Cutting Edge: Bortezomib-Treated Tumors Sensitized to NK Cell Apoptosis Paradoxically Acquire Resistance to Antigen-Specific T Cells

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Cutting Edge: Bortezomib-Treated Tumors Sensitized to NK Cell Apoptosis Paradoxically Acquire Resistance to Antigen-Specific T Cells

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Bortezomib augments caspase-8 activity, rendering tumors susceptible to NK cell lysis. We hypothesized this effect would likewise sensitize tumors to Ag-specific CTLs. Instead, bortezomib-treated tumors that acquired sensitivity to NK cells simultaneously became resistant to killing by Ag-specific CTLs. Reduction in CTL killing persisted for days, was not due to changes in tumor expression of MHC class I, and was overcome by pulsing tumors with peptides recognized by tumor-reactive CTLs. Tumor-outgrowth experiments showed tumors grew faster in SCID mice when cocultures of tumor-reactive CTLs and bortezomib-treated tumors were injected compared with untreated tumors (tumor doubling time 3.1 and 10.6 d, respectively; \( p < 0.01 \)), whereas tumors grew slower in mice receiving cocultures of NK cells and bortezomib-treated tumors compared with untreated tumors (11.8 d and 5.0 d, respectively; \( p < 0.01 \)). These findings demonstrate bortezomib-treated tumors sensitized to NK cell apoptosis paradoxically acquire resistance to CTLs as a consequence of bortezomib altering proteasomal processing and presentation of tumor Ags. The Journal of Immunology, 2010, 184: 000–000.

Recently, researchers have explored novel methods to overcome tumor resistance to the apoptotic effects of immune effector cells as an adjunct to cancer immunotherapy (1, 2). A number of anticancer agents including bortezomib and romidepsin have recently been shown to sensitize tumors to death receptor signaling pathways used by both NK cells and T cells to induce tumor apoptosis (3–6). We and others have demonstrated that both human and murine tumors exposed to bortezomib upregulate TRAIL death receptors and have augmented caspase-8 activity, which enhances their susceptibility to NK cell killing via TRAIL, Fas ligand, and perforin granzyme (5, 7–9). Because CTLs also induce tumor apoptosis via these pathways, we hypothesized that bortezomib would likewise sensitize tumors to Ag-specific CTLs, thereby serving as a sensitizing agent to both innate and adaptive cellular immunity.

In this study, we demonstrate exposure of cells to bortezomib simultaneously results in divergent effects on NK cell and T cell antitumor immunity, whereas bortezomib-treated tumors became sensitized to NK cell apoptosis and drug-induced proteasome inhibition altered tumor-Ag presentation, paradoxically reducing tumor-specific T cell effector responses.

Materials and Methods

Cells and reagents

NK cells, melanoma-reactive JKF6 and L2D8 (melanoma Ag recognized by T cells [MART-1]: 26–35/A2 and gp100: 209–217/A2), CD8+ T cell clones, minor histocompatibility Ag, and EBV-specific T cells were generated using described methods (5, 10, 11). The melanoma cell lines 526mel and 624mel (HLA-A2+/gp100+/MART-1+), 938mel and 888mel (HLA-A2+/gp100+/MART-1+), and K562 and T2 cell lines were maintained in RPMI 1640 (Cellgro, Herndon, VA) with 10% human FCS (HyClone, Logan, UT). EBV-lymphoblastoid cell lines and B cells were generated as previously described (11). Flow cytometric assays (CD3, CD16, CD56, MICA/B, HLA-ABC; BD Pharmingen, Franklin Lakes, NJ), anti-Fas (2B4; Abcam, Cambridge, MA), and DR4 and DR5 (Biologend, San Diego, CA) were acquired on FACSCalibur (BD Pharmingen). Bortezomib (Millennium Pharmaceuticals, Cambridge, MA) and romidepsin (FK228, depsipeptide; Fujisawa Pharmaceuticals, Osaka, Japan) were purchased from the National Institutes of Health Division of Veterinary Resources pharmacy. Intracellular cytokine staining for IFN-\( \gamma \) was performed according to the manufacturer’s instructions (BD Pharmingen).

Apoptosis, cytotoxicity, and proliferation assays

Apoptosis was measured by Annexin V (BD Pharmingen) and 7-aminoactinomycin D (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA) staining. \(^{3} \text{H} \text{Cl}\) labeled target cells with NK or T cells for 4 h as described previously (6). T cell proliferation was analyzed by thymidine uptake. Titrated thymidine (1 \( \mu \)Ci/well) was added after 3 d and incubated for an additional 16 h before harvesting and analyzed as previously described (6). L2D8 cells were stained with CD3-PE and coculture with GFP-positive 526 melanoma (526mel) cells for 5, 30, 60, and 960 min and thereafter fixed and analyzed for formation of conjugates by ImageStream (Amnis, Seattle, WA).

Tumor outgrowth experiment

Luciferase-transduced 526mel cells were cocultured in vitro with allogeneic NK or L2D8 cells for 6 h and injected i.p into CB-17 SCID beige mice (Taconic, Rockville, MD). Tumor burden and tumor doubling time were calculated by injecting mice i.p with 2 mg/mouse of luciferin (Caliper Life Sciences, Hopkinton, MA) every 3–7 d between days 9 and 44 following tumor injection and were imaged using the IVIS Xenogen system (Caliper Life Sciences). All experiments were approved by the National Heart, Lung, and...
Results and Discussion

The melanoma cell line 624mel was treated with 20 nM of bortezomib for 18 h and then tested for sensitivity to lysis by allogeneic NK cells and gp100-specific (L2D8) and MART-1-specific (JKF6) T cells. Bortezomib treatment alone did not significantly reduce tumor viability (Fig. 1A). Although NK cell cytotoxicity was increased against bortezomib-treated tumors, T cell cytotoxicity decreased against the same bortezomib-treated tumors compared with nontreated control tumors (Fig. 1B, 1C). Similarly, proliferation (Fig. 1D) decreased dramatically when L2D8 T cells were cocultured with bortezomib-treated 526mel cells compared with untreated tumors. Although a transient increased sensitivity to killing by NK cells was observed, T cell recognition of drug-exposed tumors was reduced for multiple days, not returning to baseline until 4 d after bortezomib was washed from tumors (Fig. 2). In most experiments, treatment of tumors with bortezomib decreased T cell-mediated tumor cytotoxicity substantially. Nevertheless, tumor killing never reached 0%, perhaps because the 20 nM dose of bortezomib was insufficient to completely inhibit the proteasome, allowing for some Ag presentation to persist. In some experiments, a further reduction of cytotoxicity was observed when the dose of bortezomib was increased up to 1000 nM (data not shown). Bortezomib also reduced the susceptibility of target cells to recognition and killing by viral Ag and minor histocompatibility Ag-specific T cells; both IFN-γ production and cytotoxicity (data not shown) by EBV-reactive and minor histocompatibility-reactive T cells was reduced when EBV-lymphoblastoid cell line targets were exposed to bortezomib compared with untreated controls (Fig. 3).

Using bioluminescent imaging, tumor outgrowth assays in SCID mice showed tumors grew significantly slower in mice receiving cocultures of bortezomib-treated human tumors and NK cells compared with recipients of untreated tumor/NK cell cocultures or bortezomib-treated tumors alone. In contrast, tumor growth was accelerated in mice receiving cocultures of bortezomib-treated human tumors and tumor-reactive T cells compared with mice receiving untreated tumor/T cell cocultures (Fig. 4). The reduction in T cell recognition of bortezomib-treated tumors did not occur as a consequence of bortezomib reducing tumor MHC class I expression; FACS analysis showed bortezomib-treated versus untreated tumors had similar surface expression of MHC class I, DR4, MIC-A/B, and Fas, although bortezomib significantly upregulated tumor expression of DR5 (5) (Fig. 5A). Prior studies have shown that bortezomib can indirectly reduce T cell alloreactivity by inhibiting dendritic cell (DC) maturation, phagocytosis, and IL-12 production and can directly suppress allogeneic T cell proliferation and Th1 responses (12–17). In contrast, the reduction in T cell immunity against tumor cells observed in our studies occurred as a direct effect of bortezomib on tumor cells, because tumors were extensively washed precluding bortezomib-induced suppression of effector cells. Furthermore, in vitro studies showed reduced gp100-specific T cell cytotoxicity and IFN-γ production could be restored to baseline by culturing bortezomib-treated tumors with exogenous gp100 peptide (Fig. 5B, 5C), indicating bortezomib had altered proteasomal processing and presentation of tumor Ags recognized by tumor-reactive CTLs. Although these data suggest bortezomib-treated tumors have reduced expression of Ags recognized by CTLs,
imaging analysis using the ImageStream cytometer (Amnis) showed no reduction in the number of tumor/CTL conjugates when CTLs were cocultured with bortezomib-treated tumor cells compared with untreated tumors (data not shown). T cell-independent docking to target cells through receptors such as CD8 and LFA-1 have been shown to support peptide/MHC independent (i.e., noncognate) T cell adhesion, potentially accounting for the similarities in CTL binding to tumor targets (20, 21). In contrast to these results, Morishima et al. (18) reported recognition of cervical cancer cell lines by HPV-16 E6 (49–57) peptide-specific T cells was augmented when tumors were exposed to bortezomib. Their data suggest that a cryptic epitope might have been generated by bortezomib-induced nonproteasomal cytosolic proteases or by proteasome activity other than chymotryptic-like activity (18). In a B16 melanoma mouse model, Schumacher et al. (19) demonstrated...
bortezomib treatment combined with DC vaccination resulted in CD8 T cell- and NK cell-dependent tumor lysis. In their model, bortezomib treatment directly caused B16 melanoma cell apoptosis, potentially resulting in cross-presentation of tumor Ags to DCs, which primed CD8+ tumor Ag-reactive T cells after bortezomib levels declined. Preclinical studies have also shown bortezomib prevents graft-versus-host disease (GVHD) after allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (20, 21). This reduction in T cell alloreactivity has been hypothesized to occur as a consequence of bortezomib inducing apoptosis in activated T cells and by inhibition of DC function. Our data showing T cell recognition of targets is reduced as a direct consequence of bortezomib altering proteasomal processing and presentation of Ags, including minor histocompatibility Ags, which provides an alternative mechanism whereby bortezomib might reduce GVHD when given after allogeneic transplantation. Remarkably, Sun et al. (20) showed that graft-versus-tumor (GVT) effects were maintained in bortezomib-treated animals that had reduced GVHD. However, these results were obtained in MHC-mismatched transplantation models, which have lesser clinical relevance to HLA-matched transplants in humans, where minor histocompatibility Ags rather than mismatched HLA molecules serve as the dominant targets for GVT effects. Our data showing bortezomib reduces minor histocompatibility specific T cell recognition as well as tumor Ag-specific T cell recognition raises the concern that GVT effects were maintained in bortezomib-treated animals even though bortezomib might reduce minor histo-
matched HLA molecules serve as the dominant targets for GVT effects. Our data showing bortezomib reduces minor histo-
compatibility specific T cell recognition as well as tumor Ag-
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factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand-mediated caspase-8 activation and apoptosis.

4 CUTTING EDGE: IMMUNE SENSITIZATION IN BORTEZOMIB-TREATED TUMORS

Inhibitor romidepsin, which sensitizes tumors to NK cell-
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In conclusion, we found bortezomib-treated tumors sensitized to NK cell cytotoxicity simultaneously acquire resistance to Ag-
specific T cell effector responses. Based on these observations, the use of bortezomib in conjunction with therapies aimed at bol-
stering Ag-specific T cell immunity against cancer should be approached with caution.

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Disclosures

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