Addition of chemotherapy to radiotherapy promotes progenitor-exhausted CD8+ T-cell clonal dominance in head and neck cancer

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Short Title: Chemoradiotherapy promotes progenitor exhausted CD8+ T-cell clonal expansion

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ABSTRACT

Concomitant chemoradiotherapy (CRT) is a standard-of-care for unresectable locally-
advanced head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (LA-SCCHN), but its immune effects,
particularly compared to radiotherapy (RT) alone, remain unclear. Using syngeneic murine
models, we integrated Nr4a3-Tocky reporter analysis with single-cell transcriptomics and T-
cell receptor clonotyping comprehensively to profile intratumoural CD8$^+$ T-cells following
RT/CRT. We show that CRT uniquely drives robust antigen-specific clonal expansion and
biases differentiation toward progenitor (or precursor) exhausted (T$_{PEX}$) phenotypes, while RT
favours terminal exhaustion (T$_{EX}$). Single-cell analyses reveal CRT-induced clonal dominance
within T$_{PEX}$ subsets, suggesting the potential for enhanced immune reinvigoration. In
peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from patients treated with CRT, high levels of
T$_{EX}$ cells were found early and at 3 months post-treatment, with delayed peripheral T$_{PEX}$
expansion at 3 months, indicating phased progenitor recovery. These findings demonstrate
distinct immunological remodelling by CRT versus RT and underscore the critical importance
of treatment timing for optimising combination immunotherapy strategies in LA-SCCHN.

INTRODUCTION

The interplay between tumour immunity and standard-of-care cancer therapeutics has
become a major theme of oncological research. Central to this is the concept of the cancer-
immunity cycle, a dynamic and potentially self-amplifying process through which tumour cell
death fuels antigen release, dendritic cell (DC) activation, and subsequent T-cell priming,
culminating in iterative cytotoxic responses against malignant cells (1). Yet, within the tumour
microenvironment (TME), chronic antigen stimulation and immunosuppressive signals often
derail T-cell differentiation, accelerating the emergence of dysfunctional, exhausted CD8$^+$ T-
cell phenotypes (2). T-cell exhaustion, classically defined by impaired effector function and
upregulation of inhibitory receptors such as PD-1, LAG-3, and TIM-3, represents a major
barrier to durable tumour control (3). This state is generally seen as irreversible, particularly
in the terminally exhausted (T$_{EX}$) subset. However, the less differentiated precursor exhausted
(T$_{PEX}$) population, marked by the transcription factor TCF1, retains proliferative potential and
responsiveness to immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), positioning it as a key target for
therapeutic approaches that seek to reinvigorate anti-tumour immunity (4-6).

While the spotlight in recent years has deservedly fallen on ICIs, an important paradigm shift
has emerged: radiotherapy (RT) and chemoradiotherapy (CRT) – historically viewed as being
immunosuppressive – can also profoundly modulate the immune landscape in an

immunostimulatory fashion. Indeed, clinical successes, such as the PACIFIC trial, illustrate

the potential of RT and CRT to synergise with immunotherapy (7). RT and CRT can trigger

immunogenic cell death (ICD), enhancing tumour antigen availability and inflammatory

cytokine release (8). This process releases damage-associated molecular patterns (e.g., ATP,

HMGB1, calreticulin), which activate both surface and intracellular pattern recognition

receptors (PRRs) expressed by dendritic cells (DCs) and other antigen-presenting cells.

These effects may transform the irradiated tumour into an *in-situ* vaccine capable of priming

systemic, tumour-specific immune responses. Furthermore, recent studies have shown that

CRT reshapes T-cell receptor (TCR) clonality by selectively expanding dominant T-cell clones

associated with tumour specificity in head and neck, cervical, and rectal carcinomas (9-11).

However, the functional consequences of this expansion remain unclear.

The incidence of squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck (SCCHN) is rapidly rising in

the developed world and it ranks as the seventh commonest cancer diagnosis worldwide (12).

Definitive CRT remains standard-of-care for patients with unresected locally-advanced (LA)

disease. Although the addition of cisplatin increases toxicity compared to RT alone, it improves

local control and overall survival (13). The benefit of platin-based CRT is statistically significant

and clinically meaningful, but relatively modest (approximately 6.5%) and only clearly apparent

with meta-analysis of data from >100 trials (13). Attempts at de-escalation, through

replacement of cisplatin with cetuximab, in HPV-associated oropharyngeal cancer have failed

to reduce toxicity and have, instead, shown worse survival outcomes (14, 15), reinforcing the

primacy of CRT as standard-of-care for unresected LA-SCCHN. Nonetheless, de-escalation

strategies are still being investigated in select HPV-positive oropharyngeal cancer cohorts.

For example, the ECOG-ACRIN 3311 trial showed that, in surgically resected intermediate-

risk patients, adjuvant RT could be safely reduced from 60 Gy to 50 Gy without compromising

disease control (16). In parallel, ^{18}F-fluoromisonidazole (FMISO) PET has been shown to

identify hypoxia-negative tumours suitable for RT dose reduction, achieving excellent

outcomes even with de-escalated CRT doses (~30 Gy), supporting its use as a potential

functional biomarker to guide adaptive RT dose and volume reduction (17). Despite these

advances in refining locoregional therapy, overall survival outcomes for patients with LA-

SCCHN have plateaued, highlighting the need for novel strategies that move beyond

optimisation of CRT parameters alone.

One promising avenue has been the integration of ICI with standard treatment backbones.

However, the failure to improve outcomes by combining ICI directly with (C)RT, as evidenced

in multiple phase III trials, such as JAVELIN Head and Neck 100 (18) , KEYNOTE-412 (19),

GORTEC 2017-01 (20), IMvoke010 (21) and COMPARE (22), underscores a critical gap in

our understanding of how standard therapies shape the immune landscape. Preclinical
models have almost exclusively focused on combining ICI with RT alone, failing to
characterise potential differences in immunologic effects of CRT. While CRT is widely used
and clinically effective, its immunomodulatory impact relative to RT, including how it influences
T-cell differentiation trajectories, precursor exhaustion, and clonal dynamics, has largely been
ignored. Notably, antigen persistence during CRT could promote both expansion and
premature exhaustion of TILs, particularly in highly inflammatory environments like SCCHN
(23). Emerging evidence underscores the prognostic and functional relevance of different
CD8$^+$ T-cell exhaustion states in SCCHN. Higher frequencies of polyfunctional CD8+ T_{EX} were
associated with improved overall and recurrence-free survival in one study (24), whereas
another showed that CD8$^+$ T_{PEX} subset enrichment correlated with favourable outcomes (23).
Transcriptional analyses implicate TCR signalling as a key determinant of exhausted T-cell
responsiveness to neoadjuvant immunotherapy in SCCHN (25).

Therefore, we used syngeneic immunocompetent animal models to show that while both RT
and CRT increase CD8$^+$ T-cell infiltration, only CRT depends on these cells for therapeutic
efficacy. We show that CRT drives more focused clonal expansion and effector differentiation
of antigen-engaged CD8$^+$ T-cells, with a preferential shift toward effector memory and T_{PEX},
rather than T_{EX}, states. Translational analyses of patient PBMCs revealed systemic immune
modulation, with CRT associated with stronger T_{EX} accumulation and a delayed rise in putative
T_{PEX} subsets compared with RT. Together, these findings define distinct immunologic
consequences of RT and CRT, inform biomarker development, and provide a roadmap for
rational integration of immunotherapy.

RESULTS

Radiotherapy (RT) and chemoradiotherapy (CRT) both increase CD8$^+$ T-cell infiltration
into tumours, but the therapeutic effect is CD8$^+$ T-cell dependent only with CRT.

Compared to RT, CRT yielded a modest, non-significant improvement in tumour control in
both mEER and MOC1 preclinical models (Fig. 1A, S1A, S2A), in line with the relatively
modest benefits seen with meta-analysis in clinical studies (13). Survival was significantly
prolonged in the mEER model (Fig. 1B), but not in MOC1 tumours (Fig. S2B). In the mEER
model, CD8$^+$ tumour-infiltrating lymphocyte (TIL) dynamics varied over time following RT as
determined by flow cytometry from baseline: numbers declined at day 3 post-RT, consistent
with radiation-induced intratumoural lymphopenia, recovered by day 7 post-RT, and peaked
at day 10 (Fig. 1C). Both RT and CRT increased CD8$^+$ TIL abundance compared to vehicle or

cisplatin-alone controls; however, no significant differences were observed between RT and
CRT at day 10 or day 14 following treatment when quantified by immunohistochemistry (Fig.
1D) and flow cytometry (Fig. 1E). Furthermore, there were no significant differences in the
percentage of PD-1^{hi} expressing CD8⁺ T-cells between RT and CRT treatment groups (Fig.
1F).

To assess the function of CD8$^+$ T-cells, we performed depletion studies under RT and CRT
conditions. In the mEER model, RT-mediated tumour control was CD8$^+$ T-cell-independent
(Fig. 1G, Fig. S1B), whereas CRT (cisplatin + RT) showed CD8$^+$ T-cell-dependence, as
depletion significantly decreased tumour control (Fig. 1H, Fig. S1B, Fig. S3). These findings
indicate a mechanistic role for CD8$^+$ T-cells in CRT response in this model. In the MOC1
model, which exhibits higher baseline CD8$^+$ T-cell infiltration, depletion affected neither RT nor
CRT (Fig. S2D-E). Subsequent experiments focused on the mEER model, where CRT
conferred a modest survival benefit [in line with the clinical meta-analysis (13)], to investigate
how addition of cisplatin to RT modulates CD8$^+$ T-cell function in this setting.

CRT reduces the proportion of persistently engaged CD8$^+$ TILs compared to RT.

Immunoprofiling via flow cytometry of mEER tumours showed that RT and CRT broadly
enhanced lymphocyte activation, proliferation, and cytotoxicity, with CRT exerting the stronger
effect overall (Fig. S4). Both treatments increased CD44 expression (Fig. S4A) and expanded
granzyme B$^+$/perforin$^+$ cytotoxic populations (Fig. S4B) across CD8$^+$ T-cell, NK, and NKT
subsets. CRT significantly increased Ki67$^+$ proliferating CD8$^+$ T and NK cells (Fig. S4C), as
well as T-bet$^+$ (Fig. S4D) expression in Tconv and CD8$^+$ T-cells. Effector memory (Fig. S4E)
and PD-1$^+$/TIM-3$^+$ checkpoint-positive (Fig. S4F) CD8$^+$ T-cells were also increased by both
treatments.

As cisplatin-based CRT was CD8$^+$ T-cell-dependent, whereas RT alone was not, we next
asked whether CRT differentially affects the quality or kinetics of T-cell antigen engagement
(Fig. 2A). To address this, we employed the Nr4a3-Tocky ("Timer of cell kinetics and activity"
reporter system) (26-28). This system utilises a Fluorescent Timer (FT) protein that undergoes
a spontaneous, time-dependent shift in Timer fluorescence following TCR-mediated induction
of Nr4a3, a TCR downstream nuclear receptor gene. The FT protein is initially expressed as
an immature blue fluorophore, which matures into a stable red fluorophore with a half-life of
approximately 4 hours (27). Consequently, newly antigen engaged T-cells express blue
fluorescence ("new"), persistently engaged T-cells express both blue and red ("persistent"),
and cells in which TCR signalling has ceased ("arrested") express red fluorescence only.

These dynamics are quantified using the 'Timer Angle', a trigonometric transformation where
0° (blue only) represents the onset of activation, 45° (blue and red) indicates sustained
persistent signaling, and 90° (red only) identifies the cessation of TCR engagement.
Additionally, the overall fluorescence intensity provides a qualitative measure of cumulative
TCR signal strength.

To evaluate treatment-induced remodeling of the immune landscape, UMAP analysis was
performed on concatenated CD8$^+$ TIL data from all treatment groups (Fig. 2B). Both
treatments increased the abundance of antigen-engaged, activated (CD44^{hi} CD69^{hi} CD25^{hi})
and immune checkpoint-expressing (PD-1^{hi} TIM-3^{hi}) CD8$^+$ TILs compared to vehicle or
cisplatin alone (Fig. 2C-F). This change was reflected in a significant increase in the frequency
of cluster 4 (Fig. 2C), which was predominantly composed of cells exhibiting high Timer
Intensity and 'persistent' TCR signal (Fig. 2D). Conversely, there was a corresponding
decrease in the frequency of clusters 2 and 5 (Fig. 2C), which were dominated by a profile of
timer-negative status, low activation and low immune checkpoint expression (Fig. 2D-F).

Focusing on the comparison between RT and CRT, a notable difference emerged within
cluster 3. CRT-treated tumours exhibited a significant decrease in this cluster (Fig. 2C), which
was defined by a "persistent-arrested" antigen engagement profile – characterised by
sustained TCR signalling – despite displaying activation and immune checkpoint marker
expression comparable to cluster 4 (Fig. 2D-F). Overall, CRT did not enhance overall antigen
engagement compared to RT but, instead, specifically reduced the proportion of "persistent-
arrested" (PAt) CD8$^+$ TILs relative to vehicle controls (Fig. 2G). This subset may represent
terminally exhausted cells, secondary to continuous antigen engagement (3, 29, 30).

Interestingly, addition of anti-PD-1 antibody (αPD-1) had no effect with RT alone (Fig. S5A),
while there was a modest, but statistically non-significant, improvement in tumour control with
αPD-1 in CRT-treated mice (Fig. S5B). These findings suggest differential impacts of RT and
CRT on T cell exhaustion, motivating further interrogation of the transcriptional and phenotypic
states of antigen-engaged TILs using single-cell approaches.

CRT increases antigen-engaged TILs with effector memory (T$_{EM}$) relative to naïve
phenotype (T$_N$), when compared to RT alone.

To investigate the impact of CRT on T-cell phenotypes in more detail, we combined the Nr4a3-
Tocky system with single-cell transcriptomic and protein profiling, using AbSeq, and TCR
sequencing (Fig. 3A). Tumours and tumour-draining lymph nodes (TDLNs) were harvested

from mice treated with vehicle, RT, or CRT, and cells were analysed by UMAP clustering

based on AbSeq expression profiles (Table S3). Within the tumour, TILs were dominated by

effector memory (T_{EM}) phenotype (CD62L$^-$ CD44$^+$), whereas T-cells from TDLNs were

primarily naïve (T_N; CD62L$^+$) and central memory (T_{CM}; CD62L$^+$, CD44$^+$) (Fig. 3B-E).

Within TILs, following both RT and CRT, there was increased expression of activation markers

(CD69, CD38), co-stimulatory receptors (CD278 [ICOS], CD137 [4-1BB]) and markers of

inhibition/exhaustion (CD223 [LAG3], CD366 [TIM-3]), TIGIT and NKG2A-C-E) compared to

vehicle. There was also a reduction in the average expression of the activation/Treg marker,

CD25 compared to vehicle (Fig. 3F). Again, focusing particularly on differences with the

addition of chemotherapy to RT, compared to RT alone, CRT showed increased KLRG1,

CD278 (ICOS), CD28 and CD244a expression and reduced CD27 and CD38 expression. This

profile is consistent with chemotherapy enhancing the induction of T_{EM} relative to naïve T-

cells, compared to RT alone.

Persistently-engaged T-cells express higher levels of multiple inhibitory checkpoint

molecules consistent with continual antigen engagement driving T-cells towards

exhaustion.

To assess the temporal dynamics of antigen engagement across treatment groups, we

mapped Tocky-defined populations ("persistent" [pers], "arrested" [arr], and "timer-negative"

[neg]) onto the UMAP landscape (Fig. 3G). Untreated tumours (Tum_Veh) exhibited sparse

antigen-engaged T cells, with a predominance of timer-negative cells. In contrast, both RT

and CRT markedly induced a striking predominance of antigen-engaged TILs within the TME.

This expansion was most pronounced following CRT, which demonstrated a dense and

cohesive accumulation of "persistent" (pers) T-cells (purple in Fig. 3G), indicative of sustained

TCR signalling.

Examination of marker expression across Tocky populations showed that "persistent" T-cells

expressed markedly higher levels of multiple immune checkpoint markers: CD279 (PD-1),

CD233 (LAG-3), CD366 (TIM-3) and TIGIT, and the exhaustion-associated markers, CD244a

and NKG2A-C-E, compared with other Tocky loci (Fig. 3H). This profile is consistent with

continual antigen engagement driving T-cells towards an exhausted phenotype (3). In

contrast, "timer-negative" T-cells demonstrated relatively higher expression of CD62L, CD103,

CD27 and CD28, indicative of a less antigen-experienced or memory-associated state (Fig.

3H). Interestingly, while the "arrested" Tocky population displayed intermediate levels of

immune checkpoints (e.g. PD-1, LAG-3, TIM-3), they reached a positive peak in CD69

expression and a negative peak in CD27. Furthermore, the inclusion of KLRG1-high cells
within the arrested population suggests that these cells sustain enhanced cytotoxic potential
(Fig. 3H). These dynamics suggest that T-cells with historical antigen engagement undergo
an active remodelling phase at the Arrested stage, leaving the terminal exhaustion state
observed in persistently stimulated cells.

While the single-cell transcriptomic analysis demonstrates increased overall antigen
engagement following CRT, the persistent-arrested (PAt) subset defined by Nr4a3-Tocky
dynamics cannot be directly identified within the scRNA-seq dataset (Fig. 3G). However, flow
cytometry using the Tocky reporter revealed that CRT reduced the proportion of PAt cells
compared with RT alone (Fig. 2G). Together, these findings indicate that CRT is associated
with increased overall T-cell antigen engagement while reducing the accumulation of more
exhausted PAt cells, relative to RT alone.

CRT leads to more focused, clonally expanded CD8$^+$ T-cell populations with an effector
profile.

Clonal expansion occurred almost exclusively within tumours treated with RT and CRT, with
CRT leading to greater clonal expansion than RT alone (Fig. 4A-D). Interestingly,
hyperexpanded clones were made up of only three paired TCR α/β CDR3 sequences, that
occurred exclusively in T-cells from tumours treated with CRT, highlighting striking clonal
dominance (Fig. 4B). Following downsampling to the minimum clonotype count for
comparability, consistently lower diversity in TILs from CRT- versus RT-treated tumours was
still found by various indices (Fig 4E). For reference, Shannon and Simpson indices combine
clonotype richness and evenness, Chao1 and ACE indices estimate unseen diversity and the
Inverse Pielou index was used to assess clonal skewing (31). Hence, the TCR repertoire in
the CRT group was less even than RT and more clonal/skewed towards dominant clones.
With increasing clonal expansion, a progressive predominance of CD8$^+$ over CD4$^+$ T-cells was
observed, with hyperexpansion occurring exclusively within the CD8$^+$ compartment (Fig. 4F).

Hence, CRT reshaped the TCR repertoire of TILs and altered the expression profile of
hyperexpanded CD8$^+$ T-cells. In all singleton clones across treatment conditions, there was a
predominance of naïve or early memory (CD44^{lo}, CD62L^{hi}, CD27^{hi}, CD28^{hi}) and/or tissue-
resident T-cells (CD103^{hi}) (Fig. 4G). When the expression profile of the hyperexpanded clones
(seen only with CRT) was examined, relatively higher expression of the activation marker
CD44 was observed, with relatively lower multiple immune-checkpoint /inhibitory markers –
CD279 (PD-1), CD223 (LAG-3), TIGIT and CD38, compared to the other clonal subgroups

(Fig. 4G). These findings suggest that CRT-induced hyperexpanded CD8$^+$ T-cells
predominately acquire an effector-like, rather than exhausted, phenotype.

CRT leads to greater clonal expansion of antigen-engaged CD8$^+$ T-cells than RT.

Correlation of TCR-seq data with the Tocky profile revealed that CRT induced greater clonal
expansion of antigen-engaged tumour-infiltrating CD8$^+$ T cells ("persistent" and "arrested")
compared to RT, whereas vehicle-treated tumours showed minimal clonal expansion (Fig. 5A–
B). In contrast, TILs lacking evidence of antigen engagement at the time of analysis ("timer-
negative") demonstrated limited clonal expansion across treatment groups.

Given that Timer fluorescence reflects real-time TCR signalling dynamics, the enrichment of
expanded clonotypes within the "persistent" compartment in CRT-treated tumours (Fig. 5B)
suggests that a discrete subset of clones is either undergoing sustained proliferative
expansion driven by continuous antigen stimulation or, alternatively, that once expanded,
these clones preferentially occupy and remain within the persistently engaged niche.

Despite treatment-matched sampling, we observed limited clonal overlap between tumour and
TDLN compartments (Fig. S6). Together with the apparent confinement of expanded
clonotypes to defined Tocky signalling stages (Fig. 5B, S7), this supports a model in which
CRT promotes spatially restricted, antigen-dependent clonal expansion within the TME.

Clonal CD8$^+$ TILs treated with CRT show relative acquisition of a less exhausted
phenotype as they progress from "persistent" to "arrested".

To capture broader antigen-driven activity, the expression profile of specific clonal populations
(frequency ≥5) was studied in relation to their Tocky profile in different samples. Firstly, clonal
"persistent" CD8$^+$ TILs were compared between tumours treated with RT and CRT; CD8$^+$ TILs
from CRT-treated tumours showed increased expression of activation and co-stimulation
markers (CD44, CD28 and CD154 [CD40L]), the residency marker CD103, and antigen-
experienced/ exhaustion markers (CD244a, PD-1, CD366 [TIM-3], NKG2A-C-E), as compared
to RT-treated tumours (Fig. 5C). Overall, this suggests that continuously antigen-engaged
CD8$^+$ TILs shift towards a more activated, tissue-resident, and partially exhausted phenotype
following CRT, rather than RT.

Next, all clonal CD8$^+$ TILs with a frequency ≥5 from CRT-treated tumours were examined by
Tocky profile; these were "persistent" versus "arrested", as there were no sufficiently expanded

cells in the "new" or "timer negative" subsets (Fig. 5D). Here again, consistent with the model

of chronic antigen stimulation driving exhaustion, persistently antigen-engaged CD8$^+$ TILs

exhibited reduced activation (CD44) and increased expression of multiple immune

checkpoints, CD279 (PD-1), CD223 (LAG-3), CD366 (TIM-3) and TIGIT, compared to

historically antigen-engaged, but now "arrested", cells. Moreover, a small percentage of

"persistent" cells showed elevated levels of the terminal differentiation marker KLRG1

compared to "arrested". Collectively, these findings suggest that progression along the Tocky

trajectory from "persistent" to "arrested", rather than sustained antigen re-engagement to

maintain the "persistent" state, may mitigate T-cell exhaustion. Of note, this analysis could not

be performed for TILs from RT-treated tumours, as there were no "arrested" clonal (frequency

≥5) CD8$^+$ TILs present in this subset, only "persistent" cells.

Clonal CD4$^+$ TILs, with a frequency ≥5, were only present in tumours treated with CRT and

not RT (Fig. 5E). This is consistent with a model in which CD4$^+$ T-cells support enhanced

clonal expansion of CD8$^+$ TILs following CRT more effectively than after RT alone. Similarities

were observed in the expression profiles of "persistent" and "arrested" clonal CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$

TILs; for example, "persistent" CD4$^+$ TILs also exhibited higher expression of

inhibitory/exhaustion-associated markers such as LAG3 and KLRG1, as well as activation

markers CD25 and CD137 (4-1BB), compared to their "arrested" counterparts (Fig 5D-E).

These are consistent with "persistent" cells representing a more chronically stimulated and

potentially exhausted state in both CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ TILs.

CRT compared to RT increases the proportion and clonal expansion of precursor

exhausted (T$_{PEX}$), relative to terminally exhausted (T$_{EX}$), CD8+ TILs in the arrested phase.

To define treatment-induced changes in T-cell states, sorted single T-cells were subjected to

UMAP clustering based on their global transcriptomic profiles. Due to inadequate cell numbers

and integrity, scRNAseq data was only available for "arrested" (arr) and "timer negative" (neg)

samples, which nevertheless reflect either end of the Timer expression trajectory. UMAP

clustering initially identified 11 transcriptionally distinct T-cell clusters. Based on shared

lineage markers, characteristic gene expression of T$_{PEX}$ and T$_{EX}$ states in the published

literature (4, 6, 32), and proximity in low-dimensional space, closely related clusters were

consolidated into 9 annotated T-cell subsets.

As shown in Fig. 6A-B, naïve CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T-cells were identified by high expression of

CD62L (*Sell*). Classical CD8$^+$ T$_{PEX}$ cells were characterized by elevated TCF1 (*Tcf7*),

intermediate PD-1 (*Pdcd1*), and low TIM-3 (*Havcr2*) and CD62L (*Sell*), indicative of antigen

experience with preserved progenitor features (4, 6, 32). CD8$^+$ T$_{EX}$ cells expressed low TCF1,

but high TOX, PD-1, LAG-3, and TIM-3, with interestingly maintained Granzyme B (*Gzmb*)

and perforin (*Prf1*) expression expression. CD8$^+$ cytotoxic ("cyto") cells exhibited high

expression of granzymes (*Gzma, Gzmb*) and perforin (*Prf1*), not falling into the T$_{PEX}$ or T$_{EX}$

phenotype. Two distinct FOXP3-enriched Treg-like subsets were identified: Treg1, displaying

an effector/suppressive phenotype (high PD-1, CTLA-4, ICOS, IL2RB and ID2), and Treg2,

with a more naïve/central-memory profile (high CD62L and IL7R). Both states correspond to

previously described functional Treg phenotypes documented in regulatory T-cell

heterogeneity studies (33, 34).

Consistent with AbSeq profiling, TILs were enriched for antigen-experienced populations,

including CD8$^+$ T$_{PEX}$, CD8$^+$ T$_{EX}$, and Treg1 (Fig. 6C), whereas TDLNs were dominated by naïve

CD8$^+$ T-cells and Treg2 (Fig. 6D). Within the arrested TILs compartment, both RT and CRT

increased the frequency of CD8$^+$ T$_{EX}$ compared to vehicle, with RT inducing a larger increase.

Conversely, CRT preferentially expanded CD8$^+$ T$_{PEX}$ compared to RT (Fig. 6C). In the timer-

negative compartment, both RT and CRT similarly enhanced the proportion of T$_{PEX \, and}$ T$_{EX}$

compared to vehicle. These findings suggest that, in cells with a history of antigen

engagement, CRT skews differentiation toward progenitor-like states, while RT promotes

more terminal T-cell exhaustion.

To explore transcriptional clonal dynamics, we integrated paired TCR VDJ and scRNA-seq

profiles, mapping clonotypes onto UMAP-defined subsets (Fig. 6E). In total, 78.2%

(1,410/1,803) of arrested and 81.8% (1,084/1,325) of timer-negative T-cells were clonotyped.

Clonal expansion occurred mainly in "arrested" TILs rather than T-cells from TDLNs (Fig. S8).

As shown in Fig. 6F, large and hyperexpanded clones were exclusively observed in CRT-

treated TILs, predominantly within CD8$^+$ T$_{PEX}$ and, to a lesser extent, CD8$^+$ T$_{EX}$ and Treg1

subsets. Notably, the majority of hyperexpanded clones resided in the T$_{PEX}$ population,

whereas RT-induced expansion was restricted to smaller clones within T$_{EX}$ clusters (Fig. 6G).

Thus, CRT promotes robust clonal expansion of T$_{PEX}$ cells, while RT favours expansion of

terminally exhausted subsets. However, the presence of clonally expanded Treg1 population

may contribute to an inhibitory TME, that limits the functional reinvigoration of CD8$^+$ T-cells

with anti-PD-1 (Fig. S5), despite CRT-induced expansion of T$_{PEX}$ populations.

Overall, compared to vehicle, CRT reduced the proportion of T$_{EX}$ CD8$^+$ TILs and increased

T$_{PEX}$ populations, whereas RT drove the opposite trend. These results, supported by lineage

and clonotype mapping, indicate that CRT preferentially maintains and/or expands progenitor-

exhausted states, potentially preserving anti-tumour functionality compared to RT alone.

Enhanced T-cell activation and altered exhaustion dynamics after CRT versus RT in human PBMCs

To provide proof-of-concept translational validation of CRT's impact on the T-cell exhaustion trajectory versus RT, we analysed a small exploratory cohort of patients with LA-SCCHN receiving definitive RT (n=4) or CRT (n=8) as part of the INOVATE study (ISRCTN32335415). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were collected from patients receiving RT or CRT at baseline, week 3 of RT (RTW3), and 3 months post-treatment (RTFU), and analysed by flow cytometry. Over time, there was a trend toward a reduction in $CD4^+$ Tconv and an increase in $CD8^+$ T-cell frequencies related to $CD45^+$ population, more pronounced in CRT than RT (Fig. 7A). At the 3-month follow-up, only CRT induced a significant fold change in $CD8^+$ T-cells relative to baseline (Fig. 7B). CRT was also associated with increased Granzyme B^+ $CD8^+$ T-cells and $CD56^+$ NK-like $CD4^+$ Tconv (35-37) at follow-up, indicative of enhanced cytotoxic activity (Fig. 7C). In parallel, proliferating $Ki67^+$ Treg were significantly reduced after CRT but not RT (Fig. 7D), while PD-1 expression on both $CD4^+$ Tconv and $CD8^+$ T-cells was increased after CRT (Fig. 7E). Examination of exhaustion marker trajectories revealed that both RT and CRT showed trends toward increasing putative T_{EX} $CD8^+$ T-cells (TOX^+ $TCF-1^-$ $PD-1^{hi}$) (38-40) during treatment (Fig. 7F). Notably, a significant increase in putative T_{PEX} cells ($TCF-1^+$ TOX^- $PD-1^{int}$) (5, 40, 41) emerged only after CRT at the 3-month follow-up (Fig. 7F). Hence, even with this limited number of patients, these data revealed longitudinal differences between RT and CRT in peripheral T-cell subset composition, cytotoxic activity, and exhaustion trajectories that mirror the data generated in the mouse model.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates that chemoradiotherapy (CRT) reshapes the intratumoural T-cell immunological landscape more favourably than radiotherapy (RT) alone in a relevant SCCHN tumour model (Fig S9). Functional $CD8^+$ T-cell depletion experiments confirmed that tumour control under CRT, but not RT, depends on $CD8^+$ T-cells, establishing their essential role in mediating CRT efficacy. Using the Nr4a3-Tocky reporter system combined with single-cell and clonotype analyses, we show that CRT enhances antigen engagement, promotes robust clonal expansion of $CD8^+$ tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs), and biases differentiation toward a progenitor exhausted (T_{PEX}), rather than terminally exhausted (T_{EX}), fate. These immunological effects may be driven by the additive benefits of chemotherapy-induced immunogenic cell death and RT-mediated antigen release, which collectively broaden tumour antigen availability.

Both RT and CRT increased TIL activation and immune checkpoint expression; however, CRT
induced a more clonally-focused CD8$^+$ T-cell repertoire, including hyperexpanded clones,
made up of only three paired TCR α/β CDR3 sequences (Fig. 4B), not observed with RT.
These dominant clonotypes exhibited an effector-like phenotype with high CD44 and lower
expression of inhibitory receptors (PD-1, LAG-3, TIGIT, CD38), suggesting functional
persistence rather than terminal exhaustion. In contrast, RT-driven expansion was limited and
enriched in T_{EX} subsets, a population associated with poor reinvigoration capacity. These
observations are consistent with prior studies implicating T_{PEX} cells as key mediators of
durable antitumour immunity and checkpoint blockade responsiveness (4, 6, 32).

Single-cell transcriptomics confirmed distinct T_{EX} and T_{PEX} states within TILs and revealed
treatment-specific patterns. CRT enriched for T_{PEX} cells characterised by high *Tcf7*,
intermediate *Pdcd1*, and low *Havcr2* expression, while RT promoted T_{EX} accumulation.
Integration of clonotype and phenotype mapping revealed that large-to-hyperexpanded clones
were restricted to CRT-treated tumours, primarily within T_{PEX} clusters, whereas RT-induced
clonal expansion was sparse and largely confined to T_{EX} cells. These findings suggest that
CRT not only broadens antigen engagement but also sustains clonal persistence in a less
exhausted state, which may support combination immunotherapy. However, CRT clonally
expanded Treg1, a Treg-like subset, with a suppressive transcriptional profile characterised
by high PD-1, CTLA-4, ICOS, IL2RB, and ID2 expression which could counterbalance effector
gains by limiting the functional reinvigoration of CD8$^+$ T-cells. This may explain the limited
clinical benefit of PD-1 blockade in this setting (consistent with our pre-clinical model data
shown in Fig. S5), highlighting the need for additional combination strategies targeting
regulatory populations such as anti-CD25 therapy. Interestingly, no shared clonotypes were
detected between TDLNs and tumours, possibly due to limited sequencing depth, pooled
sampling across animals, or the timing of tissue collection. However, shared clonotypes along
the Tocky trajectory within TILs support antigen engagement as a driving force for clonal
expansion within tumours.

From a translational perspective, these findings underscore the immunomodulatory potential
of CRT beyond local tumour control. By preserving a pool of progenitor-like CD8$^+$ T-cells and
limiting terminal exhaustion, CRT may create a TME more able to contribute to systemic
immune surveillance and amenable to reinvigoration by ICIs. Human PBMC analyses
revealed that CRT induced persistently high putative T_{EX} CD8$^+$ T-cells during treatment (week
3) and at 3 months post-treatment, while a significant increase in putative T_{PEX} cells emerged
only at the later 3-month timepoint, and this was seen with CRT treatment only. This delayed
T_{PEX} expansion may represent a recovery phase critical for effective antitumor immunity and

responsiveness to ICIs. Concurrently, CRT was associated with increased cytotoxic potential,

including higher Granzyme B$^+$ CD8$^+$ T-cells and CD56$^+$ Tconv, as well as reduced proliferating

Tregs, suggesting a shift toward a more active, systemic anti-tumour immune milieu. These

data suggest that CRT modulates systemic lymphocyte immunity more favourably than RT

during and after treatment. Importantly, these observations are supported by our group's prior

TCR sequencing work, which demonstrated that CRT promotes maintenance and expansion

of pre-existing peripheral T-cell clonotypes associated with treatment response (9). However,

as our analyses were performed in peripheral blood rather than tumour tissue, they fail to

capture fully the intratumoral immune dynamics observed in our preclinical mouse models.

The early and persistent dominance of systemic T$_{EX}$ cells may also limit effective reinvigoration

of T$_{PEX}$ cells by PD-1-targeted therapies. These findings align with clinical trial data showing

disappointing outcomes when ICIs are given concurrently with CRT in unresected LA-SCCHN

(18-20). Our results highlight the importance of carefully timing ICI relative to CRT to capitalise

on the potential window of progenitor T-cell expansion and improve therapeutic synergy.

Limitations of this study include modest single-cell RNA sequencing depth, which restricted

the resolution of low-abundance transcripts and trajectory analysis. The exclusive analysis of

sorted T-cells prevented broader immune cell interactions within the TME from being captured.

Additionally, pooled tumour and TDLN samples from multiple mice may have masked

individual-level clonal overlaps. The small number of patients in the translational cohort is also

a limitation of this work. Future studies with longitudinal tumour sampling – both in preclinical

models and from patients – together with deeper sequencing and paired tumour-TDLN

analyses, could better clarify the dynamics of priming, trafficking, and differentiation in this

setting.

Future clinical strategies should consider sequencing and biomarker-driven timing of

immunotherapy. Rational combinatorial treatment strategies, that move beyond immune

checkpoint inhibition (ICI) alone with CRT, could include Treg depletion (e.g. anti-CD25

antibodies) (42), targeting immunosuppressive myeloid populations (43), or radio-sensitising

agents that enhance immunogenic cell death to further amplify antigen release and CD8$^+$ T-

cell priming (44). Such approaches may provide the additional immune support required to

translate CRT-ICI synergy into meaningful clinical benefit.

In conclusion, our data demonstrate that the benefit of adding chemotherapy to radiotherapy

extends beyond direct radiosensitisation of tumour cells. CRT remodels the TIL compartment

by expanding antigen-engaged CD8$^+$ T-cells, promoting clonal dominance, and sustaining

progenitor-like states linked to durable antitumour immunity. These mechanistic insights into

the T_{PEX}/T_{EX} exhaustion trajectory provide a rationale for optimising the timing of CRT-based

immunotherapy regimens in SCCHN, with future work focused on refining combination

strategies that overcome residual immunosuppressive barriers.

METHODS

Mouse models of head and neck cancer

All procedures involving animals were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee at The

Institute of Cancer Research in accordance with National Home Office Regulations under the

Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986. Wild-type or Nr4a3-Tocky C57BL/6 female mice (8-

14 weeks) were housed under specific pathogen-free conditions with ad libitum food and

water. The HPV-positive syngeneic mouse SCCHN mEER cell line was a gift from Dr Paola

Vermeer (Sanford Research, USA) and HPV-negative C57BL/6 carcinogen-induced mouse

oral cancer cell line MOC1 (45) were kindly provided by Ravindra Uppaluri (Dana-Farber

Cancer Institute). Cells were cultured in complete DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with heat-

inactivated 5/10% FBS, 1% L-glutamine and 0.5% penicillin-streptomycin. 1×10^6 mEER cells

or 4×10^6 MOC1 cells were injected subcutaneously into the right flank under isoflurane

anaesthesia. Tumour and weight measurements were taken twice weekly using calipers by

an independent animal technician. Tumour volume (mm^3) was calculated as length $\times$ width $\times$

height $\times$ 0.5236. For all studies, mice were randomised prior to treatment initiation for

comparable tumour volumes between cohorts. Euthanasia was performed via cervical neck

dislocation upon reaching humane endpoints, which included a maximum tumour diameter of

15 mm, $\geq$18% loss of body weight from peak weight, or clinical signs of distress.

In vivo **treatments**

In vivo treatments were commenced at 14-18 days post-implantation for mEER or 28-35 days

for MOC1, when tumour volumes reached approximately 30-60 mm^3. For radiotherapy (RT),

mice were anaesthetized with ketamine/xylazine and positioned prone under lead shielding

with a 16 mm aperture over the tumour. mEER tumours received 8 Gy $\times$ 3 fractions and MOC1

tumours 6 Gy $\times$ 3 fractions on alternate days using an AGO 250 kV X-ray unit (dose rate:

1.62 Gy/min). Dosimetry was verified using a calibrated Farmer Chamber and Unidos-E

Dosimeter (both PTW).

For chemoradiotherapy (CRT), cisplatin (7 mg/kg) was administered intraperitoneally 1 h

before each RT fraction. Where indicated, immune checkpoint blockade was delivered via

intraperitoneal anti–PD-1 (200 µg, clone RMP1-14) or isotype control twice weekly for up to

six doses. CD8$^+$ T-cell depletion was performed using anti-CD8α antibody (loading dose

400 µg, maintenance 200 µg twice weekly) or isotype control. Cisplatin (7 mg/kg) was

administered by i.p. injection one hour prior to RT (if delivered). Where indicated, anti-PD-1

(200 µg, clone: RMP1-14, BioXCell) or rat IgG2a isotype control (clone: 2A3, BioXCell) were

administered by i.p. injection twice-weekly for up to six doses. CD8$^+$ T-cell depletion was

performed using an anti-CD8α antibody (loading dose 400 µg, maintenance 200 µg twice

weekly; clone: 2.43, BioXCell) or rat IgG2b isotype control (clone: 1-2, BioXCell) for up to 10

doses. Confirmation of *in vivo* CD8$^+$ T-cell depletion using this regimen is outlined in Fig. S3.

Histopathology

Mouse specimens were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (Sigma-Aldrich, HT501128) for

24 hours at room temperature, after which they were transferred to PBS at 4˚C. Paraffin

embedding of fixed material and immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining was performed by the

ICR Histopathology Core Facility. Anti-CD8α (Abcam, clone: EPR21769) was used with heat

induced epitope retrieval using Agilent Target Retrieval solution pH9 and Agilent rabbit

EnVision reagent as the detection system. Slides were scanned and imaged using

Hamamatsu Nanozoomer (Hamamatsu Photonics). Positive cell detection analysis on IHC

slides was performed using QuPath v0.5.1.

Flow cytometry analysis

Harvested mouse tumours were dissociated mechanically using scissors and enzymatically

digested in PBS containing 0.5 mg/mL collagenase type 76 I-S (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.4 mg/mL

Dispase II protease (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.2 mg/mL DNase I (Roche) and 4% Trypsin. Following

digestion, samples were passed through a 70 µm cell strainer and washed with FACS buffer

(PBS/2% FBS/5 mM EDTA). Lymph nodes were made into a single-cell suspension by

passage through a 70 µm cell strainer. For some experiments, mice were bled 10-20 µL from

the tail vein, and red blood cell lysis was performed by incubation in ACK lysis buffer (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) for 2 min. Human cryopreserved PBMCs were thawed using CTL Anti-

Aggregate Wash Supplement (Cellular Technology Limited) according to the manufacturer's

protocol. Samples were centrifuged at 300 g for 5 min at 4°C, washed and resuspended in

FACS buffer for Fc blocking and staining. Cells were incubated 4 °C for 10 min with anti-

mouse (BD Pharmingen) or anti-human CD16/CD32 (BD Pharmingen) prior to surface

staining, 4 °C for 30 min. Dead cells were excluded by using the Fixable Viability Dye eFluor

780 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the complete list of antibodies used for staining in this

study is provided in Table S1-S2. Intracellular staining was performed using the
Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (Thermo Fisher Scientific) as per
manufacturer's protocol. All samples were acquired on a BD FACSymphony A5 Cell Analyser.
Flow cytometry data was analysed using the FlowJo software (v10) and Tocky timer data was
analysed using the "TockyAnalysis" package in R (v3.6.3). Gating strategies for different
immune cell populations are detailed in Supplementary information (Fig. S10-S13).

Single-cell RNA/TCR/Abseq profiling

Tumours and TDLNs from mEER tumour-bearing Nr4a3-Tocky mice were collected 10 days
following the final dose of RT. Mice (n=12 per treatment group) received vehicle, RT, or CRT
on day 14 post-tumour inoculation; one wild-type mouse was included for gating control.
Tumours and TDLN were processed to form single-cell suspensions and pooled by treatment
group and tissue type, generating six pooled samples. For tumour samples, samples were
filtered and enriched for CD45$^+$ cells with mouse CD45 (TIL) microbeads (Milentyi Biotec)
according to manufacturer's protocol with LS columns on the QuadroMACS magnet (Milentyi
Biotec). Following this, cells were stained with AbSeq oligonucleotide-conjugated antibodies
(Table S3) and sample tags for cellular indexing of transcriptomes and epitopes by sequencing
(CITE-seq). Following flow cytometry staining, live TCRβ$^+$ cells were sorted into four Tocky-
defined populations ("new," "persistent," "arrested," and "timer-negative") using a BD
FACSymphony S6 cell sorter, sorting strategies as detailed in Fig. S14. Sorted populations
were processed on the BD Rhapsody system for single-cell capture, cDNA synthesis, and
library preparation following the manufacturer's protocol. Libraries for whole-transcriptome
analysis (WTA), AbSeq, Sample Tags, and TCR sequencing were prepared and sequenced
on Illumina NovaSeq platforms. Additive results from three sequencing runs (repeated due to
technical issues), resulted in RNA libraries sequenced to a mean depth of 8,016 reads and
2,644 molecules per cell; AbSeq libraries reached a mean of 8,552 reads and 3,098 molecules
per cell; and TCR libraries achieved a mean of 2,396 reads and 6.35 molecules per cell. Raw
data was aligned and pre-processed using the BD Rhapsody pipeline and further filtered to
retain cells with ≥10 detected proteins, ≥500 AbSeq unique molecular identifiers (UMIs), and
mitochondrial content <20%. After quality control, at least 3,600 cells were retained in each of
the "persistent", "arrested", and "timer-negative" populations. In contrast, relatively few "new"
Tocky cells (~200) passed QC, which limits the interpretability of analyses within this subset.
Downstream analyses were performed in R (v4.3.3).

Bulk RNA and TCR sequencing

Mouse tumours were harvested 14 days after the last radiation dose and snap frozen on dry ice. Tumour tissue was homogenised in 1 mL of Buffer RLT Plus (Qiagen) with 10 µL β-mercaptoethanol (Gibco) within CK28 hard tissue homogenising 2 mL tubes (Precellys) using the Precellys Evolution Homogeniser. RNA was extracted tumours using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit with QIAshredder (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's protocol. Library preparation and sequencing were performed by Genewiz, Germany. Library preparation was strand-specific with polyA selection, with 2×150bp sequencing at 20 million paired-end reads per sample performed on an Illumina NovaSeq. Salmon quant v1.10.1 (46) was used for transcript-level quantification against the GRCm39 mouse reference (Ensembl release 103). Transcript-level abundance estimates were aggregated to gene-level using tximport v1.34 R package (47). Differential gene expression analysis was performed using DESeq2 (48) (pseudogenes were excluded and only genes with more than 10 reads in at least 5 samples were kept in the analysis). Cell type signature genes were obtained from single-cell RNA sequencing data from oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma patients (49) and signature scores were calculated using the GSVA package (v2.0.4) (50) applied to counts normalised using variance stabilising transformation. Gene set enrichment analysis was performed using the clusterProfiler package (v4.14.4) (51).

Human studies

Peripheral blood was collected from patients with LA-SCCHN treated with definitive RT (n=4) or CRT (n=8) as part of the INOVATE study (Investigation of Novel Plasma Human Papilloma Virus DNA Assay for Treatment Response Estimation in Head and Neck Cancer, ISRCTN32335415). All patients were aged ≥18 years with newly diagnosed HPV p16-positive T1-T2/N1-3 or T3-T4/N0-3 squamous cell carcinoma of the oropharynx undergoing radical treatment with RT or CRT. Samples were collected at baseline, week 3 of RT (RTW3), and at 3 months post-treatment (RTFU); one patient in the RT cohort had a follow-up collection at 6 weeks due to scheduling constraints. PBMCs were isolated using a density gradient medium (Lymphoprep, STEMCELL Technologies) and stored in liquid nitrogen until analysis.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 10. Data are presented as means ± SEM and are derived from single or pooled results of two to three independent experiments. Area under the curve (AUC) was used to compare tumour growth between

groups. Survival differences were assessed using the log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Parametric tests were applied only to data with normal distribution, confirmed via the Shapiro–Wilk test. For comparisons between two groups, either a two-tailed unpaired t-test or Mann–Whitney U test, or Wilcoxon signed-rank test (for fold change comparisons) was used, depending on data type and normality. For comparisons among multiple groups, either one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test or the Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction was used, as appropriate. Significant outliers were excluded using the ROUT test (Q=1%). A *p*-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated will be deposited in a publicly available repository upon acceptance of the manuscript for publication.

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MATERIALS & CORRESPONDENCE

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.CWH., A.A.M., K.J.H., and A.R. contributed to the conception and design of the research as well as in writing the manuscript. C.CWH., A.R., E.C.P., V.R., L.C.H., M.G., E.S.A., S.F., I.D., A.B., J.N.K., H.B., C.M., M.P. performed the experiments and acquired data. A.P. provided bioinformatic analysis. C.CWH., A.R., E.C.P., A.P. and M.O. contributed to the analysis and interpretation of data. J.Y.L., P.N., H.N and S.B. contributed to the collection and

supply of clinical samples. M.O. provided the supply of Nr4a3-Tocky mice and Tocky data
analysis bioinformatic pipelines. A.A.M. and K.J.H. provided funding for the project. A.A.M.,
K.J.H., and M.O. are the guarantors and joint senior authors of this work. All authors read and
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COMPETING INTEREST

The authors declare no relevant competing interests.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Fig. 1: Both radiotherapy (RT) and chemoradiotherapy (CRT) increase CD8$^+$ T-cell
 infiltration into tumours, but therapy is only CD8$^+$ T-cell dependent in CRT.
Experiments performed in the mEER model. **A.** Tumour growth curves across indicated
treatment conditions. **B.** Survival curves across indicated treatment conditions (A-B: Vehicle
n=11, Cisplatin n=11, RT + vehicle n=11, CRT n=12; 2 independent experiments). **C.** Absolute
change of CD8$^+$ T-cell counts/mg tumour vs average of timematched controls across indicated
timepoints post-RT as measured by flow cytometry (RT d3 n = 9, RT d7 n = 15, RT d10 n =
17, RT d14 n = 6; 6 independent experiments of 2 consecutive timepoints). **D.** CD8$^+$ T-cells/
mm^2 tumour at 14 days post-RT by immunohistochemistry, necrotic regions excluded,
quantified by QuPath v. 0.3.0. (Vehicle n=13, RT, n=16, CRT n=11; 3 independent
experiments). **E.** CD8$^+$ T-cell count/ mg of tumour by flow cytometry (Vehicle n=10, Cisplatin
n=11, RT n=10, CRT n=11; 2 independent experiments). **F.** Percentage of PD-1^{hi} CD8$^+$ T-cells
by flow cytometry (Vehicle n=11, Cisplatin n=12, RT n=11, CRT n=12; 2 independent
experiments). **G-H:** Tumour growth curves of αCD8 depletion experiments, with mice receiving
either RT **(G)** or CRT **(H)** (Vehicle + isotype n=6, RT + isotype n=6, RT + αCD8 n = 5, CRT +
isotype n = 6, CRT + αCD8 n = 6; data from 1 experiment). Results are means ± SEM and *n*
denotes mice per group. Parametric statistics were only applied to normally distributed data
(Shapiro-Wilk test). P-values shown were determined by the log-rank (Mantel–Cox) (B),
Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test (C-E), Ordinary one-way ANOVA
with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (F) and Two-tailed Unpaired t test (H).
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Fig. 2: T-cell dynamics reveals differences in tumour T-cell populations between RT and
CRT, with a reduced percentage increase in persistently engaged CD8$^+$ T-cells in CRT
versus RT.
A. Schematic of the treatment timeline in Nr4a3-Tocky mEER tumour-bearing mice. *Created*
with Biorender.com. **B-F:** UMAP analysis of CD8$^+$ tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs),
results concatenated from 30 mice (Vehicle n=7, Cisplatin n=8, RT + vehicle n=7, CRT n=8;
1 experiment). **(B)** UMAP plot showing distribution of clusters 1–8 across treatment conditions.
(C) Selected clusters 2, 3, 4 and 5 showing significant differences between treatment groups
(Vehicle n=7, Cisplatin n=8, RT + vehicle n=7, CRT n=8). **(D)** Timer fluorescence patterns
within clusters 2, 3, 4 and 5. Cluster 3 is defined by a persistent-arrested (PAt) Tocky profile
with high activation and immune checkpoint expression. **(E)** Heatmap overlays of Tocky
"angle" (antigen engagement), "intensity" (TCR signalling strength). **(F)** Histograms illustrating
marker expression by cluster. **G.** Percentage change in PAt CD8$^+$ T-cells (% ΔPAt) in RT +
vehicle and CRT groups versus the average of vehicle group (RT + vehicle n=11, CRT n=12;

2 independent experiments). Results are means ± SEM and *n* denotes mice per group.

Parametric statistics were only applied to normally distributed data (Shapiro-Wilk test). P-

values shown were determined by Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons test (E: cluster 2-3), Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test

(E: cluster 4-5) and Two-tailed Unpaired t test (G). Significant outliers were removed via ROUT

test (Q = 1%). All data are representative of two independent experiments.

Fig. 3: CRT increases antigen-engaged TILs with effector memory over naïve phenotype

compared to RT; persistently engaged T-cells show higher inhibitory checkpoint

expression linked to exhaustion.

A. Experimental schema: Single-cell analysis was performed on tumour-infiltrating

lymphocytes (TILs) from tumours (Tum) or TDLN harvested from mEER-bearing Nr4a3-Tocky

mice treated with vehicle (Veh), RT or CRT. Cells were sorted according to Tocky antigen-

engagement profile prior to integrated single-cell analyses (Vehicle n=12, RT n=12, CRT

n=12; 1 experiment). **B-H:** Cells were subject to UMAP clustering based on Abseq expression

profile. **(B)** UMAP by sample tag. **(C)** Cell annotation of T-cell subtype: CD4, CD8, DN (double

negative) and DP (double positive). **(D)** Functional T-cell subtype annotation based on

expression markers: T_N (naïve, CD62L$^+$), T_{CM} (central memory, CD62L$^+$, CD44$^+$), T_{EM} (effector

memory, CD62L$^-$ CD44$^+$). **(E)** Heatmap of selected Abseq marker expression overlaid on

UMAP. **(F)** Dot plot of Abseq marker expression in TILs by treatment. **(G)** Distribution of Tocky

populations: "persistent" (pers), "arrested" (arr) and "timer negative" (neg) within the UMAP

space. **(H)** Dot plots of Abseq marker expression across different Tocky populations in TILs.

Fig. 4: CRT leads to more focused, expanded CD8+ T-cell populations with an effector

profile than RT.

Single-cell TCR sequencing was performed on sorted tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs)

from tumours (Tum) or TDLN harvested from mEER-bearing mice treated with vehicle (Veh),

RT or CRT (Vehicle n=12, RT n=12, CRT n=12, 1 experiment). **A.** Distribution of T-cell clonal

expansion within UMAP space, categorised by clone frequency within the total TCR repertoire:

hyperexpanded (>20 and ≤100), large (>5 and ≤20), medium (>2 and ≤5), small (>1 and ≤2)

and single (>0 and ≤1). Cells without information on paired TCR α (alpha) and β (beta) chain

CDR3 (Complementarity-Determining Region 3) sequence information are denoted by "NA".

B. Three CDR3 sequences which were hyperexpanded. **C.** Distribution of categories of clonal

expansion within UMAP space by sample type and treatment group. **D.** Categories of clonal

expansion by sample type and treatment group by proportion of cells **E.** Clonal diversity

dotplots comparing various diversity indices between Tum_RT and Tum_CRT: Shannon;

Inverse (Inv) Simpson; Chao1 (Chao) Abundance-based Coverage Estimator (ACE) and Inv

Pielou. **F.** Proportions of T-cell type (CD4+, CD8+, double negative [DN], double positive [DP])

by categories of clonal expansion. **G.** Abseq expression marker profile across different clonal

expansion categories.

Fig. 5: CRT leads to greater clonal expansion of antigen-engaged T-cells than RT, and

clonal CD8 TILs treated with CRT show relative acquisition of a less exhausted

phenotype on transition from persistent ("pers"), to historical, T-cell engagement

("arr").

Single-cell analysis was performed on sorted tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) from

tumours (Tum) or TDLN harvested from mEER-bearing mice treated with vehicle (Veh), RT or

CRT (Vehicle n=12, RT n=12, CRT n=12, 1 experiment). **A.** Distribution of Tocky populations

within UMAP space according to categories of clonal expansion: "new", "persistent" (pers),

"arrested" (arr) and "timer negative" (neg). **B.** Proportions of cells undergoing clonal expansion

by Tocky population. **C-E:** Abseq marker expression profile of various TILs subsets: **(C)** Clonal

($\geq$ 5) and "persistent" CD8$^+$ TILs by treatment type, **(D)** Clonal ($\geq$ 5) CD8$^+$ TILs from mice

treated with CRT (Tum_CRT) by Tocky population and **(E)** Clonal ($\geq$ 5) CD4$^+$ TILs treated with

CRT (Tum_CRT) by Tocky population.

Fig. 6: CRT increases the proportion and clonal expansion of precursor exhausted

(T_{PEX}) to terminally exhausted (T_{EX}) CD8+ TILs in the arrested phase, compared to RT

alone.

Single-cell analysis whereby cells were subject to UMAP clustering based on transcriptomic

profile (Vehicle n=12, RT n=12, CRT n=12, 1 experiment; only available for Tocky arrested

["arr"] and timer negative ["neg"] samples). **A.** Dot plot illustrating relative gene expression

across different T-cell subgroups (each corresponding to a UMAP cluster) and gene

categories. Dot colour intensity represents the average expression level, while dot size

indicates the percentage of cells expressing the gene. **B.** Cell annotation of clusters by T-cell

subgroups. **C-D.** Cell type composition by treatment group and Tocky stage "arr" or "neg" of

tumour samples **(C)** and tumour-draining lymph nodes (TDLN) **(D)**. **E.** Clone size categories

indicated by clone frequency within the total TCR repertoire: hyperexpanded (>20 and $\leq$100),

large (>5 and $\leq$20), medium (>2 and $\leq$5), small (>1 and $\leq$2) and single (>0 and $\leq$1). Cells

without CDR3 sequence information are denoted by "CDR3 NA". **F-G:** Barplots illustrating

percentage of cells within each clone size category by cell type cluster for "arr" Tum_CRT **(F)**

and Tum_RT **(G)**. Abbreviations: Tpex; precursor exhausted T-cells, cyto, cytotoxic; Tex,

terminally exhausted T-cells; Treg, regulatory T-cells; T DN, double negative T-cells; Inhib.

Receptors, inhibitory receptors; Co-stim. activation; co-stimulatory/ activation; eff. molecules;

effector molecules; TFs, transcription factors.

Fig 7: CRT versus RT differentially modulates T-cell subsets and exhaustion

trajectories in human PBMCs.

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were collected from patients with LA-SCCHN

receiving definitive RT (n=4) or CRT (n=8) as part of the INOVATE study (ISRCTN32335415)

at baseline (BL), week 3 of RT (RTW3), and 3 months post-treatment (RTFU; one RT patient

at 6 weeks). Flow cytometry analysis of PBMCs was performed. **A.** Frequencies of T-cell

subsets over time, comparing RT and CRT. **B-F.** Fold changes relative to baseline at RTW3

and RTFU shown as min-to-max box-and-whisker plots with all points displayed, for CD8$^+$ T-

cells **(B)**, Granzyme B$^+$ (GrzmB$^+$) CD8$^+$ T-cells and CD56$^+$ Tconv **(C)**, Ki67$^+$ Tregs **(D)**, PD-1$^+$

expression on CD8$^+$ and Tconv **(E)**, terminally exhausted (T$_{EX}$; TOX$^+$ TCF-1$^-$ PD-1^{hi}) and

progenitor exhausted (T$_{PEX}$; TCF-1$^+$ TOX$^-$ PD-1^{int}) CD8$^+$ T-cell populations **(F)**. Statistical

significance for fold change comparisons in panels B-F was assessed using the Wilcoxon

signed-rank test; $p<0.05$.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7