T Cell Antigen Receptor Vaccines for Active Therapy of T Cell Malignancies

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ABSTRACT: T cell lymphoproliferative disorders continue to be serious management problems, and so alternative therapeutic modalities are continuously being explored. One such strategy involves immunotherapy using the T cell receptor (TCR) as a target. Specifically we are attempting to develop a T cell receptor idiotype (TCR-Id) vaccine because the TCR-Id can serve as a tumor-specific antigen. In this article we will briefly review the rationale for TCR-Id vaccines, the preclinical models as developed in our laboratory, and a discussion of our current plans for a vaccine trial in mycosis fungoides.

KEYWORDS: idiotype; T cell receptor; vaccine; T cell malignancies; mycosis fungoides; tumor antigens

INTRODUCTION

T cell lymphoproliferative disorders continue to be a serious management problem. Since only a fraction of patients are cured by standard treatment (radiotherapy and/or chemotherapy), alternative therapeutic modalities are constantly being explored. One such strategy involves immunotherapy using the T cell receptor (TCR) as a target. Specifically we are attempting to develop a T cell receptor idiotype (TCR-Id)¹⁻⁴ vaccine because the TCR-Id can serve as a tumor-specific antigen. The idiotype is a collection of unique determinants found in the hypervariable regions of antigen receptors.

In this article we plan to briefly review the general rationale for TCR-Id vaccines, the preclinical models as developed in our laboratory, and a discussion of our current plans for a vaccine trial in a specific T cell malignancy known as mycosis fungoides (MF).^{5–7}

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MYCOSIS FUNGOIDES/CUTANEOUS T CELL LYMPHOMA

There are a variety of T cell tumors (nodal and cutaneous T cell lymphomas and the T cell leukemias) that could serve as the subject of a TCR-Id vaccine trial. We have chosen a particular cutaneous T cell lymphoma (CTCL) known as mycosis fungoides for our planned vaccine trial.

MF is a prototypical T cell malignancy for development of vaccine therapy since it is the most common of the CTCLs with easy accessibility of tumor tissue by skin or lymph node biopsy. Also, MF has a well-defined natural history with high initial response rates to conventional therapies but with frequent relapses. ^{5–7} There are no reliable alternative therapies for patients with recalcitrant or advanced disease. Patients with generalized thick plaque and/or tumor disease (stage IB-IIB) and patients with regional lymph node disease (stage IVA) are potential candidates to consider for vaccine therapy.

RATIONALE FOR VACCINE THERAPY AGAINST THE TUMOR-SPECIFIC T CELL RECEPTOR

The antigen receptors of T (TCRs) and B (immunoglobulin) cells are unique molecular targets because the formation of their variable regions requires the recombination of multiple V, (D), and J germline segments. The final antigen receptor is further modified from the germline through the addition and deletion of junctional nucleotides in a template-independent manner. In the case of B cells, immunoglobulin can be further modified by somatic mutation. The variable region of the final product contains a unique sequence known as the CDR 3 region.

Most malignancies of B and T lymphocytes represent the transformation and expansion of a single clone, all of which have the same antigen receptor. Therefore, the T cell receptor of the malignant tumor clone could serve as a unique tumor-specific target.

We and others have had extensive experience in testing this hypothesis. Numerous studies have exploited the idiotype on B cell malignancies as a target for therapy in animal models and in human patients. 9–22 Passive therapy with monoclonal antibodies against the tumor idiotype has resulted in a high frequency of, and occasional long-term regression of, B cell lymphomas in humans. 23 Active vaccination with tumor idiotype proteins has led to immune responses in patients against their own B cell tumors. These responses have been associated with an improved clinical outcome. 12

There are several differences between the antigen receptors on T cells (TCRs) and B cells (BCRs) that predict that the TCR would provide an even better target for therapy. In contrast to the BCRs, the TCR does not undergo somatic mutation. ²⁴ This makes it much less likely that T cell tumors would escape from immunotherapy directed against their receptor. Unlike the BCR, there is no secreted form of the TCR, and therefore there is no decoy receptor in the serum of tumor-bearing subjects. Finally, there is evidence that ligands for the TCR have a direct antiproliferative effect on T cell tumors. ²⁵

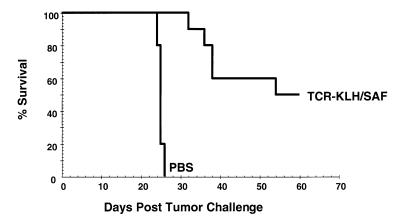


FIGURE 1. TCR vaccines protect mice against C6VL. Tumor challenge protection requires KLH and SAF. PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; SAF, Syntax adjuvant formulation.

ANIMAL MODELS OF TCR-ID VACCINATION

Protein Vaccination

Passive immunotherapy with V β 8.2- (the β chain of the disease-causing T cell clone) specific antibody in a mouse autoimmune disease model (EAE-multiple sclerosis) prevented development of, and suppressed ongoing, disease. ^26-29 In this model, vaccination with this β chain also showed protection. ^30-33 Passive TCR-Id antibody therapy has also been shown to be effective in T cell malignancy, in both a mouse model and a human patient. ^34,35

Based on the above rationale, we developed a TCR-Id protein vaccine in the mouse C6VL thymoma model. It required extensive effort to produce enough tumor-specific TCR protein for vaccination. The problem was overcome by developing a mammalian expression vector encoding both the α and β chain of the TCR linked to a membrane-anchoring region of the decay accelerating factor (DAF, a phosphatidyl inositol–linked surface molecule). 36 After selecting for cells with a high level of TCR expression, the protein could be released from the membrane by a specific phospholipase enzyme.

When mice were vaccinated with TCR protein linked to KLH (carrier protein) and mixed with Syntax adjuvant formulation (SAF), they were protected from challenge with the tumor (Fig. 1). ^{1,2} Strong antibody responses to the specific TCR were generated. However, the evidence suggests that a CD8 T cell response is the mode of protective immunity. Depletion of CD8 T cells in the vaccinated mice abrogated the protective response. Protection against tumor challenge in this model system required both coupling of the TCR to the KLH carrier protein and the use of an immunologic adjuvant.

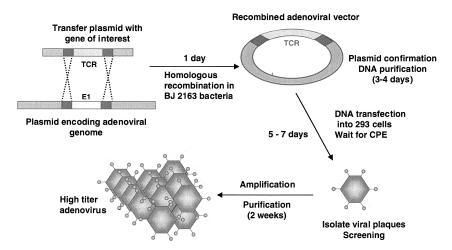


FIGURE 2. Production of recombinant adenovirus.

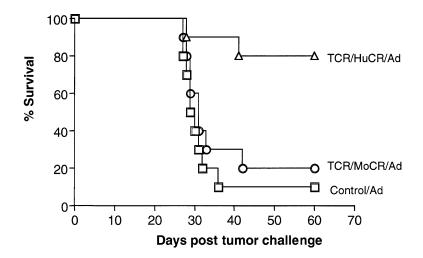


FIGURE 3. Protection against C6VL in mice vaccinated with TCR/HuCR/Ad. Tumor challenge with adenoviral vaccine requires human constant region. (Reprinted by permission from Wong & Levy.³)

Adenovirus Vaccination

The difficulty of making TCR protein for vaccination makes the approach currently inapplicable on a wide scale, as would be necessary for human trials.

We then explored the merit of TCR-Id encoding adenovirus for use in this vaccination model. This involved recombination between a plasmid encoding the TCR genes and a plasmid encoding replication-deficient adenoviral genes. The final ade-

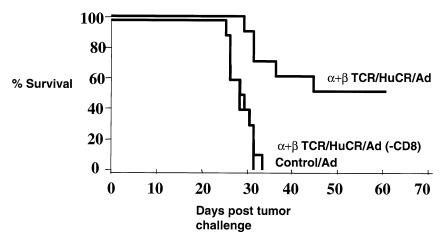


FIGURE 4. Tumor protection is dependent on CD8⁺ cells. (Reprinted by permission from Wong & Levy.³)

novirus vaccine required about four weeks to produce (Fig. 2).³ We were then able to show specific expression of the TCR in adenovirus-infected cells. When the C6VL variable regions were coupled with human constant regions, the viral vaccine showed protection against tumor challenge (Fig. 3).³ We also showed the generation of a specific antibody response to the tumor-specific TCR-Id and abrogation of protection with CD8 depletion (Fig. 4).³ In this model, protection required linkage of the mouse variable regions to human TCR constant regions and was CD8 T cell dependent.

STRATEGIES FOR TCR VACCINATION IN HUMANS

TCR-Id vaccination in humans becomes a more complicated problem because of the variability of usage of the different TCR α and β chains. Previously we have shown that TCR V β usage is nonpreferential in MF. 37 Thus many α and β TCR family-specific primers might be needed for cloning of TCR genes from all human MF samples. Although this approach is feasible, there exists an easier method known as RACE (rapid amplification of cDNA ends). $^{38-40}$ This method involves reverse transcribing the TCR genes using constant region primers and creating a homopolymeric tail on the 5' end so as to avoid usage of multiple family-specific primers for PCR amplification. A further modification of this technique known as SMART PCR (developed and marketed by Clontech Laboratories) 41 is now being used in our laboratory for cloning of whole TCR α and β variable regions. $^{42-44}$ This method also adds a consensus primer to the 5' end of the cDNA. In addition it takes advantage of the touchdown PCR strategy. 45

In our hands, this method yields complete α and β variable regions with fewer cycles of PCR compared to traditional RACE, when performed on MF samples. We are able to obtain monoclonal bands and then, by sequencing, identify our unique

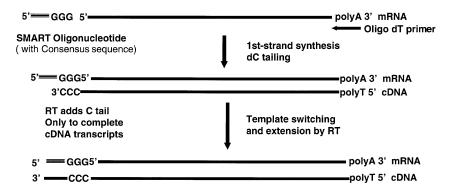


FIGURE 5. Smart PCR cDNA synthesis. The RT reaction contains both the smart primer and an oligo dT primer along with total mRNA.

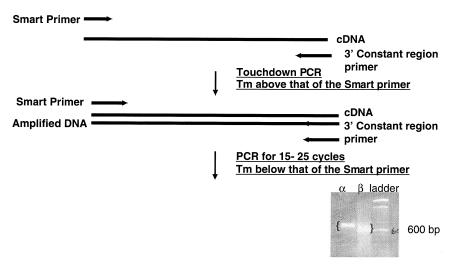


FIGURE 6. Smart PCR. Cloning and sequencing of PCR band.

clonal receptor. This methodology is thus validated for the purpose of cloning TCRs from tumor populations (Figs. 5–8).

Our current plans involve use of a TCR-Id vaccine in MF patients. This phase I/ II study will assess safety and feasibility. In addition, we will measure patient sera for evidence of a TCR-Id-specific immune response. Based on the mouse model we plan to use xenogeneic (mouse) constant regions coupled to human TCR variable regions for the vaccines.

Important questions remain with regard to the specific details of this trial. One of the most crucial issues is to determine the best vector for delivery of a TCR vaccine. Would adjuvant be required in humans with the use of a xenogeneic (mouse) con-

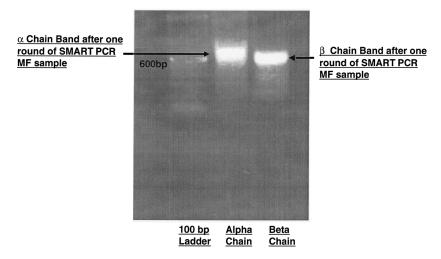


FIGURE 7. Smart PCR gel.

α VARIABLE REGION 5' TO 3' WITH CDR3 REGION AND CONSENSUS FLANKING SEQUENCES				CDR3 LENGTH in amino acids	# OF SEQUENCES
CLONE ATG	TGTGCA	GCAAGCAGATCTAATAATGCAGGCAACATGCTCACC	TTTGGA	12	12
86006 ATG	TGTGCT	CTGACCTTTTCTGGGGCTGGGAGTTACCAACTCACT	TTCGGG	12	1
86003 ATG	TGTGCT	TATAGGAGCTTAAATACCGGCACTGCCAGTAAACTCCAT	TTTGGG	13	i
86012 ATG	TGTGCT	TTCAGGGGAGTGGGCTATGGTCAGAATTTTGTC	TTTGGT	11	i
86025 ATG	TGTGTT	GTGAGTTGGGACACGGGCAGGAGCACTTACT	TTTGGG	11	1
86016 ATG	TGTCGT	CTGAGTGATCAAGGCAACACAGGCAAACTAATC	TTTGGG	11	i
86020 ATG	TGTGCT	GTGGGAACGGAGGAGGAAACAAACTCACC	TTTGGG	10	î
86023 ATG	TGTGCA	GAGGTCGGGTACAATAACAATGACATGCGC	TTTGGA	10	i
86009 ATG	TGTGCT	GTGAACGGTGGCCAGAAGCTGCTC	TTTGGA	8	i

FIGURE 8. Representative alpha-chain sequence showing 12 out of 20 clones with identical sequence.

stant region? What patient populations of MF would be most suitable for pilot studies? Should they receive standard treatment followed by vaccine, or upfront vaccine therapy?

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

S. A. Reddy is a Cure for Lymphoma Foundation Scholar.

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