic niches were harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry 12 days after the injection.

(C) Representative flow cytometry plots and quantification of CD45.1 and CD45.2 DC1s in the synthetic niches containing eMSC-FLT3L, eMSC-Ctrl, rec-huFLT3L or alone at day 12. (n = 4 plugs per group, one experiment. ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, one-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(D) Experimental design to evaluate the persistence of eMSC-FLT3L within B16-OVA tumors. 5×10^5 eMSC-FLT3L-GFP were injected in the tumor (i.t.) at day 0 and at day 13 for the positive controls. Tumors were harvested at day 14 and analyzed by flow cytometry.

(E) Representative flow cytometry plots and quantification of the absolute number of eMSC-FLT3L-GFP/g tumor. Number of cells was checked in B16-OVA tumors, 24h and 14 days after eMSC-FLT3L-GFP injection in the tumor. (n = 2-3 mice per group, one experiment, *$p < 0.05$, one-tailed Mann-Whitney test).

(F) Experimental design to evaluate DCs subsets in tumors, tumor-draining lymph nodes and spleens. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16F10 or B16-huFL3L-GFP on day 0. At day 7, eMSC-Ctrl or eMSC-FLT3L were injected into the tumor (i.t.). DC1s were analyzed at day 12 in the indicated organs.

(G) Circulating huFLT3L levels measured by ELISA in mice serum at day 12. (n=5 mice per group in one experiment. ***$p < 0.001$, one-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(H, I, J) Quantification of the absolute numbers of DC1s in the tumors (H), in the skin tumor-draining lymph nodes (I) and in the spleens (J) (n = 4-5 mice per group, one experiment. **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, one-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(K) Experimental design to evaluate anti-tumoral effects of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) in B16-OVA melanoma mice model. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on

day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L or eMSC-Ctrl. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C).

(L-M) Tumor growth curves (L) and tumor weight at day 15 (M) (n=10 mice per group, two independent experiments, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, Kruskal-Wallis' test with Dunn's multiple comparisons, two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons test).

(N) Survival curves. (n=34-36 mice per group in six independent experiments, $****p < 0.0001$, log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test)

(O) Experimental design. Adipocytes precursors (CD45-CD31-) were isolated from inguinal and visceral fat of C57BL/6 mice and transduced with human membrane-bound FLT3 ligand. These transduced cells were then injected in the tumor of B16-OVA bearing mice, following the experimental design in (K).

(P) Tumor growth curves. (A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored area, n=5 no therapy and n=8 mice for the two other groups in one experiment, $****p < 0.0001$ two-way ANOVA-test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons)

(Q) Tumor weight at day 15. ($*p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis' test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) stimulates the infiltration of DC1s, that are required for immunotherapy efficiency

Having established the immunotherapeutic potential of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) combination, we next sought to address if this intervention would modify DCs infiltration in the TME. To do so, we injected twice eMSC-FLT3L in B16-OVA tumors and we analysed the tumor DCs 24h or 6 days after a poly(I:C) injection (Fig. **2A**). We observed that 24 hours post poly(I:C) injection (day 10), tumor DC1s underwent phenotypic maturation, as probed by CD40 and CD86 up-regulation within both eMSC-Ctrl and eMSC-FLT3L deliveries (Fig. **2B-C**). Poly(I:C) injection also induced a decrease in the number of DC1s in both eMSC-Ctrl and eMSC-FLT3L treated tumors (Fig. **2C**). In contrast, 6 days post poly(I:C) injection (day 15) DC1s underwent expansion in mice treated with both poly(I:C) and eMSC-FLT3L but not in mice treated with poly(I:C) or eMSC-FLT3L alone (Fig. **2C**). This shows that sustained DC1s expansion at the tumor site, uniquely achieved by the synergy of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C), correlates with the efficiency of the therapy. Of note, similar results were found for DC2s (Fig. **S2A**). In order to test the role of DC1s in the efficiency of the therapy, we injected B16-OVA in WT and in DC1-deficient mice ($Xcr1^{cre/+} Rosa^{lsl-DTA}$ (*37*)) and treated the tumors with eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) immunotherapy. We found that the tumor control (Fig. **2D**) and the survival extension (Fig. **2E**) provided by the therapy, were totally abrogated in the absence of DC1s.

We conclude that the synergy between eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) expands intra-tumoral DC1s, that are required for the therapeutic benefits of this intervention.

Fig2. DC1s expand upon intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L with poly(I:C) and control tumor growth.

Figure2: DC1s expand upon intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L with poly(I:C) and control tumor growth.

(A) Experimental design to evaluate DC1s infiltration in B16-OVA upon injection of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C). Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L or eMSC-Ctrl. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumors were harvested at day 10 and 15 for flow cytometry analysis.

(B-C) Representative flow cytometry plots at day 10 (B) and quantification (C) of the absolute number of intra-tumoral DC1/g tumor and the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CD40 and CD86. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=4 mice per group, one experiment for day 10, n=8-9 mice per group, two independent experiments for day 15, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, one-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(D) Tumor growth curves of XCR1^{DTA} mice or C57BL/6 WT mice treated or not with eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C). (A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored doted lines, n=4 mice XCR1^{DTA} - No therapy and n=8 mice for the three other groups, one experiment, $****p < 0.0001$ two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(E) Survival curves. (n=4 mice XCR1^{DTA} - No therapy and n=8 mice for the three other groups, one experiment, $*p < 0.05$, log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test).

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) increase mature migratory DC1 in tumor-draining lymph nodes

Having identified DC1s anti-tumor role in our therapeutic approach, we next wondered if this effect relied on tumor-draining lymph nodes (tdLNs). As previously, we injected twice eMSC-FLT3L in B16-OVA tumors and we analysed the tdLNs 24 hours (day 10) and 6 days (day 15) after the poly(I:C) administration (Fig. **3A**). At 24 hours post poly(I:C) injection, we observed an increase in the migration of mature (CD40^{high}, CD86^{high}) DC1s in the tdLNs of tumors treated with poly(I:C) (Fig. **3B-C**). 6 days post poly(I:C) injection, we found that the increase of mature migratory DC1s was restricted to the tdLNs of tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) (Fig. **3C**).

In correlation with the expansion and activation of intra-tumoral DC1s previously observed (Fig. **2C**), we conclude that the eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) immunotherapy promotes the migration of mature DC1s in the tumor-draining lymph node.

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) enables cross-priming of tumor-specific CD8$^+$ T cells

Since DC1s are more mature and play a crucial role in the therapy, we investigated whether there was an induction of the adaptive immune response in the tdLN. At day 15, we found that the absolute number of activated CD8$^+$ T cells increased upon eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) therapy (Fig. **3D-E**). This effect was associated with an increase in proliferation, as probed by Ki67 staining, in both TCF1$^+$CD44$^+$ stem-like CD8$^+$ and more differentiated TCF1$^-$TIM3$^+$ T cells (Fig. **3D-F**). Functionally, CD8$^+$ T cells increased their capacity to secrete IFN-γ and effector to T regulatory cells (Tregs) ratio increased (Fig. **3G, S.3A-B**). Interestingly, we observed a significant increase in the absolute number of CD4$^+$Foxp3$^-$ cells but not in Tregs (**Fig. S3B-C**). Furthermore, CD4+Foxp3- cells of tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) increased their secretion of IFN-γ (Fig. **S.3D**). Finally, the eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) immunotherapy induced the expansion of tumor specific CD8$^+$ T cells that recognize the OVA$_{257-264}$ immunodominant peptide, as shown with the tetramer staining (Fig. **3H**). Altogether, we conclude that the therapeutic efficiency of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) associates with increased cross-priming of anti-tumor CD8$^+$ T cells.

Fig3. Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) increase mature migratory DCs in tumor-draining lymph nodes and enables cross-priming of tumor-specific CD8+ T cells.

Figure3: Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) increase mature migratory DCs in tumor-draining lymph nodes and enables cross-priming of tumor-specific CD8$^+$ T cells.

(A) Experimental design to evaluate migratory DC1 in the tumor-draining lymph node upon intra-tumoral injection of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C). Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L or eMSC-Ctrl. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumor-draining lymph nodes were harvested at day 10 and day 15 for flow cytometry analysis.

(B-C) Representative flow cytometry plots at day 10 (B) and quantification (C) of the absolute number of migratory DC1s and the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CD40 and CD86. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=4-8 mice per group in one or two independent experiment, *p < 0.05, ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, Kruskal-Wallis-test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(D) Representative flow cytometry plots of CD8 T cells in the tumor-draining lymph node at day 15.

(E) Quantification of the absolute number of activated T cells. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=12-14 mice per group, three independent experiments, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(F) Quantification of the absolute number and Ki67 expression of exhausted (Tim3$^+$) and stem-like (TCF1$^+$) T cells. Dots represent the absolute number of cells while the colours represent the expression level of Ki67. (n=4 mice per group).

(G) Representative flow cytometry plots and quantification of the ratio of IFNγ$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells over T regulatory cells at day 15. (n=5 mice per group in one experiment, *p < 0.05, Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(H) Representative flow cytometry plots and absolute number quantification of OVA-specific CD8$^+$ Tetramer$^+$ T cells at day 15. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=4 mice per group, representative of two independent experiments, *p < 0.05, one-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) stimulates the infiltration of T and NK cells within tumor beds, that are required for immunotherapy efficiency

We next wondered if eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) immunotherapy had an impact on the infiltration of intra-tumoral lymphocytes. First, we characterized lymphoid infiltrates at day 15 within B16-OVA tumors, treated with eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) (Fig. **4A**). We found that eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) synergized to expand intra-tumoral NK1.1$^+$ conventional NK cells (cNK) and CD62L$^-$CD49a$^+$ type 1 innate lymphoid cells (ILC1) (Fig. **4B-C**). We also observed an increase in the proliferation of these two cell types, as probed by Ki67 staining (Fig. **4B-C**). Furthermore, we noticed an increase in intra-tumoral CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. **4D-E**) and CD4$^+$ T cells (Fig. **S.4A**). By looking closer to the phenotype of the activated tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (T$_{ACT}$), we found that eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy increased both PD1$^+$TIM3$^+$ CD8$^+$ exhausted T cells (T$_{EX}$) and TIM3$^-$TCF1$^+$CD8$^+$ progenitor exhausted T cells (T$_{PEX}$) (Fig. **4D-E**). Of note, the intra-tumoral abundance of T$_{PEX}$ is associated to responses to immunotherapy in multiple cancer types (*38–40*). Interestingly, expansion of T$_{PEX}$ cells was associated to a massive increase in cell cycling activity, as probed by Ki67 staining (Fig. **4D-E**). By contrast, T$_{EX}$ cells displayed a high cycling activity both in control and treated groups. Strikingly, the abundance and cycling activity of intra-tumoral T regulatory cells (Tregs) was not up-regulated by eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy (Fig. **S.4A-B**). We next wondered whether these changes would associate to increased tumor-antigen-specific T cell response. We found that eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy induced a striking expansion of tumor specific CD8$^+$ T cells for the OVA$_{257-264}$ peptide, as detected by the tetramer staining (Fig. **4F**) and the IFNγ -secreting T cells upon peptide-specific (SIINFEKL) *ex-vivo* restimulation (Fig. **4G**). Having established the local infiltration of tumor-specific T cells during the onset of tumor growth, we next wondered if the few survivor mice that had undergone eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy displayed evidence of tumor-specific T cell memory. To test this, we injected the SIINFEKL synthetic peptide in tumor-free or B16-OVA survivor mice (d90 post primary tumor injection) (Fig. **4H**). We found that this re-challenge induced the expansion of CD8$^+$ T cells specific for the OVA$_{257-264}$-H2K^b complex (Fig. **4I**) in inguinal lymph nodes from survivor mice but not from tumor free naïve mice. Furthermore, those CD8$^+$ T cells displayed a circulating effector memory phenotype (Fig. **4J**). We conclude that eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy induce local, systemic and long-term immunity against tumor antigens in the CD8$^+$ T cell compartment. Finally, in order to probe the requirement for conventional CD4 and CD8 T cells as well as NK cells, we performed eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy in the presence of control, NK1.1 or CD4 and CD8

depleting antibodies, alone or in combinations (Fig. **4K**). We found that both NK and CD4/CD8 contributed to the therapeutic effect of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C), as probed by the reversed inhibition of the tumor growth (Fig. **4L**) and of the extension of survival (Fig. **4N**). Importantly, inhibition of both NK and CD4/CD8 T cells achieved the maximal inhibition of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy.

Altogether, we conclude that eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy activates and relies on both innate and adaptive anti-tumor immune response.

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) overcomes resistance to anti-PD1/CTLA-4 immune checkpoint blockade

Lastly, we wondered if stimulation of T and NK-dependent anti-tumor immunity by eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) immunotherapy would by-pass resistance to immune checkpoint blockade (ICB). To test this, we submitted B16-OVA to aPD1/aCTLA-4 ICB immunotherapy (Fig. **4O**). We found that ICB slightly expanded the survival of mice as compared to isotype control-treated mice. However, mice treated with both ICB and eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapies exhibited a significant reduction of tumor growth (Fig. **4P**) and had extended survival as compared to isotype-treated control groups (Fig. **4Q**). Of note, the combination of both ICB and eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) improved eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) alone in terms of survival, indicating a proper synergistic effect between both interventions.

Altogether, these data indicate that eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy induce T and NK-dependent immunity against B16-OVA tumor and this defines a way to partially overcome resistance to ICB immunotherapy.

Fig4. Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) stimulates the infiltration of T and NK cells within tumor beds that are required for immunotherapy efficiency and overcomes primary resistance to PD1/CTLA4 blockade.

Figure 4: Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) stimulates the infiltration of T and NK cells within tumor beds that are required for immunotherapy efficiency and overcomes primary resistance to PD1/CTLA4 blockade.

(A) Experimental design to evaluate T and NK cells infiltration in B16-OVA upon injection of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C). Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumors were harvested at day 15 for flow cytometry analysis.

(B-C) Representative flow cytometry plots (B) and quantification (C) of NK1.1 and ILC1 subsets. Dots represent the absolute number of cells while the colours represent the expression level of Ki67. (n=4 mice per group, one experiment).

(D-E) Representative flow cytometry plots (D) and quantification (E) of activated (T_{ACT}), progenitor exhausted (T_{PEX}) and exhausted (T_{EX}) CD8$^+$ T cells. Dots represent the absolute number of cells/g tumor while the colours represent the expression level of Ki67. (n=4 mice per group, one experiment)

(F) Representative flow cytometry plots and absolute number quantification of OVA-specific CD8$^+$ Tetramer$^+$ T cells/g tumor. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=12-14 mice per group, three independent experiments, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, Kruskal-Wallis' test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(G) Representative flow cytometry plots and absolute number quantification of IFNγ$^+$CD44$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells/g tumor after 5h ex-vivo restimulation with SIINFEKL. Results are shown as fold change to control (eMSC-Ctrl). (n=4-5 mice per group, one experiment, **p < 0.01, Kruskal-Wallis' test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(H) Experimental design to evaluate T cell memory generation. Survivor mice that fully rejected B16-OVA tumor treated with eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) were re-challenged, 90 days after primary tumor injection, with s.c. SIINFEKL (1µg/per mice) at the tumor site. Naïve mice were injected s.c. with SIINFEKL as control. At day 3 after SIINFEKL challenge, skin-draining lymph nodes were analyzed.

(I) Representative flow cytometry plots and quantification of CD44$^+$CD8$^+$Tetramer$^+$ cells in the skin-draining lymph nodes after *in vivo* SIINFEKL OVA-peptide restimulation. (n=4 naïve and n=6 survivor, **p < 0.01, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test).

(J) Representative flow cytometry plots of Tet$^+$OVA$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells (red dots) overlaid on total CD8$^+$ T cells of the survivor mice.

(K) Experimental design to assess the role of CD4, CD8 and NK cells in the anti-tumor effect induced by eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) treatment. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-

FLT3L. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumors were treated 4 times with intraperitoneally injection of anti-CD4, anti-CD8, anti-NK1.1 ab or control IgG, every two days starting at day 7.

(L) Tumor growth curves. (A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored area, n=7 mice per group, one experiment, ****$p < 0.0001$, two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(N) Survival curves. (n=7 mice per group, one experiment, ***$p < 0.001$, log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test).

(O) Experimental design to evaluate the response of tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C), together with immune checkpoint blockade. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumors were treated 5 times with intraperitoneally injection of anti-PD-1 and anti-CTLA-4, every two days starting at day 7.

(P) Tumor growth curves. (A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored area, n=7-8 mice per group, one experiment, *$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$, two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(Q) Survival curves. (n=7-8 mice per group, one experiment, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test).

CXCR3 and CCR5 ligands are induced by poly(I:C) and control its impact on DC1s and T cells infiltration

We next wondered which mechanism induced by poly(I:C) could explain the synergy between eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C). Since eMSC-FLT3L alone are able to recapitulate DCs development from hematopoietic progenitors when engrafted in the dermis of tumor free mice (Fig. **1C, S.1A**), we asked whether eMSC-FLT3L would also recapitulate DC development from DC progenitors within the TME. To test this, we engrafted eMSC-FLT3L together with bone marrow hematopoietic stem and progenitors cells (HSPCs), containing DC precursors and obtained from CD45.1 mice, within B16-OVA tumors (Fig. **5A**). 3 days after the engraftment of HSPCs, we found that CD45.1$^+$ DC1s had differentiated from progenitors co-engrafted with eMSC-FLT3L but not eMSC-Ctrl (Fig. **5B**). In the same tumors, eMSC-FLT3L did not increase DC1s from the recipient mice, consistently with previous results (Fig. **5C**). We conclude that availability of DC precursors and not specific features of the TME restrict the differentiation of pre-DC into DC1s within B16-OVA tumors. We next wondered if poly(I:C) would regulate the infiltration of pre-DC1s via chemokine regulation. Using a chemokine multiplex array, we found that poly(I:C) up-regulated multiple chemokines within the TME of eMSC-FLT3L-treated tumors (Fig. **5D**). This includes CXCL9 and CXCL11, which both act as ligands for the CXCR3 receptor, and CCL5, that acts as ligand for CCR5 (*41*) (Fig. **5E**). CXCR3 and CCR5 are found on activated T and NK cells but also on circulating DC precursors (*42*) (*43*) (*44*). To test the contribution of these chemokine signalling pathways to the eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) therapy, we treated B16-OVA bearing mice receiving the therapy with CXCR3 and/or CCR5 antagonists (Fig. **5F**). We found that CXCR3 and CCR5 inhibition prevented the anti-tumoral impact of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy, as shown with the tumor growth (Fig. **5G**) and the tumor weight (Fig. **5H**). Furthermore, blockade of CXCR3 and/or CCR5 inhibited the accrual of intra-tumoral DC1s (Fig. **5I**) and the increase of activated CD8$^+$ T cells within tdLN (Fig. **5J**).

Altogether, these data highlight the crucial role of CXCR3 and CCR5 signalling pathways in mediating the immunotherapeutic effect of eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) immunotherapy.

Fig5. CXCR3 and CCR5 ligands are induced by poly(I:C) and control its impact on DC1s and T cells infiltration.

Figure 5: CXCR3 and CCR5 ligands are induced by poly(I:C) and control its impact on DC1s and T cells infiltration.

(A) Experimental design to assess the ability of eMSC-FLT3L to drive DCs differentiation in B16-OVA tumors. CD45.2$^+$ C57BL/6 mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L. At day 9, Hematopoietic Stem and Progenitor Cells (HSPCs) isolated from CD45.1$^+$ bone marrow cells were injected into the tumors. Tumors were harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry 3 days after HSPCs injection.

(B-C) Quantification of the absolute number of CD45.1 DC1/g tumor (B) and CD45.2 DC1/g tumor (C) (n = 4-5 mice per group in one experiment. $*p < 0.05$, one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons).

(D) Volcano plot for the chemokine multiplex array, where each dot represents one gene, plotted based on log2 fold change and –log10 of adj p-value. Genes in blue are up-regulated in tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L, while genes in red are up-regulated in tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C).

(E) Individual selected chemokines of interest, based on up-regulated chemokines in eMSC-FLT3L + poly(I:C) found in volcano plot. Values were obtained with a Legendplex. (n=5 mice per group, one experiment, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test).

(F) Experimental design to block chemokine receptors CXCR3 and/or CCR5. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L. At day 9, mice were treated i.t. with poly(I:C). Tumors were treated 4 times with intraperitoneal injection of CXCR3- and CCR5 antagonists or of vehicle, every two days starting at day 7. Tumors were harvested at day 15 and analyzed by flow cytometry.

(G) Tumor growth curves. A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored area. (n=9, two independent experiments, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(H) Tumor weight at day 15. (n=9, two independent experiments, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons).

(I) Quantification of the absolute number of DC1/g tumor. Results are shown as fold change to control (DMEM + vehicle). (n=9-10 mice per group, two independent experiments, $*p < 0.05$, one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons).

499   **(J)** Quantification of the frequency of activated CD8$^+$ T cells in live CD45$^+$ cells in the tumor-

500   draining lymph node. (n=4 mice per group, one experiment, *p < 0.05, ** < 0.01, one-way

501   ANOVA test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons).

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates the infiltration of immature pre-DC1s and DC1s in WT and BRGSF Human Immune System (HIS) mice

We next reasoned that stromal cell-based delivery of CXCL9 and/or CCL5 could substitute the effect of poly(I:C) on eMSC-FLT3L therapy. To test this, we produced eMSCs engineered to express CCL5 or CXCL9 (Fig. **6A**) that secrete high concentrations of both chemokines in culture (Fig. **6B-C**). Then, we asked whether eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 would allow the entry of circulating pre-DC1s within B16-OVA tumors. To test this, we injected IRF8-GFP reporter mice with 2 tumors on either flank and injected eMSC-FLT3L on one side (left) and eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 on the other side (right) (Fig. **6D**). IRF8-GFP mice are useful to identify IRF8-expressing pre-DC1s and DC1s. 24h after the injection, we found that CCL5 and CXCL9 enriched tumors had an increased infiltration of pre-DC1s, as defined by Lin-CD45RB$^+$FLT3$^+$MHCII$^+$CD26$^+$Ly6C$^-$CD172a$^-$ XCR1$^-$ IRF8^{high}SIRPa$^-$ cells (Fig. **6E**). We next wondered if this infiltration of pre-DC1s would translate into local DC1s expansion at later time points post-treatment. We found that tumors that were treated with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 had an increase both in the absolute number (Fig. **6F**) and the frequency (Fig. **6G**) of DC1s. Furthermore, we noticed that upon the therapy, tumor DC1s tend to be more activated, as shown by CD40 up-regulation (Fig. **6H**). Altogether, these data show that stromal cells expressing CXCL9 and CCL5 can substitute the effect of poly(I:C) on DCs recruitment and maturation. We then wondered if the eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 co-localized with DC1s in the tumors. We injected eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 (both Cherry$^+$ and GFP$^+$) in *Xcr1*^{cre}x*Rosa*^{LsLRFP} mice, in which DC1s are genetically labelled with RFP fluorescence. We found that DC1s established contact with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 at the border of tumor sites (Fig. **6I**). Since CCR5 and CXCR3 (*4*) are expressed by activated T and NK cells, we wondered if the infiltration of pre-DC1s/DC1s was indirect, due to the recruitment, at first, of activated lymphoid cells. To test this, we used BRGS mice that are deficient in murine T and B cells *(Rag2$^{-/-}$)*, murine NK cells *(IL-2Rγ$_c$$^{-/-}$)* -and macrophage phagocytosis of human cells (SIRPα^{NOD}). (*45*) BRGS mice were injected subcutaneously with basal membrane extract plugs containing either eMSC-Ctrl (left flank), or eMSC-huFLT3L-CCL5-CXCL9 (right flank). (Fig. **6J**). We found that eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 triggered a local accumulation of DC1s in the absence of lymphocytes. We next wondered if this response was actually dependent on the FLT3 receptor tyrosine kinase that is required for the homeostasis of tissue DC1s in non-lymphoid tissues (*23*). To test this, we used BRGSF mice deficient in FLT3 (BRGSF *Flt3$^{-/-}$*) (*46*).We observed no DC1s recruitment in mice deficient in tissue DCs, both in control and treated plugs (Fig. **6K**). From these results, we conclude that the recruitment of DC1 induced

by eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 is independent on B, T and NK/ILCs cells but dependent on FLT3 signalling. Finally, we wondered whether our findings would be transferable to human settings. To test this in controlled experimental settings, BRGSF mice were engrafted with CD34$^+$ HSPCs from human cord blood to create HIS mice.17-weeks old BRGSF HIS mice showed multi-lineage human immune reconstitution comprising B, T, NK and DC. Reconstituted BRGSF HIS mice were injected subcutaneously with basal membrane extract plugs containing either eMSC-Ctrl (left flank), or eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 (right flank) (Fig. **6L**). After 10 days, mice were sacrificed and the cellular infiltrates populating the plugs in the dermis of the mice were analysed by flow cytometry. We found that plugs containing eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 had a significant increase in human DC1s (Fig. **6M**), as compared to plugs containing eMSC-Ctrl eMSC-containing plugs, both in absolute number (Fig. **6N**) and frequency (Fig. **6O**). Of note, similar trends were observed for human DC2s (Fig. **S5A-B**).

Altogether, we conclude that the engraftment of eMSC expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 represent an efficient platform to promote the recruitment and expansion of DC1s within tissues and that the system is amenable to human DC1s.

Fig6. Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates DC1s infiltration in mice and humanized mice.

Figure 6: Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates DC1s infiltration in mice and humanized mice.

(A) Expression of GFP in the mouse embryonic fibroblasts control (eMSC-Control) and in the one expressing CCL5 (eMSC-CCL5) or CXCL9 (eMSC-CXCL9).

(B-C) Quantification by ELISA of CCL5 (B) and CXCL9 (C) released by the eMSC. (n=3 for the eMSC-Ctrl and the eMSC-CCL5 and n=8 for the eMSC-CXCL9 in one experiment, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, two-tailed unpaired t-test).

(D) Experimental design to evaluate the ability of eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 to recruit pre-DC1s in the tumor. IRF8-GFP mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with two B16-OVA tumors on day 0. At day 9, mice were injected with eMSC-FLT3L in the left tumor and with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 in the right tumor. Tumors were harvested after 24h and analyzed by flow cytometry.

(E) Representative flow cytometry plots and frequencies of immature pre-DC1s upon CD45$^+$ live cells in the tumors. (n=14, three independent experiments, *p < 0.05, two-tailed paired t-test).

(F-H) Quantification by flow cytometry of the absolute number of DC1/g tumor (F), their frequency in CD45$^+$ live cells (G) and their mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CD40 (H) at day 15, after 3 intra-tumoral injections of eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5. Results (F, H) are shown as fold change to control (Untreated). (n=11-12 mice per group, two independent experiments, **p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001, two-tailed unpaired t-test).

(I) Immunofluorescence imaging of YUM-OVA tumors injected in XCR1-cre-ROSA-RFP mice. These tumors received 3 injections of DMEM (Untreated) or eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5. Images were taken with a spinning disk 24h after the last injection. DC1 are in red, while eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 are in yellow. Tumors are delimited with the doted white lines.

(J) Experimental design to evaluate the recruitment of murine DC1s in tissues in *BALB/c, Rag2$^{-/-}$, IL-2Rγ$_c$$^{-/-}$, SIRPα^{NOD}, Flt3$^{+/+ \text{ or } -/-}$* (BRGS and BRGSF) mice. eMSC-Ctrl or eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) in BRGSF mice in two independent basement membrane extract preparation (GelTrex®). These synthetic niches (plugs) were harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry 10 days after the injection.

(K) Quantification of the absolute number of murine DC1/plug in BRGS *Flt3$^{-/-}$* or *Flt3$^{+/+}$* mice. (n=8 plugs per group, one experiment, ***p < 0,05, two-tailed paired t-test)

(L) Experimental design to evaluate the recruitment of human DC1s in tissues in *BALB/c, Rag2$^{-/-}$, IL-2Rγ$_c$$^{-/-}$, SIRPα^{NOD}, Flt3$^{-/-}$* (BRGSF) humanized mice. eMSC-Ctrl or eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) in BRGSF mice in two independent

basement membrane extract preparation (GelTrex®). These synthetic niches (plugs) were

harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry 10 days after the injection.

(M) Representatives flow cytometry plots and gating strategy used to identify human DC1 in

the synthetic niches. Lineage contains: NKp46, CD3, CD19, CD56, CD66b, CD203c, CD20.

(N-O) Quantification of the absolute number (N) and frequencies (O) of human DC1/plug.

(n=16 plugs per group, three independent experiments, ***$p < 0.001$, two-tailed Wilcoxon

matched-pairs signed rank test).

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates the infiltration of activated CD4 and CD8 T cells in the tumor

We next wondered if the secretion of CXCL9 and CCL5 would also impact the attraction of activated T cells. To test this, we first set-up an *in vitro* migration assay in Boyden chambers, to study the chemo-attraction of activated polyclonal CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells towards eMSCs expressing CCL5 and/or CXCL9 (Fig. **7A**). As expected, after 3 hours of migration, we observed a synergistic effect of eMSC-CCL5 and eMSC-CXCL9 in their ability to attract activated CD4$^+$ (Fig. **7B**) and CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. **7C**). We then wanted to know if this attraction could allow the recruitment of activated T cells in B16-OVA tumors. To test this, we injected eMSC expressing CCL5 and/or CXCL9 in the tumors and adoptively transferred *ex vivo* activated polyclonal CD45.1 T cells intravenously (Fig. **7D**). A synergistic effect between eMSC-CCL5 and eMSC-CXCL9 was again observed in their ability to recruit activated CD4$^+$ (Fig. **7E**) and CD8$^+$ (Fig. **7F**) CD45.1 T cells in the tumor. We conclude that eMSC-CXCL9 and eMSC-CCL5 represent a workable platform to deliver locally bioactive chemokines. Lastly, we wanted to assess if the eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 immunotherapy would have an impact on the infiltration of intra-tumoral lymphocytes. To test this, we injected eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 in B16-OVA tumors and looked at a late time point the immune infiltrate (Fig. **7G**). We observed that tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 were more infiltrated with NK, ILC1, CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. **7H**). Of note, absolute number of activated, exhausted and progenitor exhausted CD8$^+$ T cells were also increased in the treated tumors.

Altogether these data show that eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 immunotherapy induce the recruitment of lymphoid cells in B16-OVA tumors.

Fig7. Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates the infiltration of activated CD4+ and CD8+ T cells.

Figure 7: Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 stimulates the infiltration of activated CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells.

(A) Experimental scheme of the migration assay. eMSC-CXCL9, eMSC-CCL5 and eMSC-Ctrl were plated in the lower compartment of Boyden chambers, 24 hours before the migration assay. *Ex-vivo* polarized CD45.1 T cells were then transferred to the upper compartment of the culture system and incubated at 37°C for 3 h.

(B-C) Quantification of the migration index of CD4+ (B) and CD8+ (C) T cells. The migration index was obtained by counting the number of T cells that migrated to the bottom chambers, regarding the number of T cells initially put on top of the chambers. (n=3, one experiment, *p < 0.05, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, one-way ANOVA test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(D) Experimental design for adoptive Th1-CD45.1 T cells transfer in B16-OVA-bearing mice. CD45.2 WT mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 7, 9 and 12, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-CCL5, eMSC-CXCL9 or eMSC-Ctrl. At day 9, mice were injected intra-venously (i.v.) with Th1-CD45.1 T cells, previously activated and polarized *ex vivo*. Tumors were harvested at day 15 and analyzed by flow cytometry.

(E-F) Quantification of the absolute number of CD45.1 CD4$^+$ T cells/g tumor (E) and CD45.1 CD8$^+$ T cells/g tumor (F). (n=5 mice per group, one experiment, *p < 0.05, one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's multiple comparisons).

(G) Experimental design to assess the infiltration of DC1s in the tumors after injection of eMSC-FLT3L-CCL5-CXCL9. C57BL/6 mice were injected subcutaneously with B16-OVA tumors on day 0. At day 9, 11 and 14, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5. Tumors were harvested at day 17 and analyzed by flow cytometry.

(H) Quantification of the absolute number and the frequencies in CD45$^+$ live cells of NK, ILC1, CD4$^+$, CD8$^+$CD44$^+$ activated (T$_{ACT}$), CD8$^+$CD44$^+$PD1$^+$Tim3$^-$ progenitor exhausted (T$_{PEX}$) and CD8$^+$CD44$^+$PD1$^+$Tim3$^+$ exhausted (T$_{EX}$) T cells. Dots represent the absolute number of cells/g tumor while the colours represent the frequencies of cells in CD45$^+$ live cells.

Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 recapitulates anti-tumor immunity

Having shown that eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 immunotherapy had an impact on the infiltration of immune cells in the tumors, we wondered if it would also confer anti-tumor immunity. To test this, we did three injections of eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 in B16-OVA tumors (Fig. **8A**). We observed a significant reduction in tumor growth (Fig. **8B**), tumor size (Fig. **8C**) and tumor weight (Fig. **8D**) at a late time point.

Finally, we wanted to assess if eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 immunotherapy would also overcome resistance to ICB, by treating the mice with or without aPD1/aCTLA-4 immunotherapy (Fig. **8E**). We found that even if ICB alone reduced the tumor growth (Fig. **8F**) and expand the survival of mice (Fig. **8G**), the synergy of both eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 and ICB was needed to eradicate the tumor in a fraction of treated mice (Fig. **8G**).

Altogether, these data indicate that eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 immunotherapy activates anti-tumor immunity and partially overcome resistance to ICB.

Fig8. Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 is sufficient to activate anti-tumor immunity

Figure 8: Intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC co-expressing FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 is sufficient to activate anti-tumor immunity

(A) Experimental design to assess the anti-tumor effect of eMSC-FLT3L-CCL5-CXCL9. C57BL/6 mice were injected subcutaneously with B16-OVA tumors on day 0. At day 10, 12 and 15 mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5. Tumors were harvested at day 18.

(B) Tumor growth curves. A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored area. (n=5, representative of 4 independent experiments, ***$p < 0.001$, two-way ANOVA-test with Šídák's multiple comparisons).

(C) Tumor size at day 18. (n=23-24, four independent experiments, **$p < 0.01$, two-tailed unpaired t-test).

(D) Tumor weight at day 18. (n=11-12, two independent experiments, *$p < 0.05$, two-tailed unpaired t-test).

(E) Experimental design to evaluate the response of tumors treated with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5, together with immune checkpoint blockade. Mice were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) with B16-OVA on day 0. At day 10, 12, 14 and 16, mice were injected into the tumor (i.t.) with eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 and intraperitoneally with immune checkpoint blockade (anti-PD-1 and anti-CTLA-4).

(F) Tumor growth curves. (A line represents the mean and SD is shown with the colored doted lines, n=6-8 mice per group, one experiment, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, two-way ANOVA-test with Tukey's multiple comparisons).

(Q) Survival curves. (n=6-8 mice per group, one experiment, log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test)

DISCUSSION

Here, we identify a novel immunotherapeutic platform defined by the engraftment of *ex vivo* engineered, autologous mesenchymal stromal cells (eMSCs) within primary tumors. In line with previous studies (*14*), we observe a therapeutic synergy between FLT3L and the poly(I:C) adjuvant. We show that this anti-tumor response relies on DC1s, T and NK cells. Interestingly, eMSC-FLT3L and poly(I:C) did not expand Tregs in the tumor. Altogether, we show that engineered stromal cells provide a novel avenue to deliver FLT3L specifically at the tumor site.

We next evidence that poly(I:C) up-regulates multiple chemokines within the TME, namely CXCL9 and CCL5, which are ligands for CXCR3 and CCR5 respectively. Pharmacological experiments demonstrate that CXCR3 and CCR5 control intra-tumoral DC1s accrual. Furthermore, we show that CXCL9 and CCL5 delivery with FLT3L is sufficient to recapitulate pre-DC1s infiltration and DC1s expansion within tumors. CXCR3 and CCR5 are found on activated T and NK cells but also on circulating DC precursors (*42*) (*43*) (*44*). We found that T cells and NK cells are dispensable for the aegis of CXCL9 and CCL5 on DCs recruitment. Intra-tumoral ligands for CXCR3 and CCR5 might originate from multiple sources including DC1s themselves (*5*) (*6*) (*43*) (*44*), what may contribute to the maintenance of a positive feedback loop supporting the maintenance of intra-tumoral DC1s.

Finally, we show that eMSC-FLT3L-CCL5-CXCL9 achieve the local recruitment of human DC1s in the dermis of BRGSF immunodeficient mice reconstituted with human CD34^{+} HSCs (*45*). However, the nature of the responding circulating progenitors remains to be identified since multiple cellular populations had been proposed to act as equivalent of murine pre-DCs in the human system (*31, 47, 48*)

In line with previous studies (*43*),(*44*), we demonstrate that injection of eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 increase T and NK/ILCs cells infiltration within tumors. Therefore, local delivery of chemokines might achieve a double effect on pre-DCs infiltration and local effectors recruitment. However, it remains unclear whether the recruitment of activated T and NK cells is a direct consequence of chemokines signalling or an indirect effect mediated by the migration of activated dendritic cells to the tumor-draining lymph node.

We have found that CXCL9 and CCL5 in addition to FLT3L stimulates the expression of maturation markers like CD40 on intra-tumoral DCs. Further experiments could address if lymphocytes recruited by CXCL9 or CCL5 might engage DCs and activate their maturation, possibly via CD40 signalling.

Lastly, when combining eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 to aPD1/aCTLA-4
immunotherapy, we manage to partially overcome primary resistance to immune checkpoint
blockade. It will be interesting to decipher if and how eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 reshape
broadly the immune infiltration with possible roles of CXCL9+ macrophages (*49*), stem
immunity hubs (J. H. Chen et al. 2024) or TLS (*9*).

Altogether, our results support the idea that intra-tumoral delivery of eMSC-FLT3L
together with CXCR3- and CCR5-ligands is efficient to reprogram immune infiltration in the
TME. As claimed by Bae et al.(*50*), we believe that autologous mesenchymal stromal cells
represent a promising platform to locally deliver bioactive factors and achieve their sustained
production at the target site. Furthermore, this approach might also mitigate systemic toxicity
to optimize immunotherapy outcomes Lastly, our findings provide strong rationale for further
translational development.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Design

The aim of this study was to develop a local DC-targeted immunotherapy purposed to stimulate DCs infiltration and expansion within solid tumors. To that end, we injected engineered autologous mesenchymal stromal cells within B16-OVA melanoma tumors and assessed the anti-tumor immunity, DCs and T cells infiltration. Specific role of immune cells was assessed with genetically modified mouse strains or depleting antibodies. We also evaluated the effect of our therapies on the immune cells of the tdLN. Lastly, we tested if our immunotherapy was transferrable to human settings by using BRGSF HIS mice. Most of the results in this study is flow cytometry analysis and tumor follow-up. Experiments in this study were performed between one and two times, unless otherwise stated in the figure captions.

Mice

Mice were housed at the INSERM U1149 CRI, Medicine school site Bichat or at the Paris Institut Pasteur animal house facilities. Wild type C57BL/6J and CD45.1 mice were purchased from Janvier and kept in our facility. IRF8-GFP (B6.Cg-Irf8tm2.1Hm/J), $XCR1^{cre}$, ROSA26-LSL-RFP (Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1Hjf) and ROSA26-LSL-DTA (B6.129P2 Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1(DTA)Lky/J)(51) mice were kindly provided by Dr. Marc Dalod (Center of Immunology Marseille-Luminy, Marseille). XCR1^{DTA} and XCR1^{RFP} mice were generated as described(37). OT-I $RAG2^{-/-}$ CD45.1 mice were kindly provided by Dr. Sébastian Amigorena (Curie institute, Paris). BALB/c Rag2$^{-/-}$ IL2rγ$^{-/-}$ Sirpα^{NOD} (BRGS), BALB/c Rag2$^{-/-}$ IL2rγ$^{-/-}$ Sirpα^{NOD} Flt3$^{-/-}$ (BRGSF) mice and BRGSF-HIS mice were provided by the Human Disease model Core facility (Institut Pasteur, Paris). The study was approved by the local ethics committee (Comité d'éthique Paris Nord n°121 or CEEA89) and the French Ministry of Education and Research under the authorization number APAFIS#15373 and APAFIS #48865. Animal care and treatment were conducted with national and international laws and policies (European Economic Community Council Directive 86/609; OJL 358; December 12, 1987). All experiments were performed in accordance with the Federation of European Laboratory Animal Science Association (FELASA) guidelines, institutional guidelines and the French law.

BRGSF humanized immune system mice (BRGSF-HIS)

Briefly, cord blood CD34$^+$ cells (CRB de la Banque de Sang de Cordon, AP-HP, Paris) were isolated with affinity matrices according to the manufacturer's instructions (Miltenyi Biotec)

and subsequently phenotyped for CD34 and CD38 expression. Newborn (5–9 days old) pups received sublethal irradiation (3 Gy) and were injected intra-hepatically with 3×10^5 CD34$^+$ human cord blood cells. 12 and 16 weeks after graft, reconstitution of the human immune system was confirmed by analysis of human CD45, CD19, CD3, CD4, CD8 expression on live leukocytes in the blood using flow cytometry. All animal studies were approved by the Pasteur Institute Safety Committee in accordance with French and European Guidelines (Committee for Ethics in Animal Experimentation 240006) and validated by the French Ministry of Education and Research (APAFIS #49211-2024042612197924 v3).

Tumor cell lines

B16-OVA and YUM-OVA cell lines were generated by lentiviral transduction. B16F10, B16-FLT3L(*52*) and B16-OVA cell lines were cultured in RPMI Medium 1640 (Gibco®) supplemented with GlutaMAX, 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco®), 50μM β-mercaptoethanol (ThermoFisher) and 100U/mL penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher). YUM-OVA cell lines were cultured in DMEM (Gibco®) supplemented with GlutaMAX, 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Gibco®), 50μM β-mercaptoethanol (ThermoFisher) and 100U/mL penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher). Cells were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Tumor models

For the grafted tumor model, tumor cells were harvested during the exponential growth phase using 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco), washed twice in PBS, and counted using trypan blue exclusion. Mice were subcutaneously inoculated with 5×10^5 to 1×10^6 tumor cells suspended in 100μL of un-supplemented RPMI medium. Tumor dimensions were recorded three times per week using a digital caliper, and tumor volume (V) was calculated using the formula V=(L×W×W)/2, with volume expressed in mm³. Mice were monitored daily, and endpoints were established based on signs of distress, including pain, lethargy, dehydration, ulceration, or tumor necrosis. Mice were sacrificed when these criteria were met or when tumor volume reached between 1500 and 2000 mm³ to generate survival curves.

Generation of engineered mesenchymal stromal cells

Generation of mesenchymal stromal cells

Mesenchymal stromal cells (MSC) were generated from mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) from individual C57/BL6 embryos at embryonic day 13 and were kindly provided by Dr. Loredana Saveanu. Practically, the embryo body was digested with 0.05% trypsin and 0.02% EDTA in Hanks balanced salt solution at 37°C for 30 minutes. The single cell suspension obtained after digestion was resuspended in high glucose DMEM medium containing 10% FCS, 2mM L-glutamine, 100U/ml penicillin and 100µg/ml streptomycin and seeded on 0.1% gelatin (Sigma G1890) coated tissue culture dishes at $5x10^4$ cells/cm^2. Cells growing on the gelatin-coated dishes were harvested and cell passages were repeated in DMEM medium containing 10% FCS, 2mM L-glutamine, 100U/ml penicillin and 100µg/ml streptomycin. Immortalized cells were obtained at passage 20.

Generation of adipose-derived mesenchymal stromal cells

Method was adapted form Dr. Geneviève Marcelin. Inguinal and visceral fat of C57BL/6 mice were cut in small pieces and digested with 6 to 8mL of digestion mix, containing high glucose DMEM (ThermoFisher), 1mg/mL collagenase A (Roche) resuspended in HBSS (ThermoFisher), 100U/mL HEPES (ThermoFisher), 100U/mL penicillin/streptomycin (ThermoFisher) and 1mg/mL BSA. After 40min digestion at 37°C, the digestion was mechanically ended with a syringe and a needle of 18G. Cell suspension was then filtered on a 100µm cell strainer and centrifuged. Floating adipocytes and red blood cells (ACK lysis, ThermoFisher) were removed. Cells were enriched in CD45-Ter119- cells using a StemCell Magnet and biotin anti-CD45 and anti-Ter119 antibodies. Enriched cells were then cultured in an adherent flask with DMEM (Gibco®) supplemented with GlutaMAX, 20% heat-inactivated FBS (Gibco®), 50µM β-mercaptoethanol (ThermoFisher) and 100U/mL penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher). Cells were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Engineering of mesenchymal stromal cells

Human FLT3L, CXCL9 and CCL5 were amplified by PCR from previously obtained or commercial cDNA (Horizon Discovery) and cloned into pMX retroviral vectors (detailed in the Supplementary Table 1). To generate viral particles, the Platinum-E (Plat-E) Retroviral Packaging Cell Line (kindly provided by Laurie Menger) was transfected with 1,2µg plasmid, CaCl2 and BBS. MSCs were then transduced with the viral supernatant and 8µg/mL polybrene.

Transduced MSCs were selected using 2μg/mL puromycin (ThermoFisher) and sorted on their

expression of membrane-bound FLT3L (antibody details provided in the Supplementary Table

1) and/or their expression of eGFP or mCherry reporters. Engineered MSCs were cultured in

DMEM (Gibco®) supplemented with GlutaMAX, 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Gibco®), 50μM

β-mercaptoethanol (ThermoFisher), 2μg/mL puromycin (ThermoFisher) and 100U/mL

penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher), under standard culture conditions of 37°C and 5%

CO_2.

In vitro **experiments**

T cells isolation, activation and polarization

$CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells were isolated from the draining lymph nodes and spleens of 10- to 12-

week-old CD45.1 mice. Purification was performed using negative selection with a biotin-

conjugated antibody cocktail, followed by anti-biotin magnetic beads and separation with a

MACS MultiStand separator. For *in vitro* stimulation, purified T cells were cultured on plates

coated with anti-CD3 (2μg/mL; clone 17A2) and anti-CD28 (2μg/mL; clone 3751; BioLegend)

in the presence of recombinant IL-2 (5μg/mL; BioLegend). To promote Th1 differentiation,

cultures were supplemented with recombinant IL-12 (10ng/mL; BioLegend) and anti-IL-4

(5μg/mL; clone MP4-25D2; BioLegend).

Migration assay

Cell migration assays were conducted using 24-well transwells inserts with 5-μm pore

polycarbonate membranes (Corning, catalog #CLS3421). Engineered mesenchymal stromal

cells (eMSCs) expressing CCL5 or CXCL9 were seeded at a density of 250,000 cells per well

in the lower chamber. Once the eMSCs reached confluency, the culture medium was replaced

with serum-free DMEM. A total of 100,000 CD45.1 Th1-polarized T cells were resuspended

in serum-free DMEM, and 100μL of the cell suspension was carefully added to the upper

chamber of the Transwell insert. The upper chamber was then gently placed into the lower

chamber using sterile forceps, ensuring proper immersion in the culture medium. The plate was

incubated at 37°C for 3 hours. Following incubation, the supernatant was collected to quantify

T-cell migration by flow cytometry.

***In vivo* experiments**
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HSPCs differentiation in membrane extract plugs

Immunomagnetic negative selection was used to isolate mouse stem and progenitor cells

(HSPC) from CD45.1 mice using the EasySep™ Mouse Hematopoietic Progenitor Cell

Isolation Kit, following the manufacturer's instructions. A total of 10^4 hematopoietic stem and

progenitor cells (HSPCs) per plug were subcutaneously injected alongside engineered

mesenchymal stromal cells (eMSCs) at a 1:50 ratio (HSPC/eMSC) in 200 μL of ice-cold

Matrigel® (Thermo Fisher). Mice were euthanized on day 12 of differentiation via cervical

dislocation, and Matrigel® plugs were excised for further analysis. The plugs were sectioned

and enzymatically digested in HBSS (Life Technologies) containing 1% FBS, 0.37U/mL

Collagenase D (Roche), 10μg/mL DNase I (Roche), and 1mg/mL Dispase (Sigma-Aldrich) at

37°C for 30 minutes. Following digestion, the tissue was smashed on a 100-μm strainer

(Corning), and the resulting cell suspension was collected and resuspended in FACS buffer for

flow cytometry analysis. For experiments involving recombinant FLT3L, human FLT3Lwas

used at a concentration of 100ng/mL.

***In Vivo* Treatment with Engineered Stromal Cells**

Intra-tumoral injections of eMSCs started when the tumors were between 50 and 100mm³. Mice

were treated with 5×10^5 to 1×10^6 eMSC-FLT3L, in combination with 25μg/mouse of poly I:C

LMW (InVivoGen). We designed our intra-tumoral cell-based therapy as two injections of

eMSC-FLT3L (day 7 and day 12) and one injection of poly(I:C) (day 9). Mice that were later

treated with 5×10^5 to 1×10^6 eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 received three injections of eMSCs.

In the latest experiments, mice developed tumors with the desired injectable size few days later

than the initial schedule. Thus, the start of injections was postponed but the number and

frequencies of injections was kept.

Immune Checkpoint Blockade (ICB) Treatment

Mice received intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections of 200μg anti-PD-1 (clone RMP1-14, BioXcell)

and 200μg of anti-CTLA-4 (clone 9H10, BioXCell). An isotype antibody (clone 1-113,

BioXCell) and IgG control (clone MPC11, BioXCell) was used as a control. All antibodies

were administered intra-peritoneally at treatment initiation and subsequently every two days

until reaching 5 injections.

CD4, CD8 and NK cells depletion

For the depletion of CD4$^+$ T cells, CD8$^+$ T cells, and NK1.1$^+$ cells, mice were treated with 200μg of anti-CD4 (clone GK1.5, BioXCell BE0003-1), 200μg of anti-CD8 (clone 2.43, BioXCell BE0061), and 200μg of anti-NK1.1 (clone PK136, BioXCell BE0036). As controls, 300μg of IgG2a isotype (clone C1.18.4, BioXCell BE0085) and 500μg of rat IgG2b isotype (clone LFT-2, BioXCell BE0090) were used. All antibodies were administered intraperitoneally at the initiation of treatment and subsequently every three days, until reaching 4 injections.

CXCR3- and CCR5-antagonists' treatments

Mice received intraperitoneal injections of either maraviroc (30mg/kg, 500μg/mouse), a CCR5 antagonist, or AMG 487 (200μg/mouse), a CXCR3 antagonist. Both agents were dissolved in a vehicle of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). Administration started at the initiation of treatment and continued every two days until day 15, where samples were collected for flow cytometry analysis.

SIINFEKL re-challenging in survivor mice

Tumor-eradicated mice underwent *in vivo* restimulation via subcutaneous injection of 1μg OVA 257-264 peptide (SIINFEKL; Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in 100μl phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The injection site was located in the dorsal flank region. Three days post-restimulation, mice were euthanized, and inguinal draining lymph nodes were excised for subsequent analysis.

Adoptive T cell transfer

1x10^5 eMSCs were injected in B16-OVA tumors at day 7, 9 and 12. At day 9, 2x10^6 Th1-polarized CD45.1 T cells (previously described) were intravenously administered.

Synthetic niches (plugs)

1x10^6 eMSC-Ctrl or eMSC-FLT3L-CXCL9-CCL5 were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) in 200μL solution, containing 150μL of Geltrex LDEV-Free Reduced Growth Factor Basement Membrane Matrix and 50μL of PBS. The synthetic niches (plugs) were harvested and analyzed by flow cytometry 10 days after the injection.

Mouse tissues processing

Murine tumors, tumor-draining lymph nodes (LNs), spleens, or synthetic niches were harvested and subjected to enzymatic digestion. Tissues were incubated in 3mL of digestion buffer, comprising Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) supplemented with calcium and magnesium (Thermo Fisher), 75µg/mL Collagenase D (Roche), and 0.02mg/mL DNase I (Thermo Fisher), at 37°C for 30 minutes. Single-cell suspensions were then generated by smashing the digested tissues through 70µm cell strainers (Corning). Spleen red blood cells were lysed using ACK lysis buffer (ThermoFisher). The absolute number of live immune cells in each tissue cell suspension was assessed using AccuCheck Counting Beads (ThermoFisher) along with anti-CD45 and DAPI stainings on BD LSR-Fortessa X20 or BD Symphony A5 (BD Biosciences).

Flow cytometry analysis and fluorescent-activated cell sorting

After tissue processing and cell counting, Fc-receptor were blocked using FcBlock for 20min at 4°C. Viability was assessed using 7-AAD (Biolegend), Zombie dyes (BioLegend), or Live/dead fixable stains (ThermoFisher). Extracellular staining was performed in FACS buffer (PBS (Life Technologies), 3% FBS (ThermoFisher), and 2 mM EDTA (Life Technologies)) during 30min at 4°C. Labelling with H2K^b-SIINFEKL tetramers (MBL) was performed at room temperature for 30min. For intra-cellular stainings, single cell suspensions were then fixed during 30min and stained during 30min using a fixation/permeabilization kit (eBiosciences, transcription factor staining buffer). For intra-cellular IFNγ staining, single-cell suspensions were first restimulated *ex vivo* with 2µM OVA257–264 peptide (SIINFEKL, GenScript) for 5 hours at 37°C in 5% CO2, followed by a 4-hour incubation with 5µg/mL Brefeldin A (Sigma Aldrich). Cells were subsequently labelled with surface antibodies, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; Thermo Fisher), permeabilized with a solution of 1% BSA, 0.1% saponin, and 0.02% sodium azide in PBS, and stained with an intracellular cytokine staining (ICS) antibody panel. A comprehensive list of antibodies used is provided in Supplementary Table 1. Flow cytometry data were acquired using BD LSR-Fortessa X20, BD Symphony A5 (BD Biosciences) or ID7000 Spectral (Sony). Cells sorting was performed using a BD FACSMelody™ Cell Sorter equipped with BD FACSDiva software. Data were analyzed with FlowJo software.

Multiplex chemokines analysis

Dissected tumor samples were weighted and homogenized in 1mL of 1x phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) supplemented with protease inhibitor, using a Fisherbrand™ 150 handheld homogenizer. Homogenates were then centrifuged at 14,000 x *g* for 15 minutes, and the

resulting supernatants were collected. The concentrations of pro-inflammatory chemokines

within the supernatants were quantified using the LEGENDplex™ MU Proinflammatory

Chemokine Panel 1 and 2 (BioLegend), following the manufacturer's instructions. Samples

were analyzed by flow cytometry on a BD FACS LSRFortessa. Data were analyzed using

LEGENDplex™ software (BioLegend). Chemokine concentrations were normalized to total

protein concentration, which was estimated using the initial tumor mass.

Immunofluorescence

Protocol was adapted from Laforêts et al. (*53*). Tumors were harvested and embedded in 5%

agarose. 350μm thick slices of non-fixed fresh samples were obtained using a vibratome

(LEICA, VT1200S), with blade speed between 0.5 and 0.75 mm/s and the amplitude at 1mm.

Samples were then collected in phenol-red free DMEM medium, containing 10% FBS, 1%

penicillin/streptomycin and 4mM L-glutamine. Live tumor samples were then put in a 35mm

glass bottom dish, filled with the before mentioned medium. Images were taken with a Nikon

Ti2E, equipped with a 20X objective, a spinning disk and a temperature-controlled chamber at

37°C. Images were analyzed with Fiji software.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 10 (GraphPad Software Inc., USA). Statistical

analysis and verification of normal distribution were performed using GraphPad Prism

software. For comparisons of two groups, two-tailed paired or unpaired Student's *t* test was

used. When three or more groups were compared, a one-way or two-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA) test was used. Precise tests are described in the figure legends. A p-value of less

than 0.05 was considered as significant. The number of biological as well as experimental

replicates is indicated in figure legend. Data are presented as means ± SD, means ± SEM,

median ± quartile, or violin plots as described in the figure legends. In all figures, $*P < 0.05$,

$**P < 0.01$, and $***P < 0.001$; ns, not significant.

Supplementary Materials

Fig. S1 to S5

Table S1

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Acknowledgments
We would like to thank the flow cytometry and the animal facility platforms from the CRI
(Centre de Recherche sur l'Inflammation, Faculté de Médecine, Bichat) and from Pasteur
Institute. We thank Rémy Yim, the human disease models core facility (Institut Pasteur, Paris)
and the CRB de la Banque de Sang de Cordon, AP-HP, Paris for the experiments on the BRGSF
reconstituted mice. We thank the units U1149 and U1016 of Institut National de la Santé et de
la Recherche Médicale. We thank unit UMR3738 of Centre National de la Recherche at Pasteur
Institute.

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Funding

PG is a CNRS investigator (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique)

Fonds National Suisse SINGERGIA SNF CRSII5_202246/1

INSERM transfert CO-POC grant

Agence Nationale pour la Recherche (ANR-17-CE11-0001-01 and ANR-18-IDEX-0001).

La Ligue contre le cancer Ile de France

Institut National du Cancer INCA (PL-BIO22-147)

Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (EQU202203014687)

Fondation pour la Recherche sur le Cancer ARC (PJA2021060003913)

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests. Patent Engraftment of mesenchymal stromal cells engineered to stimulate immune infiltration in tumors. EP23305569