Adoptive cell therapy using T cell receptors equipped with ICOS yields durable anti-tumor response

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Highlights

Newly designed co-stimulatory TCR, with extracellular TCR-V and C domains coupled to CD28 transmembrane domain, and ICOS and CD3ϵ intracellular domains (in short TCR:ICOS) provides:

➢ durable anti-tumor response and T cell persistence in mouse model

➢ inflammatory T cell phenotype and resistance to T cell exhaustion

➢ effects via PI3K and NFκB activation

➢ translation to human T cells upon single amino acid mutation in TCR:ICOS tail

➢ extension to multiple clinically relevant TCRs while preserving prolonged T cell fitness

Abstract

Treatment with adoptively transferred T cells is challenged by limited longevity of therapeutic

cells within tumors. To enhance the durability of anti-tumor T cell products, we have created

T cell receptors (TCRs) with built-in co-stimulatory molecules. We observed that TCRs

coupled to ICOS mediated exceptionally long-term responses including delay of tumor

recurrence and cures in a mouse tumor model. TCR:ICOS T cells showed enhanced and

antigen-specific production of inflammatory cytokines and resistance to exhaustion. Genetic

ablation of ICOS-mediated activation of the PI3K-NFκB pathway neutralized the long-term

anti-tumor effects. To translate TCR:ICOS to human T cells, we identified a single amino acid

change in the cytosolic tail which was necessary for functional surface expression. Notably,

the optimized receptor sustained performance of human T cells upon repeated stimulation

across multiple antigen specificities. Collectively, we present a novel and uniformly applicable

TCR:ICOS format that supports fitter T cell products for adoptive cell therapy.

Keywords: co-stimulatory TCR-T cell, immunotherapy, tumor immunology, gene

engineering, solid tumors

Introduction

Adoptive cell therapy to treat cancer relies on the infusion of tumor-specific T cells that subsequently trace and kill tumor cells. Besides non-modified T cells, such as tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) that are directed against cancer antigens via endogenous T cell receptors (TCRs), T cells are often derived from blood and redirected toward cancer antigens via gene-engineering with chimeric antigen receptors (CARs) or TCRs. CAR-T cell therapy has already exhibited remarkable success and achieved objective response rates up to 90% in hematological malignancies (1–6). Currently, seven CAR-T cell products directed to either CD19 or BCMA have received FDA approval and now constitute standard-of-care treatment for B cell lymphomas and multiple myeloma (7). In addition, TIL and TCR-T cell treatments have shown objective responses of over 40% in solid tumors, such as melanoma and synovial sarcoma (8,9). This has led to the 2024 FDA approval of a TIL product directed against melanoma and a TCR-T cell product directed against synovial sarcoma antigen MAGE-A4 (10). Despite this tremendous progress, there is still an urgent need to identify gene-engineering strategies to enhance T cell fitness, particularly for the treatment of solid tumors, where the long-term efficacy of T cell therapy is lagging behind that of hematological malignancies.

A major cause of ineffective or transient clinical effects is the inability of adoptively transferred T cells to sufficiently resist the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment (TME). Multiple reports have already demonstrated that within TMEs, T cells become progressively dysfunctional, show a curtailed persistence as well as a diminished anti-tumor activity, as reviewed in (11–13). In addition, the inhospitable TME impairs T cell infiltration, migration and antigen presentation to T cells, which, together, significantly limit the durability of anti-tumor T cells (12). Specifically, TMEs lack sufficient co-stimulatory ligands, thereby preventing optimal T cell activation and potentially initiating T cell impairments (14,15). In fact, negligible expression of co-stimulatory ligands, often accompanied by an overabundance of co-inhibitory ligands, may mirror TMEs that are the result of adaptive feedback mechanisms that hamper

the longevity of anti-tumor T cells (16–19). To bypass the need for exogenous, i.e. TME-

derived co-stimulation, we propose to create TCRs with built-in co-stimulatory molecules,

thereby providing a second signal upon antigen recognition. Although clinical CARs already

contain co-stimulatory domains, engineering co-stimulatory TCRs with the potential to unlock

T cell therapy for a large collection of targets, is an underexplored strategy. In fact, engineering

TCRs, in contrast to CARs, faces typical structural constraints due to the necessary assembly

of TCR chains with CD3 components as well as the requirement to bind peptide:MHC

complexes.

In the present study, we have developed a panel of new TCRs incorporating co-stimulatory

molecules and evaluated these TCR-T cells for durability of the anti-tumor effect in an

aggressive melanoma mouse model. The TCR harboring Inducible T cell Co-Stimulator

(TCR:ICOS) resulted in exceptionally long-term cures and delay of tumor recurrence and was

identified as the lead candidate. Subsequently, we uncovered its mechanism of action by

performing a series of *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments. Finally, we translated the murine

TCR:ICOS format for its use in human T cells and demonstrated its surplus value regarding T

cell longevity across multiple clinically relevant antigen specificities.

Materials and Methods

Design of murine co-stimulatory TCRs

TCRα and β genes specific for the human gp100$_{280\text{-}288}$ epitope (YLEPGPVTA) presented by HLA-A2 (gp100/A2) were derived from clone CTL-296 (20), murinized and codon-optimized as described earlier (21). Subsequently, TCR genes were cloned into the pMP71 vector (a kind gift of Prof. Wolfgang Uckert, MDC, Berlin, Germany (22)), in which the TCRα and β chains were separated by an optimized T2A ribosome skipping sequence according to a TCRß-T2A-TCRα format, as described before (23). Murine TCR:CD28 was generated as described in Govers et al., 2014 (24). Shortly, human (h)TCR-Vα was coupled to mouse (m)TCR-Cα and hTCR-Vß to mTCR-Cß (all extracellular domains), and each TCR chain was followed by a proline-lysine (PK) linker, the mCD28 transmembrane, mCD28 intracellular and mCD3ε intracellular domains. Murine OX40, ICOS and 4-1BB intracellular domains were ordered via GeneArt (Life Technologies) and introduced into the TCR:CD28 cassette (replacing the intracellular domain of CD28) via overlap PCR with use of Q5 High Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs). One variant to TCR:ICOS with an amino acid substitution in ICOS (Y181F), named TCR:ICOS-YF, was designed by site directed mutagenesis of Y181F in the mICOS domain to prevent docking and downstream signaling of PI3K, as described before by Gigoux et al. (25). Sequences were obtained and checked using the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems) and the ABI sequence analyzer. All mTCRs used in this study are schematically depicted in **Figures 1a** and **4a**. Primer sequences can be obtained upon request.

Design of human co-stimulatory TCRs

To convert the gp100/A2 mTCR:ICOS into a human format (hTCR:ICOS), we generated the pMP71 vector consisting of gp100/A2 hTCR-VDJß-Cß-T2A-hTCR-VJα-Cα (extracellular domains), and in which each TCR chain was followed by a proline-lysine (PK) linker, the

hCD28 transmembrane, the hICOS intracellular and hCD3ε intracellular domains. This

hTCR:ICOS construct demonstrated poor surface expression in human T cells (see

Supplementary Figure 6a). To identify which building blocks (or combinations thereof) and/or

which amino acid boundaries of such building blocks determine functional expression of

TCR:ICOS in human T cells, a panel of 49 variants was designed (all produced by GeneArt),

and tested for surface expression in a stepwise approach. An overview of the different

constructs, including detailed specifics, is provided in **Supplementary Table 1**. In all

transduction experiments, the wt TCR was taken along as a reference. A scheme of the study

design to select and test hTCR:ICOS variants is shown in **Figure 6a**. Following selection of

hTCR:ICOS-RA, in which the mutation R54A was introduced in the hCD3ε domain (**Figure**

6c), this construct was further tested for antigen recognition, sensitivity, cytotoxicity and

performance upon repeated antigen stimulation. To test the applicability of hTCR:ICOS-RA to

other TCR specificities, the gp100/A2 TCR-Vα and Vß domains were exchanged with those

of the TCR directed against NY-ESO1/A2 and against Ropporin-1/A2 (ROPN1, all new

constructs were produced by GeneArt) (26–28). The NY-ESO1 hTCR:ICOS-RA and the

ROPN1 hTCR:ICOS-RA were tested again for surface expression, antigen recognition,

sensitivity and performance upon repeated antigen stimulation.

Retroviral transduction of TCRs into T cells

Mouse T cell transductions were performed as previously described by Pouw and colleagues

(21). Shortly, 293T and Ph-A packaging cells were transfected with pHit60 MLV GAG/POL

and pHit123 ENV helper constructs (29), and the TCR of interest, using calcium phosphate

(Promega Profection Mammalian Transfection system). Mouse splenocytes were isolated,

activated for 24h with 0.5μg/mL Concavalin A (Sigma) and exposed once to virus supernatant

produced by the packaging cells. Human T cell transductions were performed as previously

described by Lamers and colleagues (30). In this case, 293T and Ph-A packaging cells were

transfected with pHit60 MLV GAG/POL and pColtGalV ENV helper constructs (31), and the

TCR of interest, using the procedure described above. Human PBMCs were activated for 48h

using 10 ng/mL soluble anti-CD3 antibody (OKT3, Thermo Fisher Scientific) before being exposed twice to virus supernatant. TCR expression levels were determined using flow cytometric detection of the introduced TCR-Vß, corrected for percentage positivity as observed with mock-transduced T cells from the same donor, and displayed as % positive cells within the CD3+ T cell population. In experiments measuring killing ability of human TCR T cells, a protocol adapted from a Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP) protocol was followed, as described before (32). Shortly, human PBMCs, isolated from buffy coats obtained from Sanquin (Amsterdam, the Netherlands), were activated with 30 ng/mL soluble anti-CD3 (OKT3, Miltenyi Biotec) and 30 ng/mL anti-CD28 (clone 15E8, Miltenyi Biotec), 110 IU/mL hIL15 (Miltenyi Biotec), and 0.1 IU/mL hIL21 (Miltenyi Biotec) in X-vivo 15 medium (Lonza) containing 2% Human Serum for 48h before being exposed twice to virus supernatant.

Adoptive cell therapy

C57BL/6 HHD mice expressing the chimeric A2:K^b molecule (33) were bred at Erasmus MC and were used for adoptive T cell experiments as described previously with minor adaptations (24). Shortly, mice were transplanted with 0.5x10^6 cells of the B16:HHD-YLE clone 18 to 25 days prior to T cell transfer at day 0. TCR T cells (6 to 7.5x10^6 cells) were transferred intravenously, preceded by myeloablation through intraperitoneal injections of busulphan (16.5 µg/kg on days -4 and -3; Sigma) and cyclophosphamide (200 mg/kg on day -2; Sigma). For mock T cells, the same total number of cells was transferred as for wt TCR T cells. Tumor volumes were measured three times per week using a caliper and calculated using the formula 0.4 x (AxB^2), where A represents the largest diameter measured, and B^2 the perpendicular diameter (34). Tumor regression was defined as decreases in tumor volume of at least 30% after T cell transfer, whereas tumor relapse was defined as increases in tumor volume at 3 consecutive measurements after the initial tumor regression. Anti-tumor responses of mice at 115 days post-treatment were categorized as follows: a complete response as 100 % initial tumor regression with tumor remaining non-palpable; partial response as tumor regression followed by a tumor relapse; and non-response no tumor regression. 3-4 mice with regressing

tumors 5 days after T cell transfer were sacrificed, and tumors were used for RNA sequencing

(following snap freezing and storage at -80ºC) as well as flow cytometric phenotyping of TILs

(after making single cell suspensions). Mice were sacrificed when the tumor burden exceeded

1400 mm^3, at which point relapsed tumors were collected. Blood samples were collected from

the tail vein at weekly intervals for 11-16 weeks after T cell transfer and used for flow

cytometric counting and phenotyping of TCR T cells.

Detection of intracellular phosphorylation

Mouse T cells expressing either wt TCR or TCR:ICOS (6x10^4 cells/well) were co-cultured with

the B16:HHD-YLE clone or B16F10 wt (2x10^4 cells/well) in Complete Mouse Medium in a

tissue culture-treated 96-well plate at 37°C. After 2h, cells were fixed and stained and

assessed for pPI3K (as described under 'flow cytometry'). To assess the ability of TCR:ICOS

to phosphorylate a large array of intracellular substrates, we treated wells from a non-tissue

culture 96-well plate that were streptavidin pre-coated (Pierce) with 50µL of 1mg/mL

biotinylated A2:Kb pentamer fused to the gp100 peptide YLEPGPVTA or an irrelevant peptide

(FLYTYIAKV, Proimmune) for 1h at RT, after which wells were washed three times with PBS

+ 0.5% Tween-20 (Sigma). Mouse T cells expressing either gp100/A2 wt TCR, TCR:ICOS or

TCR:ICOS-YF were added to the plates (0.25x10^6 cells/well in 50µL Cytotox medium) for 30

min at 37°C, with frequencies of TCR-expressing T cells after transduction normalized towards

TCR:ICOS T cells using Mock T cells. Following pMHC stimulations, plates were placed on

ice and T cells were harvested and lysed with lysis beads, after which proteins were extracted,

biotinylated and placed on the antibody array, followed by the addition of a Cy3-Streptavidin

dye (GEPA43001, Merck) according to the manufacturer's instructions (antibody array assay

kit KAS02 and T cell Receptor Phospho-Antibody Array PTC188, Fullmoon Biosystems). To

validate the effect of stimulation, one well from each condition was kept separate for flow

cytometric detection of pERK1/2 (see above, and **Supplementary Figure 4b**). Detection of

the Cy3 signal was performed using a Typhoon 5 fluorescent scanner and quantified using

Imagequant TL with normalization according to the running ball background subtraction tool

(Fiji, ImageJ 1.53t). Downstream analysis was performed using R, where median background

of each slide was subtracted from the corresponding experimental values, and replicates (n=5)

were averaged. Finally, the phosphorylation ratio after stimulation was calculated using the

following formula:

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$$\frac{(\text{phosphorylated protein 1})/(\text{unphosphorylated protein 1})}{(\text{phosphorylated protein 2})/(\text{unphosphorylated protein 2})}$$

where 1 refers to the stimulated condition and 2 to the unstimulated condition. The different

phosphorylated proteins were then classified into main T cell signaling pathways based on

literature.

Release of inflammatory cytokines

Mouse T cells expressing either wt TCR, TCR:ICOS or TCR:ICOS-YF (0.75×10^6 cells/well)

were co-cultured with the melanoma cell clone B16:HHD-YLE or B16F10 wt cells (0.25×10^6

cells/well) in Complete Mouse Medium in a tissue culture treated 24-well plate for 16h at 37°C.

Mock T cells served as negative controls. Supernatants were assessed for the presence of

cytokines (according to a customized Luminex assay, R&D Systems Minneapolis USA;

measuring IFN-γ, IL-1ß, IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-10, IL-17, CCL5, CCL20, CXCL2, MMP-8,

MMP-9 and TNF-α). Values outside of range and not extrapolatable were excluded.

Repeated stimulations with tumor cells

Mouse TCR T cells expressing either wt TCR, TCR:ICOS or TCR:ICOS-YF (0.75×10^6) were

co-cultured with B16:HHD-YLE or B16F10 wt cells (0.25×10^6 cells) in Complete Mouse

Medium supplemented with 25 IU/mL IL-2 in a 24-well plate for 16h at 37°C, with frequencies

of TCR-expressing T cells after transduction normalized towards TCR:ICOS T cells using

Mock T cells. After this 1st cycle of exposure, T cells were harvested with 20% of the sample

being exposed to flow cytometric detection of T cell PD1 and TIM3, and 80% of the sample

being again co-cultured for the 2nd cycle. Tumor cells were freshly pre-seeded to ensure an

80% confluency at start of co-culture with T cells. Experiments were performed over 4 cycles

of 16h each. Repeated stimulation with human TCR T cells were performed in a similar

manner, using either BLMgp100 (using gp100/A2 TCR T cells), MM-231-ROPN1 (ROPN1/A2

TCR) or MM-231-NY-ESO-1 (NY-ESO-1/A2 TCR) as target cells, freshly thawed T cells as

effector cells, and co-culturing the cells in T cell medium supplemented with 50 IU/mL IL-2.

Detection of antigen reactivity and sensitivity of TCR T cells

To assess antigen reactivity of murine TCR T cells, T cells expressing either wt TCR, or a co-

stimulatory TCR ($6x10^4$ cells/well) were co-cultured with B16-HHD-YLE in Cytotox medium in

a tissue culture treated 96-well plate for 16h at 37°C. B16wt cells as well as Mock T cells were

used as negative controls. To assess antigen sensitivity, TCR T cells ($6x10^4$ cells/well) were

co-cultured with B16-HHD cells ($2x10^4$ cells/well) pretreated with 10μg/mL mIFN-γ (Sanquin)

24h prior to stimulation and loaded with cognate peptide (gp100 peptide) at increasing

concentrations (from 0.1 nM to 30 μM) in Cytotox medium in a tissue culture treated 96-well

plate for 16h at 37°C. Supernatants were assessed for the presence of mIFN-γ by enzyme-

linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA, Biolegend). To assess antigen reactivity of human TCR

T cells, T cells expressing either wt TCR or TCR:ICOS-RA ($6x10^4$ cells/well) were co-cultured

with BLM-gp100 (gp100/A2 TCR), MM-231-ROPN1 (ROPN1/A2 TCR) or MM-231-NY-ESO1

(NY-ESO1/A2 TCR) in Cytotox medium in a tissue culture treated 96-well plate for 16h at

37°C. BLM wt and MM-231 wt cell lines as well as Mock T cells were used as negative controls.

To assess antigen sensitivity, TCR T cells ($6x10^4$ cells/well) were co-cultured with T2 cells

($2x10^4$ cells/well) loaded with cognate peptide (gp100, NY-ESO-1 or ROPN1 peptide) at

increasing concentrations (from 0.1 nM to 30 μM) in Cytotox medium in a tissue culture treated

96-well plate for 16h at 37°C. Supernatants were assessed for the presence of hIFN-γ by

enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA, Biolegend).

Detection of tumor cell killing ability of human TCR T cells

To assess killing ability of human TCR:ICOS T cells, BLM-gp100-eGFP ($16x10^3$ cells), MM-

231-ROPN1-eGFP ($32x10^3$ cells) or MM-231-NY-ESO1-eGFP ($16x10^3$ cells) were seeded

onto wells from a flat bottom tissue culture treated 96 well plate (Falcon) in T cell medium

supplemented with 50 IU/mL IL-2 overnight to reach a confluency of 50-80%. Human T cells

expressing either wt TCR or hTCR:ICOS directed to either hgp100, NY-ESO1 or ROPN1 were

thawed and co-cultured with their respective targets in an Incucyte SX5 placed inside a 37°C,

5% CO_2 incubator (144×10^3 cells/well targeting gp100, 96×10^3 cells/well targeting ROPN1 and

32×10^3 cells/well targeting NY-ESO1). Pictures of the wells were taken every 4h and GFP-

covered areas were determined. Each experimental condition was run in quintuplicate and

mock transduced T cells were used as negative controls.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis and data display was performed using either GraphPad Prism (GraphPad

Software, La Jolla, CA, version 8.0.2) or Rstudio (version 4.3.1). Statistical tests were

considered significant when $p < 0.05$. Changes in tumor volume or number of T cells over time

were compared according to linear mixed models, with correction for random effect and

elapsed time as a separate variable. All treatments were compared to the wt TCR condition

and the interaction between treatment effect and time elapsed was reported. Survival of

responding mice was compared according to the Cox regression model. Multiple group

comparisons were performed either with 2-way ANOVA or, when the requirements were not

met, Kruskal-Wallis test. Post-hoc testing was performed either with t-tests (if needed with

Dunnets or Holm Sidak's correction) or Dunns' test.

For further description of materials and methods, particularly regarding cell culture, flow

cytometry and RNA transcriptomics, see supplementary text.

Results

TCR:ICOS mediates durable anti-melanoma T cell responses

We designed a panel of co-stimulatory TCRs, all directed against the HLA-A2-restricted melanoma epitope gp100$_{280-288}$. These new TCRα and β chains each consisted of the extracellular human variable and murine constant domains of the TCR, followed by the murine CD28 transmembrane domain, the intracellular domains of either murine CD28, CD134 (OX40), CD137 (4-1BB) or CD278 (ICOS) and the murine CD3ϵ intracellular domain (**Figure 1a**). This new design extended our previous observation that the transmembrane domain of CD28 and, downstream, the intracellular tail of CD3ϵ are beneficial for functional surface expression (24). All co-stimulatory TCRs were successfully transduced in murine T cells, except for the TCR with the 4-1BB domain, which showed very low surface expression, and was therefore excluded from further experiments (**Supplementary Figure 1a**). Co-stimulatory TCRs were next tested for antigen reactivity and sensitivity *in vitro*, which demonstrated antigen-specific IFN-γ production, although for all co-stimulatory TCR T cells with a lower avidity than wild-type (wt) TCR T cells (**Supplementary Figure 1b and c**). Subsequently, these TCRs were assessed in a mouse model for adoptive cell therapy, where B16:HHD-YLE melanoma cells overexpressing the cognate antigen were transplanted into immune competent HHD mice and T cells were transferred once the tumor became palpable (**Figure 1b**). Notably, while treatment with all TCR T cell products provided an initial tumor regression, only treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells provided an unambiguous advantage over wt TCR T cells (**Figure 1c**). In fact, treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells led to significantly increased survival, with 60% of the mice surviving as long as 150 days after T cell transfer compared to 0% for wt TCR and TCR:CD28 and 16% for TCR:OX40 T cells (**Figure 1d**). Moreover, mice treated with TCR:ICOS T cells showed a longer median time to relapse than those treated with other TCR T cells (140 days for TCR:ICOS vs 22, 32 and 35 days for wt TCR, TCR:OX40 and TCR:CD28, respectively, **Figure 1e**). Remarkably, when assessing the extent of response (i.e., complete, partial or non), TCR:ICOS T cell-treated mice had the highest rate of complete

responders (i.e., 43% for TCR:ICOS vs 14, 0 and 0% for TCR:OX40, TCR:CD28 and wt TCR,

Supplementary Figure 1e). The durable anti-tumor response observed for mice treated with

TCR:ICOS T cells was accompanied by a long-term persistence of circulating CD8 T cells

expressing the introduced TCR (median of 119, 77 and 4 TCR+ CD8 T cells per µL blood at

100 days post-treatment for TCR:ICOS, TCR:OX40 and wt TCR, measurement not applicable

for TCR:CD28 due to absence of surviving mouse **Figure 1f**). Of note, the relative long-term

persistence observed with TCR:OX40 T cells was due to a single mouse showing persistent

T cells. The enhanced persistence of TCR:ICOS T cells was also observed for CD4 T cells,

albeit to a lesser extent (**Supplementary Figure 1d**). Taken together, these results

demonstrate a superior *in vivo* durability of anti-melanoma responses, accompanied by a

prolonged persistence of transferred T cells mediated by TCR:ICOS compared to alternative

co-stimulatory TCRs.

Intra-tumoral TCR:ICOS CD8 T cells exhibit a young and co-stimulatory phenotype

Next, we focused on TCR:ICOS and investigated whether its impact on the durability of anti-

tumor responses was associated with the phenotype of circulating and tumor-infiltrating T

cells, specifically their maturation state and expression of co-signaling receptors

(schematically displayed in **Figure 2a**). When analyzing peripheral blood at 21 days post-

treatment, we observed that TCR+ CD8 T cells from both TCR:ICOS and wt TCR T cell-treated

mice were highly differentiated with the majority of cells expressing "antigen-experience"

markers such as 4-1BB and displaying an effector memory phenotype with no clear

differences between the two groups (**Figure 2b**). In addition, we observed low fractions of

circulating TCR+ CD8 T cells co-expressing two or more co-inhibitory receptors and large

fractions co-expressing two or more co-stimulatory receptors, again with no clear differences

between the two treatment conditions. For instance, 16% of TCR:ICOS+ CD8 T cells and 17%

of wt TCR+ CD8 T cells co-expressed PD1 and TIM3, whereas 76% of TCR:ICOS+ and 78%

of wt TCR+ CD8 T cells co-expressed CD40L and 4-1BB. Also, circulating CD4 T cells showed

similar patterns with little to no difference observed between treatment groups (**Supplementary Figure 2a**). In contrast, when analyzing regressing tumors at five days post-treatment, we observed that TCR:ICOS+ CD8 TILs exhibited a higher proportion of cells with a young naïve-like or central memory state and significantly fewer with a more differentiated effector memory state when compared to wt TCR+ CD8 TILs (**Figure 2c,** right panel). Notably, a larger proportion of TCR:ICOS+ CD8 TILs expressed 4-1BB and OX40, either as a single receptor, together or in combination with another co-stimulatory receptor relative to wt TCR+ CD8 TILs (**Figure 2c**, middle panel). With respect to CD4 TILs, treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells was characterized by a significantly higher fraction of cells expressing TIM3 and CTLA4 when compared to treatment with wt TCR+ T cells (**Supplementary Figure 2b)**. Moreover, we noted a higher frequency of co-stimulatory receptor-expressing TCR:ICOS+ CD4 TILs versus wt TCR+ CD4 TILs, even though differences did not reach statistical significance due to low numbers of TCR+ CD4 TILs measured. Collectively, these results show that while TCR:ICOS T cells are more abundant in the blood of mice, phenotypic differences of these cells were restricted to tumors, where TCR:ICOS+ CD8 TILs, but not wt TCR+ CD8 TILs, feature a young and co-stimulatory phenotype.

TCR:ICOS T cells create an inflammatory micro-environment in tumors

Subsequently, we performed transcriptional profiling of tumors following treatment with either TCR:ICOS T cells or wt TCR T cells. Interestingly, genes that were differentially expressed in tumors that regressed after treatment with TCR:ICOS versus wt TCR T cells were to a large extent immune-related (e.g., Cxcl2, Il1b or Ccl5), indicative of a more inflammatory TME in TCR:ICOS-treated mice (**Figure 3a**). In line with this, gene set enrichment analysis highlighted that "inflammatory response" was the most enriched pathway in regressing tumors from TCR:ICOS but not wt TCR T cell-treated mice (**Figure 3b)**. Additionally, the pathways "IL6 JAK STAT signaling" and "TNF-α signaling via NFκB" were also highly enriched in these tumors, further supporting the notion that TCR:ICOS T cells promote an inflammatory TME, at

least in part through activation of the NFκB pathway. In contrast, transcriptomic analysis of

relapsed tumors following treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells showed no significant enrichment

of these or any other gene set compared to wt TCR T cells, indicating that treatment with

TCR:ICOS T cells induced changes early-on, which were lost when tumors relapsed

(**Supplementary Figure 3a**). In extension to this observation, the scores of various immune-

related signatures that associate with either T cell infiltration, antigen presentation or T cell

function (35,36) were reduced in relapsed versus regressed tumors (**Supplementary Figure**

3b). These findings, at the level of gene expression in tumors, suggest that TCR:ICOS T cells

induce a local inflammatory TME.

In vitro stimulated TCR:ICOS T cells activate the NFκB pathway, produce inflammatory

cytokines and are resistant to exhaustion upon repeated tumor cell exposure

To test the mechanism of action of TCR:ICOS T cells toward the observed pro-inflammatory

TME, we performed a series of *in vitro* assays. In preparation for these experiments, we

confirmed activation-dependent phosphorylation of PI3K, a recognized target of ICOS,

following stimulation with the tumor cell clone B16:HHD-YLE (the same as used for *in vivo*

experiments, **Supplementary Figure 4a**). TCR:ICOS CD8 T cells showed significantly higher

levels of phosphorylated PI3K (pPI3K) compared to wt TCR T cells. We also generated a

TCR:ICOS-YF mutant in which the tyrosine of the active domain of ICOS was mutated into a

phenylalanine, thereby abrogating activation of PI3K and its downstream substrates (**Figure**

4a) (25).

In a first series of experiments, T cells expressing either wt TCR, TCR:ICOS or TCR:ICOS-

YF were stimulated with immobilized A2Kb chimeric MHC molecules coupled to the gp100

peptide or an irrelevant peptide for 30 minutes after which cell lysates were exposed to a

kinase microarray. The occurrence of T cell activation was validated by detecting an increase

in the fraction of TCR T cells positive for pERK1/2 (**Supplementary Figures 4b**). Remarkably,

stimulation of TCR:ICOS T cells induced significant phosphorylation of multiple members of

the NFκB family, such as Rel, p100/52, p105/50, IKKα/β, IKKγ and IKBβ, which was not

observed in stimulated wt TCR or TCR:ICOS-YF T cells (**Figure 4b**). Expectedly, the PI3K

pathway, with substrates such as AKT-Y236, is activated as well upon antigen-specific

triggering of TCR:ICOS. The TCR or p38 pathways, harbor individual substrates that are also

differentially phosphorylated when comparing TCR:ICOS to wt TCR T cells, however, when

assessing pathways as a whole not to the same extent as the NFκB pathway. In a second

series of experiments, we have stimulated TCR T cells with either antigen-positive or antigen-

negative B16 tumor cells overnight and measured the secretion of 14 cytokines. We found

that TCR:ICOS T cells produced significantly higher levels of cytokines and chemokines, such

as IL-2, IL-6, CCL5, CXCL2 and TNF-α, in response to antigen-positive cells when compared

to wt TCR T cells (**Figure 4c, Supplementary Figure 4c**). Importantly, this cytokine profile

was not observed in T cells expressing the signaling-deficient TCR:ICOS-YF mutant. Many of

the cytokines with enhanced secretion are direct downstream targets of the NFκB pathway

and play active roles in tissue inflammation (37,38). Moreover, some of these mediators, such

as IL-6, CCL5 and CXCL2, also showed increased gene expression in regressing tumors

following treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells, demonstrating strong concordance between our

in vitro and *in vivo* findings (**Figure 3a and b**). In a third series of experiments, we repeatedly

exposed TCR T cells to fresh antigen-positive or negative melanoma cells and assessed the

co-expression of PD1 and TIM3 as markers of T cell exhaustion. We found that the fraction of

PD1$^+$TIM3$^+$ CD8 T cells over 3 rounds of antigen-specific stimulation was significantly lower

for TCR:ICOS when compared to wt TCR or TCR:ICOS-YF T cells (**Figure 4d** and

Supplementary Figure 4d). Taken together, this series of *in vitro* experiments revealed that

TCR:ICOS preferentially signals through the PI3K-NFκB pathway, leading to the production of

inflammatory cytokines and resulting in enhanced resistance to T cell exhaustion upon

repeated stimulation. A proposed mechanism of action of TCR:ICOS is illustrated in

Supplementary Figure 4e.

Durability of anti-tumor response of T cells depends on ICOS-docking site for PI3K

To provide evidence that the PI3K pathway activation contributed to the *in vivo* efficacy of TCR:ICOS T cells, we compared the performance of TCR:ICOS-YF (the mutant unable to dock PI3K) to TCR:ICOS and wt TCR T cells in the melanoma mouse model (**Figure 5a**). Mice treated with TCR:ICOS T cells exhibited effective and durable antitumor response, whereas mice treated with either TCR:ICOS-YF or wt TCR T cells showed a substantially reduced survival (55, 30 and 20% survival at 150 days, respectively, **Figure 5b**, **5c** and **Supplementary Figure 5a**). In addition, median time to relapse was shorter in TCR:ICOS-YF and wt TCR T cells groups (30 and 26 days), while it was not reached within 150 days in the TCR:ICOS T cell group (**Figure 5d**). Lastly, TCR:ICOS CD8 T cells showed superior persistence in blood compared to TCR:ICOS-YF and wt TCR CD8 T cells (**Figure 5e**), whereas CD4 T cells exhibited lower persistence across all treatment groups (**Supplementary Figure 5b**). These results confirm that TCR:ICOS enhances the durability of anti-melanoma T cell responses through PI3K-dependent signaling.

A single amino acid substitution in the cytosolic tail of the CD3ε domain enables functional expression of human TCR:ICOS in human T cells

In a final set of experiments, we translated our findings to a clinically relevant setting by designing and stringently testing a human TCR:ICOS construct (hTCR:ICOS) for its performance in human T cells. The rationale for these experiments comes from the observation that gene transfer of the gp100/A2 hTCR:ICOS using orthologous human instead of murine sequences for each building block resulted in low surface expression in human T cells (mean ± SEM: 5 ± 1% TCR-Vβ+ cells within CD3+ T cells, n=18) when compared to the murine TCR:ICOS construct (mTCR:ICOS, 17 ±3%, n=24) (**Supplementary Figure 6a and b**). To create a functionally expressed hTCR:ICOS while maintaining its overall format, we

designed a panel of 50 variants to systemically test the impact of individual building blocks (or

combinations thereof) and/or amino acid boundaries of these building blocks on surface

expression in human T cells (**Figure 6a and Supplementary Table 1**). Using a stepwise

approach, we started by exchanging each individual building block of the mTCR:ICOS (i.e.,

the extracellular TCR-C, the CD28 transmembrane, the ICOS intracellular and the CD3ε

intracellular domains) for their human orthologues (**Figure 6b, left panel**). These mTCR:ICOS

variants were introduced into human T cells, and surface expression was compared to the

original mTCR:ICOS and wt TCR (**Figure 6b, middle panel**). While the introduction of human

CD28 or ICOS domains did not impair expression, that of human TCR-C or CD3ε domains led

to a notable lower expression (6 and 12% of TCR+ T cells, respectively, when compared to

18% for mTCR:ICOS). These results were re-assessed by performing the reverse experiment,

where starting from hTCR:ICOS the latter two domains were substituted for their murine

orthologues (**Figure 6b, right panel**). While introduction of the mTCR-C domain in an

otherwise fully human hTCR:ICOS did not rescue the surface expression of hTCR:ICOS,

introduction of the mCD3ε domain instead restored expression to a level comparable to that

of mTCR:ICOS. In the next step, we focused on the five amino acid differences between

human and murine CD3ε and constructed single amino acid substituents in hTCR:ICOS

(**Figure 6c**). Strikingly, substitution of arginine at position 54 with alanine (hTCR:ICOS-

CD3εR54A, in short: hTCR:ICOS-RA; corresponding to construct n°45 in **Supplementary**

Table 1), led to expression levels that exceeded those of mTCR:ICOS and were similar to

those of wt hTCR (35.5% for hTCR:ICOS-RA and wt hTCR vs 17.5% for mTCR:ICOS). In a

last step, we validated the *in vitro* efficacy of this hTCR:ICOS-RA variant, characterizing its

antigen sensitivity, reactivity, tumor killing ability as well as its resistance to T cell exhaustion.

When challenged with titrated amounts of cognate peptide, hTCR:ICOS-RA T cells showed

only slightly higher EC50 values and amplitude regarding IFN-γ production when compared to

wt TCR T cells (**Figure 6d, 2nd panel**). When stimulated with human melanoma cells that

express the hgp100 antigen, hTCR:ICOS-RA T cells produced IFN-γ and effectively killed

tumor cells (**Figure 6d**, **3rd and 4th panel**). Importantly, hTCR:ICOS-RA CD8 T cells showed

significantly lower fractions co-expressing PD1 and TIM3 after repeated antigen stimulation

compared to wt TCR T cells (**Figure 6d**, **5th panel**).

Having established a successful format to gene-engineer human T cells with TCR:ICOS, we

then evaluated whether this format could be extended to other TCR specificities targeting

clinically relevant antigens. To this end, we tested surface expression and *in vitro* performance

of hTCR:ICOS-RA directed against NY-ESO1/HLA-A2 and ROPN1/HLA-A2 (**Figure 6e** and

Figure 6f). The NY-ESO1 TCR is directed against esophageal squamous cell carcinoma 1

antigen and is in an advanced stage of clinical development for synovial sarcoma (26),

whereas the ROPN1 TCR targets Ropporin and is being developed for adoptive T cell therapy

to treat Triple Negative Breast Cancer (TNBC) (27). For both NY-ESO1 and ROPN1

hTCR:ICOS, we demonstrated an R54A substitution-dependent surface expression (**Figure**

6e and f, 1st panels). In addition, functional assays demonstrated that hTCR:ICOS-RA T cells

have a similar antigen sensitivity relative to wt TCR T cells and robustly recognize and kill

tumor cells. Lastly, and relevant to this study, hTCR:ICOS-RA CD8 T cells targeting either NY-

ESO1 or ROPN1 also showed lower levels of T cell exhaustion markers (PD1 and TIM3)

following multiple rounds of repeated antigen stimulation when compared to their wt TCR

counterparts. In short, we found that surface expression of hTCR:ICOS was dependent on a

single amino acid substitution, which preserved antigen sensitivity and recognition as well as

resistance to the induction of T cell exhaustion of TCRs with multiple antigen specificities.

Discussion

Our current study unveils a new TCR format that provides built-in co-stimulation through ICOS

and enables exceptionally prolonged anti-tumor T cell responses in an immune competent

melanoma mouse model. TCR:ICOS T cells show a young and co-stimulatory cell state and

are responsible for an inflammatory TME. These characteristics are recapitulated *in vitro*,

where these T cells signal through the PI3K and NFκB pathways, produce inflammatory

cytokines and do not become exhausted upon repeated tumor cell exposure. These

advantages were shown to be reversed when disrupting ICOS-mediated activation of PI3K.

Surface expression of TCR:ICOS in human T cells strictly requires a specific single amino acid

substitution in the intracellular tail, which does not limit antigen sensitivity nor reactivity, yet

preserves the TCR's ability to limit expression of the immune checkpoints PD1 and TIM3.

Notably, the optimized human 'ICOS cassette' was able to sustain the anti-tumor performance

of human T cells across multiple antigen specificities

TCRs that are genetically coupled to co-stimulatory molecules are conceptually similar to

CARs, where incorporation of a co-stimulatory molecule is standard practice. However,

engineering of TCRs and CARs differs significantly. In fact, TCRs face more stringent

structural constraints due to the complex and step-wise assembly of TCRα and TCRß chains

with CD3 components as well as the requirement for precise binding to peptide:MHC (39–41).

Consequently, most studies so far have relied on alternative concepts, such as TCRs that are

supported by a second chimeric co-stimulatory receptor (42), where improved T cell function

depends on two separate receptors. We designed and tested mouse TCRs with built-in

intracellular domains of either CD28, OX40 or ICOS, using, as a starting point, a chimeric TCR

format with the transmembrane domain of CD28 and the cytosolic domain of CD3ε (24). A

TCR incorporating the 4-1BB molecule did not show surface expression on mouse T cells,

possibly due to the tendency of murine 4-1BB to be expressed as a monomer or due to its

basic amino acid-rich intracellular motif that was shown to be detrimental to surface expression

in other settings (43–45). In fact, 4-1BB has been incorporated successfully into CARs and

chimeric co-receptors, but, as far we are aware, not into TCRs (42,46,47). When mice were

treated with TCR:OX40, TCR:CD28 and wt TCR T cells, they showed initial anti-tumor

responses; however, relapse of tumors ensued within 20 to 35 days, mainly resulting in no or

partial responses at the end of the experiments. In contrast, when mice were treated with

TCR:ICOS T cells, tumor relapses were delayed up to 140 days and over 40% of mice showed

complete responses. This anti-tumor response was accompanied by a significantly enhanced

persistence of TCR:ICOS-expressing CD8 T cells in the blood of mice. These findings are

concordant with those reported for CAR:ICOS T cells (48–51), where these T cells also

showed long-term persistence and a durable anti-tumor effect. Interestingly, although

circulating TCR:ICOS T cells were more abundant than wt TCR T cells, no difference was

found with respect to their phenotype. Within tumors, however, CD8 TILs that expressed

TCR:ICOS exhibited a less differentiated and more co-stimulatory phenotype than CD8 TILs

that expressed wt TCR, with close to half of the former cells harboring a naïve-like or central

memory state and significantly more cells expressing 4-1BB and OX40. This young, yet most

likely antigen-experienced and activated phenotype of TCR:ICOS T cells likely contributes to

the improved T cell persistence and anti-tumor response we observed in our mouse model,

consistent with prior reports linking less differentiated T cells to improved long-term

functionality (52–55). Our current flow cytometry analysis did not distinguish between naïve-

like and stem cell-like T cell subsets, which warrants further investigation (56). Besides, recent

studies have also highlighted the critical role of ICOS signaling in the formation of CD8 resident

memory T cells (CD8 Trm), which are recognized key players for long-term protection against

tumor relapse (57–59). Although we did not specifically stain for Trm markers, it is unlikely that

these cells were present at the time of tumor isolation since Peng and colleagues have shown

that CD8 Trm cells are not present yet five days after T cell transfer, and only begin to emerge

around days 7-8, peaking no earlier than 40 days after adoptive transfer (57). Future studies

could assess whether TCR:ICOS promotes Trm differentiation and investigate the kinetics of

these cells.

Treatment with TCR:ICOS T cells initiated a significant enrichment of inflammation-related

gene sets in regressing tumors, particularly those related to the NFκB pathway. This was

recapitulated *in vitro,* where antigen-stimulated TCR:ICOS T cells, but not wt TCR T cells,

phosphorylated multiple components of the NFκB pathway and produced significantly higher

levels of inflammatory cytokines that are dependent upon NFκB activation, such as CCL5, IL-

2, IL-6 and TNF-α (60–64). These effects were abolished in T cells expressing TCR:ICOS-YF,

a mutant of ICOS that does not dock nor activate PI3K, proving that activation of the NFκB

pathway and production of inflammatory cytokines is PI3K-dependent. Our observations,

particularly the ICOS-mediated increase in TNF-α secretion, extend previous reports (65,66).

Moreover, TNF-α was also shown to up-regulate expression of ICOS-L by antigen presenting

cells, thereby inducing a positive feedback loop, which may further contribute to the durable

responses of TCR:ICOS T cells (67). In contrast, associations between ICOS stimulation and

IL-2, IL-6, CCL5 and CXCL2 secretion were previously less well established (68–74).

Interestingly, CAR:ICOS also mediates increased antigen-specific production of TNF-α, IL-2

and IFN-γ compared to first-generation CARs that lack co-stimulatory molecules (49,50).

CAR:ICOS mediates production of IL-17 as well, a feature not observe with TCR:ICOS. This

discrepancy is somewhat unexpected given that both ICOS and NFκB activation have

previously been linked to Th17 differentiation (37,75–78). One explanation may be that CD4

T cell enrichments have been performed for the generation of CAR:ICOS T cells, but not

TCR:ICOS T cells. An alternative explanation may relate to differences in receptor affinity

and/or signaling since CARs bind antigen with high affinity whereas TCRs bind antigen with

moderate affinity and CARs are coupled to CD3ζ whereas TCRs in this study are coupled to

CD3ε, potentially leading to differential activation of molecules such as LAT and Lck. In

addition to the activation of NFκB and production of inflammatory cytokines, we also observed

that TCR:ICOS provided resistance to PD1 and TIM3 co-expression by T cells upon repeated

stimulation with antigen-positive tumor cells, again depending on PI3K. Importantly, a similar

observation was also made in our mouse model, where we found that mice treated with

TCR:ICOS-YF T cells did not demonstrate durable anti-tumor responses, underscoring the

critical role of PI3K-NFκB signaling in mediating the beneficial effects of TCR:ICOS T cells. It

is noteworthy that while CD28 also activates the PI3K and NFκB pathways, ICOS is reported

to more strongly recruit the p50α regulatory component of PI3K, resulting in greater

downstream Akt phosphorylation (79). This would indicate that the superior performance of

TCR:ICOS may stem from a specific sequence involving PI3K and Akt activation and

culminating in the engagement of NFκB (summarized in **Supplementary Figure 4e**).

Following determination of the therapeutic value of TCR:ICOS and identification of its

mechanism of action, we set out to translate TCR:ICOS to human T cells. Murine TCR:ICOS

(mTCR:ICOS) was expressed on the surface of human T cells, albeit at a low level, yet a fully

murine sequence is clinically undesirable due to its risk of inducing xenoreactivity. However,

the fully humanized orthologue of TCR:ICOS (hTCR:ICOS) was not expressed on the surface

of human T cells. Through systematic testing of 50 constructs, we identified a single amino

acid - arginine at position 54 in the intracellular tail of hCD3ε - as the key barrier to surface

expression of hTCR:ICOS. Replacing this residue with an alanine (as found in the murine

counterpart) completely rescued surface expression of hTCR:ICOS on human T cells. One

possible explanation is that the positively charged arginine in the tail of hCD3ε acts as a

retention signal, preventing hTCR:ICOS from exiting the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and

reaching the plasma membrane. In fact, previous studies have reported that this amino acid

plays an integral role in an ER retention signal to guide and facilitate correct assembly of

TCR/CD3 components in T cells (80,81). The identification of a surface-expressed

hTCR:ICOS-RA variant was critical in translating this new chimeric TCR toward clinical

application. To expand the bandwidth of this new TCR, we also applied the optimized

hTCR:ICOS format to TCRs with other antigen specificities, namely NY-ESO1 and ROPN-1.

Once more, the R54A substitution proved both necessary and sufficient to restore surface

expression of hTCR:ICOS. Functional testing across all three specificities demonstrated that

the optimized hTCR:ICOS did not compromise antigen sensitivity nor T cell effector function.

This was exemplified through peptide titration assays, as well as tumor cell-specific IFN-γ

production and cytotoxicity, all of which were comparable to wt TCR T cells. These

conventional *in vitro* T cell assays have traditionally been used to guide selection of TCRs for

clinical development (82). However, these assays primarily measure immediate effector

function and may not reflect the long-term durability of T cell responses. The repeated

stimulation assay may serve as a valuable complementary *in vitro* tool for evaluating the

sustained functionality of engineered human TCRs. Importantly, the optimized hTCR:ICOS

did confer a clear and significant advantage in terms of resisting T cell exhaustion in this assay

across all TCR specificities.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we introduce a TCR format with built-in ICOS that enhances T cell fitness upon

exposure to antigen. This TCR:ICOS triggers the PI3K-NFκB pathway, drives an inflammatory

tumor milieu, reduces T cell exhaustion, and ultimately leads to enhanced T cell persistence

and long-term tumor clearance. In addition, we have developed an optimized variant of

TCR:ICOS that supports robust functional expression in human T cells while preserving its

therapeutic benefits across multiple TCR specificities. Taken together, the TCR:ICOS format

may constitute a promising platform for adoptive T cell therapy. In fact, preparations are

currently underway for a first-in-human phase 1b trial evaluating TCR:ICOS T cells targeting

the ROPN-1 antigen in patients with TNBC, marking a pivotal step toward clinical translation

and paving the way for next-generation TCR-based immunotherapies.

Declarations:

Ethics approval:

Mice experiments were approved by the Experimental Animal Committee of the Erasmus

MC Cancer Institute and carried out in accordance with institutional and national guidelines.

Consent for publication:

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials:

The datasets used during the current study are available from the corresponding author on

reasonable request.

Competing interests:

Alexandre Marraffa, Cor Berrevoets and Reno Debets report pending patent P136875EP00.

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Authors' Contributions

AM: Conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, visualization,

methodology, writing and editing. **CB:** Conceptualization, data curation, investigation,

methodology. **MM:** Investigation, data curation, methodology. **RW**: Investigation. **DR:**

Investigation. **MvB:** Investigation. **KK:** Investigation. **M.J.W.P:** Investigation, data curation,

methodology. **W.A.D:** Investigation. **AK:** data curation, investigation, methodology. **DH:**

Conceptualization, writing and editing. **R.J.M.A:** funding acquisition, writing and editing. **CS:**

Conceptualization, methodology, supervision, writing and editing. **RD:** Conceptualization,

methodology, resources, supervision, funding acquisition, writing and editing. All authors read

and approved the final manuscript.

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List of abbreviations:

CAR : chimeric antigen receptor

CD: cluster of differentiation

CCL: Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand

CMM : Complete mouse medium

CXCL: Chemokine (C-X-C motif)

DNA : Deoxyribonucleic acid

EC: Extracellular

ER: Endoplasmic reticulum

ELISA: Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay

FDA: Food and drug administration

GFP: Green fluorescent protein

HLA: Human leukocyte antigen

IC: Intracellular

ICOS: Inducible T cell co-stimulator

IFN-γ: Interferon gamma

IL: Interleukin

IKK: IkappaB-kinase

MHC: Major histocompatibility complex

MMP: matrix metalloproteinase

NF-κB : Nuclear factor kappa B

NY-ESO1: New-York esophageal squamous cell carcinoma 1

PBMC: peripheral blood mononuclear cell

PCR: Polymerase chain reaction

PD1: programmed cell death protein 1

PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase

RNA: Ribonucleic acid

ROPN1: Rhophilin associated tail protein 1

RT: Room temperature

TCR: T cell receptor

Th17: T helper 17

TIL: Tumor infiltrating lymphocyte

TIM3: T cell immunoglobulin mucin-3

TM: Transmembrane

TME: Tumor micro-environment

TNBC: Triple negative breast cancer

TNF-α: Tumor necrosis factor alpha

Trm: Tissue resident memory (T cell)

wt: Wildtype

Figure 1

Figure 1. *TCR:ICOS mediates durable anti-melanoma T cell responses.* **(a)** Schematic illustration of the design of murine co-stimulatory TCRs, where extracellular TCR-VαCα and VßCß chains targeting human gp100/A2 were coupled to the murine transmembrane domain of CD28, followed by the murine intracellular domains of either CD28, OX40, ICOS or 4-1BB, and the intracellular domain of CD3ε. **(b)** C57BL/6 HHD mice were transplanted with B16:HHD-YLE cells expressing the HLA-A2-restricted gp100 epitope YLEPGPVTA. Prior to adoptive T cell transfer on day 0, mice received busulfan and cyclophosphamide, after which mice were administered 6×10^6 mock, wt TCR, TCR:CD28, TCR:OX40 or TCR:ICOS T cells. Mice were then monitored for 150 days after T cell transfer for tumor volume, survival and

number of TCR T cells in blood. **(c)** Tumor volume, displayed in mm^3 following T cell transfer

(median+SEM, n=4-6 per group). Mice attaining a tumor volume>1400 mm^3 were sacrificed.

Statistical testing between groups was performed with linear mixed model with elapsed time

as a separate variable and correction for random effect. Significant interactions between time

and treatment on tumor volume is displayed. **(d)** Survival of mice showing initial response

following T cell transfer is plotted as Kaplan-Meier curves. Statistical inter-group comparison

was done according to Cox regression. **(e)** Time to tumor relapse in days following T cell

transfer is plotted (median±SEM, n=4-6). Inter-group comparison was done according to

Kruskal-Wallis testing, with post-hoc Dunn's test. **(f)** Numbers of TCR+ CD8 T cells per µL

blood following T cell transfer are displayed as determined by flow cytometry (median±SEM,

n=4-6). Inter-group comparison was done according to linear mixed model with elapsed time

as a separate variable and correction for random effect. With * = p<0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** =

p<0.001.

Figure 2

a

Figure 2. Intra-tumoral TCR:ICOS CD8 T cells exhibit a young and co-stimulatory phenotype.

(a) Experimental design, in which C57BL/6 HHD mice were transplanted with B16:HHD-YLE

melanoma cells on day -25 and pre-treated with busulfan and cyclophosphamide, after which

mice were administered 7.5×10^6 wt TCR or TCR:ICOS T cells on day 0. Monitoring included

frequency assessment of subsets of TCR+ CD8 T cells in blood (at three weeks after T cell

transfer) and TILs (in regressing tumors at five days after T cell transfer) according to

maturation and co-signaling status as well as transcriptomics of tumors **(b)** Left panel:

heatmap corresponding to phenotype of TCR+ CD8 T cells in blood as determined by flow

cytometry. Co-signaling phenotype of T cells was determined according to the expression of

(combinations of) co-inhibitory (CTLA4, LAG3, PD1, TIM3) or co-stimulatory receptors

(CD40L, 4-1BB, ICOS, OX40). The heatmap displays median expressions of single or multiple

markers, n=3-8 per group. Statistical significance between TCR:ICOS and wt TCR T cells was

assessed according to t-test and is highlighted at left-hand side. Middle panel: TCR:ICOS+

CD8 T cell subsets that show differential frequencies when compared to wt TCR+ CD8 T cells.

Right panel: stacked bars corresponding to maturation phenotype of TCR+ CD8 T cells in

blood as determined by flow cytometry (n=3-8 per group). Maturation status of T cells was

defined as follows: naïve-like T cells, CD62L+CD44-; central memory T cells, CD62L+CD44+;

and effector memory T cells, CD62L-CD44+. Statistical significance between TCR:ICOS and

wt TCR T cells was assessed according to Kruskal-Wallis testing. **(c)** Left and right panels:

heatmap and stacked bars corresponding to phenotype of TCR+ CD8 TILs from regressing

tumors as determined by flow cytometry. Middle panel: TCR:ICOS+ CD8 TIL subsets that

show differential frequencies when compared to wt TCR+ CD8 TILs (n=2-4 per group). With *

= p<0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p<0.001.

Figure 3

Figure 3. *TCR:ICOS T cells create an inflammatory micro-environment in tumors.*

Regressing tumor tissues from mice treated with wt TCR T cells or TCR:ICOS T cells were

isolated on day five for transcriptomic analysis. **(a)** Heatmap displaying all genes with an

absolute log2FC >2, a base mean >50 and an adjusted p-value<0.05 for TCR:ICOS T cells

when compared to wt TCR T cells (n=2 per group). **(b)** Bar graph showing top 20 gene sets

that are differentially enriched following transfer of TCR:ICOS T cells or wt TCR T cells.

Figure 4

Figure 4. *In vitro stimulated TCR:ICOS T cells activate the NFκB pathway, produce inflammatory cytokines and are resistant to exhaustion upon repeated tumor cell exposure.*

(a) Left panel: graphical representation of TCR:ICOS-YF, where the intracellular ICOS domain is mutated at a single site to prevent docking of PI3K and downstream signaling. Right panel: experimental design in which mouse splenocytes that express either TCR:ICOS, TCR:ICOS-YF or wt TCR were interrogated for intracellular signaling, cytokine production and ability to preserve fitness upon repeated antigen stimulation. **(b)** Left panel: heatmap corresponding to fold-change in protein phosphorylation in wt TCR, TCR:ICOS and TCR:ICOS-YF T cells upon stimulation. Mouse T cells were incubated for 30 min at 37°C with pre-coated A2Kb pentamers presenting the cognate epitope, after which cells were lysed and lysates were exposed to a fluorescence-based phosphorylation array covering more than 70 substrates representing T cell signaling. In the heatmap, phosphorylated targets were categorized according to different intracellular pathways. The effect of phosphorylation on a particular pathway is displayed to the left, with red representing an inhibitory and green an activating substrate. Right panel: box plots displaying ratio of phosphorylated substrates associated with different pathways, only taking into account pathway-activating substrates. Comparison between groups was performed using a Kruskal-Wallis, followed by post-hoc Dunn's test. **(c)** Bar graphs displaying cytokine production of TCR T cells following stimulation with tumor cells. T cells were incubated for 16h at 37°C with B16 cells that expressed the cognate epitope, after which supernatants were assayed for the presence of 14 cytokines according to a cytokine bead array. Statistical significance between groups was tested with two-way ANOVAs with Dunnet's multiple comparison test. Only the conditions in which significant differences were observed are displayed here, with the full panel of cytokines being available in **Supplementary Figure 4c. (d)** Average percentages of PD1$^+$TIM3$^+$ TCR+ CD8 T cells following repeated stimulations (±SEM, n=9). Co-culture with B16F10 wt tumor cells not expressing the cognate epitope did not result in changed percentages of this T cell subset and was used to normalize the background expression. Statistical significance between groups was tested with a mixed model analysis, and post-hoc analysis per cycle was performed with Dunnet's multiple comparison test. Statistical significance between TCR:ICOS and wt TCR T cells is depicted

1009   with a star (*), and between TCR:ICOS-YF and wt TCR with a cross (†). With * = p<0.05, ** =

1010   p<0.01, *** = p<0.001.

Figure 5

1011

Figure 5. *Durability of anti-tumor response of T cells depends on ICOS docking site for PI3K.*

(a) TCR:ICOS-YF T cells were studied for their *in vivo* anti-tumor performance. Schematic

illustration of experimental design, in which mice were transplanted with B16:HHD-YLE

melanoma cells and pre-treated with chemotherapy, after which mice were administered

7.5×10^6 wt TCR, TCR:ICOS or TCR:ICOS-YF T cells. Monitoring included tumor growth and

assessment of subsets of TCR+ CD8 T cells in blood. **(b)** Line graph displaying tumor volume

in mm^3 following T cell transfer (median+SEM, n=10-13 per group, pooled from 2 independent

experiments). Statistical testing between groups was performed with linear mixed model with

elapsed time as a separate variable and correction for random effect. Significant interaction

between time and treatment on tumor volume is displayed. **(c)** Survival of mice following initial

response to T cell transfer is plotted as Kaplan-Meier curves. **(d)** Time to tumor relapse in

days following T cell transfer is plotted (median±SEM, n=10-13, pooled from 2 independent

experiments). Inter-group comparison was performed using a Kruskal-Wallis test. **(e)** Number

of TCR+ CD8 T cells per µL blood following T cell transfer is plotted as determined by flow

cytometry (median±SEM, n=10-13, pooled from 2 independent experiments. Statistical testing

between groups was performed with linear mixed model with elapsed time as a separate

variable and correction for random effect. Significant interaction between time and treatment

on T cell number is displayed. With * = $p<0.05$, ** = $p<0.01$, *** = $p<0.001$.

Figure 6

Identifying the format for human TCR:ICOS

1. Critical domains and amino acids according to surface expression

2. Functional performance according to single and repeated stimulation

3. Applicability for different specifities

b

Critical domains according to surface expression

c

Critical amino acids according to surface expression

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Figure 6 continued

Figure 6. *A single amino acid substitution in the cytosolic tail of the CD3ε domain enables functional expression of TCR:ICOS in human T cells.* **(a)** Schematic illustration of the selection and testing strategy of hTCR:ICOS variants. **(b)** Identification of single building blocks that are required for surface expression of mTCR:ICOS. Left panel: cartoon of the first series of mouse (m) / human (h) TCR:ICOS variants, with mouse sequences highlighted by black dots. Right panels: surface expression of m/h TCR:ICOS variants according to % TCR-Vß14 of TCR T cells corrected for expressions of Mock T cells (mean±SEM, n=6). TCR:ICOS variant with red square was used as basis for further experimentation. **(c)** Identification of single amino acids within mCD3ε that are required for surface expression of hTCR:ICOS. Left plot: amino acid

 (aa) alignment between human and mouse CD3ε and overview of all single substituent

mutants made. Right plot: surface expression of hTCR:ICOS with human to mouse CD3ε aa

substitutes according to % TCR-Vß14, after correction for Mock (mean±SEM, n=2-10).

Statistical significance between modified TCR:ICOS variants and hTCR:ICOS was assessed

using a Student's t-test. Again, the TCR:ICOS variant with red square was used as basis for

further experimentation. **(d)** Demonstration of antigen reactivity, sensitivity and resistance

against exhaustion upon repeated stimulation of hTCR:ICOS-RA. 1st plot from the left: bar

graph displaying surface expression of gp100 wt hTCR, hTCR:ICOS, and hTCR:ICOS-RA

according to % TCR-Vß14 after correction for expression on mock T cells (mean±SEM, n=10).

Statistical significance was calculated using a Sidak-Holm's test. 2nd plot: IFN-γ production

following stimulation with T2 cells that were pre-loaded with titrated amounts of human gp100

peptide. TCR T cells were co-cultured with peptide-loaded T2 cells for 16h at 37°C and

supernatants were assayed using an IFN-γ ELISA (mean±SEM, n=4). EC50 values,

mentioned in the plot, were calculated using graphpad prism. 3rd plot: bar graph displaying

IFN-γ production of TCR T cells following stimulation with BLM tumor cells. TCR T cells were

co-cultured with BLM cells that either expressed the human gp100 antigen or not for 16h at

37°C, after which supernatants were assayed by ELISA for IFN-γ (mean±SEM, n=4).

Statistical significance between hTCR:ICOS and wt TCR was accessed by two-way ANOVA.

4th plot: T cells were co-cultured with BLM tumor cells expressing the human gp100 antigen

coupled to eGFP, and viable tumor cells remaining were quantified using Incucyte

(mean±SEM, n=3). 5th plot: T cells were repeatedly stimulated overnight with BLM tumor cells

expressing the human gp100 antigen, with the percentage of TCR+ CD8 T cells co-expressing

PD1 and TIM3 after each cycle being measured by flow cytometry (mean±SEM n=3).

Statistical significance between TCR:ICOS and wt TCR T cells was tested using a two-way

ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc testing. **(e,f)** The hTCR:ICOS format with R54A is extendable

to other TCR specificities, as shown for TCRs specific for NY-ESO1/A2 **(e)** and ROPN1/A2

(f). **(e)** 1st plot from the left: bar graph displaying surface expression of wt TCR and TCR:ICOS

according to % TCR-Vß13.1 after correction for Mock (mean±SEM, n=6-12). Statistical

significance between hTCR:ICOS-RA and wt TCR was assessed according to Sidak-Holm's.

2nd plot: IFN-γ production following stimulation with T2 cells that were pre-loaded with titrated

amounts of peptide (mean±SEM, n=7). 3rd plot: bar graph displaying IFN-γ production

following stimulation with human MM-231-NY-ESO1 cells (mean±SEM, n=3). 4th panel: line

graph displaying killing of MM-231-NY-ESO1 cells by T cells (mean±SEM, n=3). 5th panel:

change in percentage of PD1+, TIM3+ TCR+ CD8 T cells following repeated 24h stimulations

with MM-231-NY-ESO1 cells (mean±SEM, n=5). **(f)** 1st plot: bar graph displaying surface

expression of wt TCR and TCR:ICOS according to % TCR-Vß13.1 after correction for Mock

(mean±SEM, n=4-8). Statistical significance between hTCR:ICOS-RA and wt TCR was

assessed according to Sidak-Holm's. 2nd plot: IFN-γ production following stimulation with T2

cells that were pre-loaded with titrated amounts of peptide (mean±SEM, n=4). 3rd plot: bar

graph displaying IFN-γ production following stimulation with human MM-231-ROPN1 cells

(mean±SEM, n=2-4). 4th panel: line graph displaying killing of MM-231-ROPN1 cells by T cells

(mean±SEM, n=6). 5th panel: change in percentage of PD1+, TIM3+ TCR+ CD8 T cells

following repeated 24h stimulations with MM-231-ROPN1 cells (mean±SEM, n=3). With * =

p<0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p<0.001.

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