

## HBsAg-redirected T cells exhibit antiviral activity in HBV-infected human liver chimeric mice

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### Abstract

**Background.** Chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection remains incurable. Although HBsAg-specific chimeric antigen receptor (HBsAg-CAR) T cells have been generated, they have not been tested in animal models with authentic HBV infection. **Methods.** We generated a novel CAR targeting HBsAg and evaluated its ability to recognize HBV+ cell lines and HBsAg particles *in vitro*. *In vivo*, we tested whether human HBsAg-CAR T cells would have efficacy against HBV-infected hepatocytes in human liver chimeric mice. **Results.** HBsAg-CAR T cells recognized HBV-positive cell lines and HBsAg particles *in vitro* as judged by cytokine production. However, HBsAg-CAR T cells did not kill HBV-positive cell lines in cytotoxicity assays. Adoptive transfer of HBsAg-CAR T cells into HBV-infected humanized mice resulted in accumulation within the liver and a significant decrease in plasma HBsAg and HBV-DNA levels compared with control mice. Notably, the fraction of HBV core-positive hepatocytes among total human hepatocytes was greatly reduced after HBsAg-CAR T cell treatment, pointing to noncytotoxic viral clearance. In agreement, changes in surrogate human plasma albumin levels were not significantly different between treatment and control groups. **Conclusions.** HBsAg-CAR T cells have anti-HBV activity in an authentic preclinical HBV infection model. Our results warrant further preclinical exploration of HBsAg-CAR T cells as immunotherapy for HBV.

**Key Words:** adoptive immunotherapy, CAR T cells, hepatitis B virus

### Introduction

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is a global pandemic chronically infecting 300 million people across the world today [1]. In these chronic patients, HBV causes a life-long infection that can lead to liver cirrhosis or cancer in 25% of patients [2]. HBV therapies currently remain limited to reverse transcriptase inhibitors (RTIs) and interferon (IFN)- $\alpha$ . RTIs only suppress HBV-DNA levels without significantly affecting the transcriptional template, covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA) [3], and IFN- $\alpha$  causes significant side effects

with little long-term therapeutic benefit [4]. Thus, new anti-HBV therapies are urgently needed to cure the infection.

During the HBV-specific immune response in acutely resolving patients, infiltrating T cells rapidly purge the liver of HBV [5,6]. In chronic HBV patients, however, HBV-specific T cells are present only in low frequency and/or are anergic [7]. CD8-positive T cells have been shown to be crucial in resolution of acute HBV infection [6]. They are able to clear HBV in both cytolytic and noncytolytic effector functions [8]. The cytokines IFN- $\gamma$  and tumor necrosis factor

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(TNF)- $\alpha$ , released by T cells, are important in driving noncytolytic suppression of virus [9,10]. Both IFN- $\gamma$  and TNF- $\alpha$  can induce degradation of intracellular cccDNA [11], explaining part of this mechanism.

The adoptive transfer of T cells genetically engineered to target hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) on the surface of infected hepatocytes [12] with chimeric antigen receptors (HBsAg-CAR T cells) is an attractive strategy to reconstitute HBV-specific T cell immunity. Indeed, HBsAg-CAR T cells have been shown to eliminate cccDNA from HBV-infected primary hepatocytes *in vitro* [13] and to have transient anti-HBV activity in a transgenic HBV mouse model [14]. The HBV transgenic mouse model harbors an integrated copy of the HBV genome [15], is born with tolerance to viral antigens and lacks cccDNA formation. Thus, transgenic HBV mice can only model viral suppression and not complete T cell-mediated cure. Given that HBV naturally infects only humans and chimpanzees at high levels [16], finding appropriate models to test cure strategies is challenging. With previous testing only in transgenic mice, it remains an open question whether HBsAg-CAR T cells can induce a reduction of HBV levels in a model with authentic infection harboring episomal HBV cccDNA. Here we address this question by evaluating human HBsAg-CAR T cells in HBV-infected human liver chimeric mice. These mice are immunodeficient and repopulated with human hepatocytes [17,18], allowing for spreading infection with HBV entry and cccDNA formation [19]. Thus, this model closely mimics HBV infection and is ideal to test the ability of HBsAg-CAR T cells to eradicate HBV genomes and/or infected hepatocytes.

## Methods

### *Generation of retroviral vectors encoding CARs*

To generate pSFG-HBs-G4m-28-zeta, a scFv encoding the amino acid sequence VH and VL domains of the XTL-19 antibody (mAb 19.79.5) [20] termed HBs was synthesized (IDTDNA, Coralville, IA), and cloned into an SFG retroviral vector using 5' NcoI and 3' BamHI, replacing the antigen binding domain from a second generation CAR vector, IL13R $\alpha$ 2-hIgG1-CD28-zeta CAR [21]. Next, the hIgG1 hinge was replaced with a mini-gene (synthesized by IDTDNA, Coralville, IA) encoding the CH2-CH3 domain from human IgG4 with mutated Fc receptor binding sites [22] (G4m) to generate pSFG-HBs-G4m-28-zeta. To generate pSFG-Ctrl-G4m-28-zeta, the HBs-specific scFv in pSFG-HBs-G4m-28-zeta was replaced by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) cloning with an scFv specific for EGFRvIII [23]. pSFG-HBs-CH3-28-zeta was generated by cloning the HBs-specific scFv into the 5' NcoI and 3' BamHI sites of a pSFG vector

with a CAR.IgG1-CH3.28-zeta expression cassette (gift of Dr. Maksim Mamonkin, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX). Cloning was verified by sequencing (Lone Star Labs). RD114-pseudotyped retroviral particles were generated by transient transfection of 293T cells as previously described [24].

### *Generation of CAR T cells*

To generate CAR T cells, PBMCs were isolated by Lymphoprep (Greiner Bio-One) gradient centrifugation and then stimulated on treated non-tissue-culture 24-well plates, which were pre-coated with OKT3 (CRL-8001, ATCC) and CD28 (BD Bioscience) antibodies. Recombinant human interleukin (IL)-7 and IL-15 (IL-7, 10 ng/mL; IL-15, 5 ng/mL; PeproTech) were added to cultures on day 2. On day 3, OKT3/CD28 stimulated T cells ( $2.5 \times 10^5$  cells/well) were transduced on RetroNectin (Clontech)-coated plates in the presence of IL-7 and IL-15. On day 5 or 6, T cells were transferred into tissue culture plates and subsequently expanded with IL-7 and IL-15. CAR expression was determined 4–5 days post-transduction by FACS analysis using a human IgG (H + L) antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch), and appropriate isotype control.

### *Cell culture assays*

HepG2.2.15 cells (gift of Dr. Betty Slagle, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX) and HepG2 cells (ATCC) were cultured in Dulbecco's Minimal Essential Media supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic (Gibco ThermoFisher). For co-culture assays, 1 million HepG2 or HepG2.2.15 cells were plated; 24 h later, cells were washed, and 2 million T cells were added in one well of a 24-well plate in duplicate without exogenous cytokines. After 24 h, supernatant was removed to assess cytokine release. For cytokine ELISAs, concentrations of INF- $\gamma$  were assessed using manufacturer's protocol (R&D Systems). For IL-2 and TNF- $\alpha$ , cytokine levels were determined using a multiplex assay (Millipore). For cytotoxicity assays, standard chromium release protocols were followed as previously described [21] using the same 2:1 ratio of T cell-to-target-cell, wherein target cells were plated on the same day as T cell addition preventing any HBsAg particle accumulation. Cell culture assays were repeated with at least three donors.

For cytokine assays based on co-culture with HBsAg particles, the HepG2.2.15 supernatant was collected (measured to be 80 ng/mL HBsAg using ELISA protocol described subsequently). Culture media contained 50% HepG2.2.15 supernatant with 1 million CAR T cells. At 24 h, supernatant was collected for use in cytokine ELISA assays and electron microscopy

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