

Authors:

Tsutomu Nakazawa^{1,5}, Mitsutoshi Nakamura¹, Young Soo Park¹, Yasushi Motoyama¹, Yasuo Hironaka¹,
Fumihiko Nishimura¹, Ichiro Nakagawa¹, Shuichi Yamada¹, Ryosuke Matsuda¹, Kentaro Tamura¹,
Tadashi Sugimoto¹, Yasuhiro Takeshima¹, Akiko Marutani¹, Takahiro Tsujimura⁴, Noriko Ouji³,
Yukiteru Ouji², Masahide Yoshikawa², Hiroyuki Nakase¹

Title:

Cytotoxic human peripheral blood-derived $\gamma\delta$ T cells kill glioblastoma cell lines: implications for
cell-based immunotherapy for patients with glioblastoma

Affiliations of authors:

1. Department of Neurosurgery, Nara Medical University School of Medicine
2. Department of Pathogen, Infection and Immunity, Nara Medical University School of Medicine
3. Department of Microbiology, Nara Medical University School of Medicine
4. Clinic Grandsoul Nara
5. Grandsoul Research Institute for Immunology, Inc.

Corresponding author's e-mail address, telephone and fax numbers:

Tsutomu Nakazawa

Department of Neurosurgery, Nara Medical University School of Medicine

480, Shijocho, Kashihara, Nara, 634-8522, JAPAN

E-mail: nakazawa@naramed-u.ac.jp

TEL: +81 744 22 3051, FAX: +81 744 29 0818

Keywords:

$\gamma\delta$ T cell; zoledronate; glioblastoma; cytotoxicity; immunotherapy; T-cell receptor

Abstract

Glioblastoma (GBM) is a highly aggressive brain tumor for which novel therapeutic approaches, such as immunotherapy, are urgently needed. Zoledronate (ZOL), an inhibitor of osteoclastic activity, is known to stimulate peripheral blood-derived $\gamma\delta$ T cells and sensitize tumors to $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing. To investigate the feasibility of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy for patients with GBM, we focused on the killing of GBM cell lines by $\gamma\delta$ T cells and the molecular mechanisms involved in these cell-cell interactions. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were expanded in ZOL and interleukin (IL)-2 for 14 d, and $\gamma\delta$ T cells were enriched in the expanded cells by the immunomagnetic depletion of $\alpha\beta$ T cells. Gliomas are resistant to NK cells but susceptible to lymphokine-activated killer cells and some cytotoxic T lymphocytes. When the $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing of three GBM cell lines (U87MG, U138MG and A172 cells) and an NK-sensitive leukemia cell line (K562 cells) were tested, 32% U87MG, 15% U138MG, 1% A172, and 50% K562 cells were killed at an effector:target ratio of 5:1. The $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing of all three GBM cell lines was significantly enhanced by ZOL and this ZOL-enhanced killing was blocked by an anti-T cell receptor (TcR) antibody. These results indicated that TcR $\gamma\delta$ is crucial for the recognition of ZOL-treated GBM cells by $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Since the low level killing of GBM cells by the $\gamma\delta$ T cells was enhanced by ZOL, $\gamma\delta$ T cell-targeting therapy in combination with ZOL treatment could be effective for patients with GBM.

Introduction

Glioblastoma (GBM) is a highly aggressive brain tumor. Despite aggressive treatment combining surgery, radiation, and chemotherapy, the prognosis remains poor, with a median survival time of only 12–15 months after diagnosis. The failure of conventional chemotherapy reflects the resistance to alkylating agents, including temozolomide, which is frequently shown by GBM tumors due to the expression of the DNA-repair protein O⁶-methylguanine methyltransferase [1, 2]. Thus, the development of novel therapeutic approaches for patients with GBM is crucial. Immunotherapy has shown promise in experimental models, but little success in the clinic, principally due to the brain's protected environment and the immunosuppressive effect of the tumor itself [3–5].

Human $\gamma\delta$ T cells account for about 10% of peripheral blood T cells, and have an important role in innate immune surveillance and defense against cellular stress. They can recognize conserved determinants upregulated during inflammation, infection, or cell transformation [6–8]. Most human peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cells express a V γ 9V δ 2 T cell receptor (TCR), and recognize cellular stress in a major histocompatibility complex (MHC)-independent manner [9]. V γ 9V δ 2 TCRs recognize nonpeptidic prenyl pyrophosphate metabolites, generically known as phosphoantigens (PAGs) [10]. Natural PAGs include isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), a metabolite of the mevalonate pathway in mammalian cells [10] and the deoxyxylulose phosphate pathway present in many microorganisms [11]. Bisphosphonate, a drug widely used to prevent bone resorption, promote the production of IPP in some tumor cells by

inhibiting farnesylpyrophosphate (FPP) synthase in the mevalonate pathway, and can enhance $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated cytotoxicity [10]. The $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize IPP and IPP derivatives in the context of ecto-F1-ATPase [12] and/or CD277 [13] in tumor cells. Human peripheral blood derived- $\gamma\delta$ T cells have been reported to express some NK receptors and to be involved in the cytotoxic killing of human hepatocellular carcinoma cells [14]. NK receptor-ligand interactions are also crucial in $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing of malignant tumor cells.

Previous studies have indicated that $\gamma\delta$ T cells elicit potent antitumor activity against a broad range of malignant tumors [15–19]. In brain tumors, Fujimiya et al. first reported that peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cells displayed significant tumoricidal activity [20]. Bryant et al. showed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells can kill GBM cells *in vitro*, and reduce tumor progression *in vivo* [21, 22]. However, these results did not progress beyond the pre-clinical stage, as there was no easy and safe procedure for expanding $\gamma\delta$ T cells to obtain sufficient quantities for clinical studies. Human peripheral blood $\gamma\delta$ T cells have now been shown to proliferate well *in vitro* in the presence of zoledronate (ZOL), a bisphosphonate, and IL-2 [23]. This procedure has been used in clinical trials of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy for patients with several tumors [24–26]. This methodology was shown to be clinically beneficial and safe, providing a promising therapeutic strategy for patients with GBM.

To investigate the possibility of using $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy for patients with GBM, we focused on the cytotoxic effect of $\gamma\delta$ T cells on standard GBM cell lines, and the effect of ZOL on

sensitizing GBM cell lines as cytotoxic target cells. In addition, to elucidate the molecular mechanisms involved in these cell–cell interactions, the expression of ligands on GBM cell lines that could be recognized by $\gamma\delta$ T cell expressing receptors were analyzed.

Materials and methods

Preparation of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells, cytotoxic T lymphocytes and lymphokine-activated killer cells

Informed consent was obtained for the collection of peripheral blood from healthy volunteers, and peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were prepared by density gradient centrifugation (Lymphoprep; Axis-Shield PoC AS, Oslo, Norway). For the preparation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, human PBMCs were placed in a T25 culture flask (Corning, NY, USA) containing AIM-V medium (Life Technologies Co., Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 5% autologous plasma, 1 μ M zoledronate (Novartis Pharma K.K., Tokyo, Japan) and 200 IU/ml recombinant human (rh) IL-2 (Nipro Co., Osaka, Japan). The cultures were maintained and expanded in AIM-V medium supplemented with 200 IU/ml rhIL-2 for 14 d. The expanded cellular population was depleted of $\alpha\beta$ T cells by magnetic-activated cell separation (MACS; Miltenyi Biotech, Bergisch-Gladbach, Germany), which produced a TcR $\gamma\delta$ -positive cell population that was usually over 95% pure.

To prepare polyclonal cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL), PBMCs were cultured with an immobilized anti-CD3 antibody (OKT3; Nipro Co., Osaka, Japan) in AIM-V medium containing 5% autologous

plasma and 200 IU/ml rhIL-2. After expansion in AIM-V supplemented with 200 IU/ml rhIL-2 for 14 d, the cell population contained 98% TcR $\alpha\beta$ +, 39% CD4+, and 71% CD8+ cells. To prepare lymphokine-activated killer (LAK) cells, PBMCs were cultured in AIM-V containing 5% autologous plasma and 3,000 IU/ml rhIL-2 for 5 d. After expansion in AIM-V supplemented with 200 IU/ml rhIL-2 for 14 d, the cell population consisted of over 98% CD3- CD56+, characteristic of natural killer cells.

Cell lines

Human GBM cell lines U87MG, U138MG, and A172 cells were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC; Manassas, VA, USA). Human leukemia cell line K562 cells was provided by Professor Matsuda (Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine, Japan). Cell lines were maintained in D-MEM (for GBM cells) or RPMI640 medium (for K562 cells; Life Technologies Co.) with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA), 100 μ g/ml penicillin and streptomycin (Life Technologies Co.) at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂.

Flow cytometry

Samples were stained with appropriate antibodies (see Supplemental materials and methods) and analyzed using a BD FACS Calibur flow cytometer. The data were analyzed using CellQuest software

(BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). The ratio of fluorescence intensity (RFI) was calculated as the mean fluorescence intensity obtained with the sample/mean fluorescence intensity obtained with the isotype-matched control.

Cytotoxicity assay

Cytotoxic killing was measured using a calcein-AM release assay, as described previously [27]. Briefly, cell lines used as targets were incubated with 1 μ M calcein-AM (Life Technologies Co.) for 30 min. TcR $\gamma\delta$ -positive T cells were added to 96-well round-bottomed plastic plates (Corning) containing 1×10^4 labeled target cells per well at various effector-to-target ratios (E:T). After incubation for 4 h at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere, supernatants were collected, and calcein-AM release was measured using Fluoroskan Ascent (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.). GBM cell lines were treated with ZOL by culturing them in medium containing defined doses of this drug for 20 h prior to performing cytotoxicity assays.

For cold inhibition assays, calcein-AM-labeled (hot) and unlabeled (cold) cell lines were used as target cells. These were incubated at defined hot-to-cold target ratios and E:T ratios. In blocking experiments, $\gamma\delta$ T cells were treated with 10 μ g/ml anti-TcRV γ 9 (BD Pharmingen; B3, IgG₁) or an isotype-matched mAb for 1h at 4°C, and then used as effector cells.

Statistical methods

Results are given as mean \pm standard error (SE). The statistical significance of differences was determined using a t-test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Scheffe's test. Single and double asterisks indicate *P* values < 0.05 and < 0.01 , respectively.

Results

Phenotypic analysis of $\gamma\delta$ T cells expanded in culture

The expression of cell-surface antigens on $\gamma\delta$ T cells expanded in culture was analyzed by flow cytometry using the mAbs described in Supplemental materials and methods (Figure 1). The $\gamma\delta$ T cells expressed the TcR co-receptor CD3 and the lineage marker CD8, but also very low levels of CD4. The cells expressed the adhesion molecules CD2 (LFA-2) and CD11a (LFA-1 α) at high levels. Of the NK cell markers, CD56 (N-CAM) and CD161 (NKR-P1A) were expressed. Of the markers associated with activating NK cell receptors, CD16 (Fc γ RIII), CD226 (DNAM-1), CD244 (2B4), and CD314 (NKG2D) were highly expressed. CD335 (NKp46) was almost absent, while CD336 (NKp44) and CD337 (NKp30) were slightly expressed. Of the markers associated with inhibitory NK cell receptors, CD94 and CD159a (NKG2A) were highly expressed. CD158a (KIR2DL1) was almost absent. CD158b (KIR2DL2/DL3) was highly expressed in a small percentage (3.7%) of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and expressed at low levels in a large percentage of the cells. CD178 (Fas-L) was almost absent.

Cytotoxic effect of $\gamma\delta$ T cells on GBM cell lines

We used a calcein-AM release cytotoxicity assay to test the effect of $\gamma\delta$ T cells on standard GBM cell lines and the cytotoxicity-sensitive leukemia cell line K562. At E:T ratios of 1:1 and 5:1, the $\gamma\delta$ T cells killed 28% and 50% of K562 cells, 18% and 32% of U87MG cells, 7% and 15% of U138MG cells, and 4% and 1% of A172 cells, respectively (Figure 2). The $\gamma\delta$ T cells had a significant cytotoxic effect on U87MG and U138MG cells, which was cell number-dependent, but had little cytotoxic effect on A172 cells. In addition, the cytotoxic effect of $\gamma\delta$ T cells on the GBM cell lines was significantly lower than on K562 cells.

Effect of ZOL on sensitivity of GBM cell lines to $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated cytotoxicity

We tested the ability of ZOL to sensitize GBM cell lines to $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated cytotoxicity by pre-incubating U87MG cells with 0–10 μ M ZOL for 20 h. Untreated or ZOL-treated cells were co-cultured with $\gamma\delta$ T cells at an E:T ratio of 5:1. After pre-treatment with 1 μ M ZOL, 86% U87MG cells were lysed, which was a 4.1-fold increase in lysis compared to untreated cells. This enhancement of lysis by ZOL was a dose-dependent effect (Figure 3a). After pre-treatment with 1 μ M ZOL, the other glioma cell lines, U138MG and A172 cells, and the leukemia cell line, K562 cells, showed 43%, 67%, and 55% lysis, respectively, which were 3.6, 16.8, and 1.1-fold increases in lysis compared to untreated cells

(Figure 3b). Therefore, pre-treatment with 1 μ M ZOL significantly enhanced the cytotoxic killing of all three GBM cell lines. As previously reported [23], ZOL pre-treatment did not enhance the cytotoxic effect on K562 cells. Interestingly, the killing of the resistant GBM cell line A172 cells by the $\gamma\delta$ T cells was strongly induced by ZOL pre-treatment.

Mechanisms of ZOL-induced sensitization to $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing

To elucidate the molecular mechanisms involved in the interactions between $\gamma\delta$ T cells and GBM cell lines, cold inhibition assays were performed (Figure 4a). The $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated lysis of calcein labeled, ZOL-treated U87MG cells was competitively blocked by unlabeled, ZOL-treated U87MG, while the lysis of unlabeled-U87MG cells was not enhanced by unlabeled, ZOL-treated U87MG cells.

Next, we analyzed the expression of ligands on GBM cell lines specific for receptors expressed by $\gamma\delta$ T cells. As shown in Table 1, the expression of HLA-ABC (the ligand for CD158b) was high on all GBM cell lines, but HLA-E (the ligand for CD94/NKG2A) was mostly absent. PVR was expressed by all cell lines and nectin-2 (ligands for DNAM-1) was variably expressed. The expression of the NKG2D-specific ligands MICA, MICB, ULBP1, ULBP2, and ULBP3 was low, but at least one ligand could be detected on every cell line. ICAM family adhesion molecules, which interact with CD11a, were variably expressed on U87MG and U138MG, but mostly absent on A172 cells. Unlike GBM cell lines, the leukemia cell line K562 cells lacked HLA-ABC and HLA-E, expressed the NKG2D-specific ligands

with the exception of MICA, and expressed ICAM-1 and ICAM-2, although ICAM-3 was absent. We also looked at the effect of ZOL on the expression of these ligands by incubating the cell lines with or without 1 μ M ZOL before analyzing the ligands present (Figure 4b). After ZOL treatment, MICA was slightly up-regulated on A172 and K562 cells, and HLA-ABC was down-regulated on U87MG cells, but up-regulated on K562 cells. To further investigate the involvement of TcR $\gamma\delta$ in these cell-cell interactions, antibody blocking experiments were performed. As shown in Figure 4c, the ZOL-enhanced killing of GBM cells was inhibited by anti-TcRV γ 9 mAb in all three cell lines tested.

ZOL-enhanced killing of GBM cells is not specific to $\gamma\delta$ T cells

To gain further insights into the sensitizing effect of ZOL on GBM cells, we investigated whether this was specific to $\gamma\delta$ T cells by using LAK and polyclonal CTL as effector cells. After treatment with 1 μ M ZOL, 43.5% U87MG cells, 34.8% U138 cells and 15.4% A172 cells were killed by LAK cells, and these were 1.1, 1.1, and 0.9-fold, respectively, of the lysis levels seen with untreated cells. In contrast, when CTLs were incubated with untreated GBM cells, they killed -1.6% U87MG cells, 2.6% U138 cells, and 6.3% A172 cells, but after treatment with 1 μ M ZOL these lysis levels were increased -10.6, 3.8, and 0.4-fold, respectively. We therefore observed that ZOL not only enhanced $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing, but also CTL-mediated killing (Figure 4d). However ZOL had no effect on LAK-mediated killing.

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first report of $\gamma\delta$ T cells having different cytotoxic effects on different GBM cell lines. The cytotoxic effect seen on GBM cell lines was significantly lower than that on the leukemia cell line K562 cells, which is known to show cytotoxic sensitivity. Therefore, to achieve anti-tumor effects in patients with GBM, it will be important to enhance the cytotoxic effect on GBM cells.

To investigate whether bisphosphonate can sensitize GBM cell lines to cytotoxic killing, we selected ZOL, and found it to have a strong sensitizing effect. Cold inhibition assays showed that the $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognized ZOL-pretreated GBM cells using specific membrane receptors and that they killed the cells by a direct cytotoxic mechanism. In addition, ZOL-enhanced killing did not seem to involve the release of soluble mediators, which would mediate an indirect cytotoxic mechanism.

Cimini et al. reported that ZOL synergistically enhanced the $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated apoptosis of GBM cell lines [28]. The adhesion molecule ICAM-1 has a critical role in the cytotoxic killing of colon cancer cells. The cell lines that lacked ICAM-1 failed to be recognized by $\gamma\delta$ T cells, even after bisphosphonate treatment. In transfection experiments, the only molecule that was shown dramatically to enhance $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated cytotoxicity after bisphosphonate treatment was ICAM-1 [16]. However, we observed that ZOL could not only enhance the killing of U87MG and U138MG cells that expressed ICAM-1, but could also induce the killing of A172 cells that lacked ICAM-1. Our investigation has confirmed the expanded

$\gamma\delta$ T cells strongly expressed DNAM-1, and that its specific ligand, PVR, was one of the most highly expressed molecules on all three of the GBM cell lines tested. The expression of PVR, rather than ICAM-1, on GBM cells might mediate the enhanced cell-mediated killing by $\gamma\delta$ T cells. We also observed that ZOL did not appreciably change the expression of the other ligands tested on the GBM cell lines. Furthermore, mAb specific for TcRV γ 9, which is a major component of the TcR repertoire in peripheral blood [10], inhibited ZOL-enhanced killing in all GBM cell lines tested. Although further investigations using mass spectrometry will be needed to measure the accumulation of IPP in target cells, a possible explanation for the effect of ZOL on target cell killing is that it strongly promotes the intracellular accumulation of IPP, thus favoring the recognition of GBM cell lines by $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Taken together, our results showed that TcR $\gamma\delta$ has an important role in the ZOL-enhanced killing of GBM cells. However, polyclonal CTL-mediated killing was also enhanced by ZOL treatment in two GBM cell lines, although LAK-mediated killing was unaffected in all GBM cell lines tested. This suggested that ZOL-enhanced killing may not be entirely specific to $\gamma\delta$ T cells and other mechanisms remain to be elucidated in CTL-mediated killing.

It has been reported that ZOL reduced anti-apoptosis defense mechanisms, thus allowing ZOL-treated cells to induce apoptosis in tumor cells [29]. We saw no increase in spontaneous fluorescence release from any ZOL-treated cells, compared to untreated cells, in 4 h fluorescence-release cytotoxicity assays. We saw no evidence that ZOL induced direct cytotoxicity in these experiments. We

have confirmed that ZOL can enhance $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing of GBM cell lines recognized by TcR $\gamma\delta$, and consider that PVR might be involved in enhancing $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing of GBM cells.

Our study showed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells killed low numbers of GBM cells, despite being allogeneic, and that ZOL could enhance allogeneic $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing. We observed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells killed virtually no allogeneic normal B lymphoblast cell lines (data not shown). These results indicated allogeneic $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy would be safe and that administration of allogeneic $\gamma\delta$ T cells in combination with ZOL may provide a novel strategy for allogeneic cell-based immunotherapy for human GBM.

Our results are encouraging for the development of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy for patients with GBM; however, some problems have yet to be overcome for clinical application. It was reported $\gamma\delta$ T cells might be unable to infiltrate human GBM parenchyma [21]. Our observation that GBM cell lines express low levels of ligands for the receptors on $\gamma\delta$ T cells, which had a mild cytotoxic effect on GBM cell lines, suggests a possible mechanism for the failure of $\gamma\delta$ T cells to accumulate in GBM parenchyma. A subpopulation of clonally expanded V δ 2- $\gamma\delta$ T cells that respond to heat shock protein (HSP) was identified within demyelinated regions of the brain in a multiple sclerosis patient [30]. This implies that $\gamma\delta$ T cells might accumulate in a GBM tumor if the production of IPP derivatives could be enhanced by ZOL in GBM cells.

For ZOL to penetrate GBM tumors, it must cross the brain–blood barrier (BBB), which is composed of endothelial cells, associated astrocytic end-feet processes, perivascular neurons, and

pericytes [31]. An early study showed that brain tumors such as GBM might partially disrupt the BBB by inducing large gaps between endothelial cells [32], suggesting ZOL might be able to penetrate BBB-disrupting GBM tumors without modification. In other cases, ZOL could potentially be delivered directly into the region around GBM tumors during surgery.

In summary, ZOL strongly sensitizes GBM cell lines as targets for $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated cytotoxic killing. Our investigation has provided a novel mechanistic basis for combining ZOL and $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy for GBM. This therapy could be an effective strategy to treat GBM.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan (No. 22791352).

Ethical standards

The study design was approved by the ethics committee at Clinic Grandsoul Nara, Uda, Japan, and conformed to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

1. Stupp R, Mason WP, van den Bent MJ, Weller M, Fisher B, Taphoorn MJ, Belanger K, Brandes AA, Marosi C, Bogdahn U, Curschmann J, Janzer RC, Ludwin SK, Gorlia T, Allgeier A, Lacombe D, Cairncross JG, Eisenhauer E, Mirimanoff RO (2005) Radiotherapy plus concomitant and adjuvant temozolomide for glioblastoma. *N Engl J Med* 352:987–996
2. Stupp R, Hegi ME, Mason WP, van den Bent MJ, Taphoorn MJ, Janzer RC, Ludwin SK, Allgeier A, Fisher B, Belanger K, Hau P, Brandes AA, Gijtenbeek J, Marosi C, Vecht CJ, Mokhtari K, Wesseling P, Villa S, Eisenhauer E, Gorlia T, Weller M, Lacombe D, Cairncross JG, Mirimanoff RO (2009) Effects of radiotherapy with concomitant and adjuvant temozolomide versus radiotherapy alone on survival in glioblastoma in a randomised phase III study: 5-year analysis of the EORTC-NCIC trial. *Lancet Oncol* 10:459–466
3. Yamanaka R (2006) Novel immunotherapeutic approaches to glioma. *Curr Opin Mol Ther* 8:46–51
4. Vauleon E, Avril T, Collet B, Mosser J, Quillien V (2010) Overview of cellular immunotherapy for patients with glioblastoma. *Clin Dev Immunol*. doi: 10.1155/2010/689171
5. Ogbomo H, Cinatl J, Jr., Mody CH, Forsyth PA (2011) Immunotherapy in gliomas: limitations and potential of natural killer (NK) cell therapy. *Trends Mol Med* 17:433–441
6. Hayday AC (2000) $\gamma\delta$ cells: a right time and a right place for a conserved third way of protection. *Annu Rev Immunol* 18:975–1026

7. Bonneville M, O'Brien RL, Born WK (2010) $\gamma\delta$ T cell effector functions a blend of innate programming and acquired plasticity. *Nat Rev Immunol* 10:467–478
8. Haas W, Pereira P, Tonegawa S (1993) Gamma/delta cells. *Annu Rev Immunol* 11:637–685
9. Kabelitz D, Wesch D, He W (2007) Perspectives of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in tumor immunology. *Cancer Res* 67:5–8
10. Gober HJ, Kistowska M, Angman L, Jenö P, Mori L, De Libero G (2003) Human T cell receptor $\gamma\delta$ cells recognize endogenous mevalonate metabolites in tumor cells. *J Exp Med* 197:163–168
11. Hintz M, Reichenberg A, Altincicek B, Bahr U, Gschwind RM, Kollas AK, Beck E, Wiesner J, Eberl M, Jomaa H (2001) Identification of (E)-4-hydroxy-3-methyl-but-2-enyl pyrophosphate as a major activator for human $\gamma\delta$ T cells in *Escherichia coli*. *FEBS Lett* 509:317–322
12. Vantourout P, Mookerjee-Basu J, Rolland C, Pont F, Martin H, Davrinche C, Martinez LO, Perret B, Collet X, Perigaud C, Peyrottes S, Champagne E (2009) Specific requirements for V γ 9V δ 2 T cell stimulation by a natural adenylated phosphoantigen. *J Immunol* 183:3848–3857
13. Harly C, Guillaume Y, Nedellec S, Peigne CM, Monkkonen H, Monkkonen J, Li J, Kuball J, Adams EJ, Netzer S, Dechanet-Merville J, Leger A, Herrmann T, Breathnach R, Olive D, Bonneville M, Scotet E (2012) Key implication of CD277/Butyrophilin-3 (BTN3A) in cellular stress sensing by a major human $\gamma\delta$ T cell subset. *Blood* 120:2269–2279
14. Toutirais O, Cabillic F, Le Friec G, Salot S, Loyer P, Le Gallo M, Desille M, de La Pintiere CT, Daniel P, Bouet F, Catros V (2009) DNAX accessory molecule-1 (CD226) promotes human

hepatocellular carcinoma cell lysis by V γ 9V δ 2 T cells. *Eur J Immunol* 39: 1361-8

15. Dieli F, Vermijlen D, Fulfaro F, Caccamo N, Meraviglia S, Cicero G, Roberts A, Buccheri S, D'Asaro M, Gebbia N, Salerno A, Eberl M, Hayday AC (2007) Targeting human $\gamma\delta$ T cells with zoledronate and interleukin-2 for immunotherapy of hormone-refractory prostate cancer. *Cancer Res* 67:7450–7457

16. Corvaisier M, Moreau-Aubry A, Diez E, Bennouna J, Mosnier JF, Scotet E, Bonneville M, Jotereau F (2005) V γ 9V δ 2 T cell response to colon carcinoma cells. *J Immunol* 175:5481–5488

17. Meraviglia S, Eberl M, Vermijlen D, Todaro M, Buccheri S, Cicero G, La Mendola C, Guggino G, D'Asaro M, Orlando V, Scarpa F, Roberts A, Caccamo N, Stassi G, Dieli F, Hayday AC (2010) In vivo manipulation of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells with zoledronate and low-dose interleukin-2 for immunotherapy of advanced breast cancer patients. *Clin Exp Immunol* 161:290–297

18. Gomes AQ, Martins DS, Silva-Santos B (2010) Targeting $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes for cancer immunotherapy: from novel mechanistic insight to clinical application. *Cancer Res* 70:10024–10027

19. Todaro M, D'Asaro M, Caccamo N, Iovino F, Francipane MG, Meraviglia S, Orlando V, La Mendola C, Gulotta G, Salerno A, Dieli F, Stassi G (2009) Efficient killing of human colon cancer stem cells by $\gamma\delta$ T lymphocytes. *J Immunol* 182:7287–7296

20. Fujimiya Y, Suzuki Y, Katakura R, Miyagi T, Yamaguchi T, Yoshimoto T, Ebina T (1997) In vitro interleukin 12 activation of peripheral blood CD3(+)CD56(+) and CD3(+)CD56(-) gammadelta T cells from glioblastoma patients. *Clin Cancer Res* 3: 633-43

21. Bryant NL, Suarez-Cuervo C, Gillespie GY, Markert JM, Nabors LB, Meleth S, Lopez RD, Lamb LS, Jr. (2009) Characterization and immunotherapeutic potential of $\gamma\delta$ T-cells in patients with glioblastoma. *Neuro Oncol* 11:357–367
22. Bryant NL, Gillespie GY, Lopez RD, Markert JM, Cloud GA, Langford CP, Arnouk H, Su Y, Haines HL, Suarez-Cuervo C, Lamb LS, Jr. (2011) Preclinical evaluation of ex vivo expanded/activated $\gamma\delta$ T cells for immunotherapy of glioblastoma multiforme. *J Neurooncol* 101:179–188
23. Sato K, Kimura S, Segawa H, Yokota A, Matsumoto S, Kuroda J, Nogawa M, Yuasa T, Kiyono Y, Wada H, Maekawa T (2005) Cytotoxic effects of $\gamma\delta$ T cells expanded ex vivo by a third generation bisphosphonate for cancer immunotherapy. *Int J Cancer* 116:94–99
24. Kobayashi H, Tanaka Y, Yagi J, Minato N, Tanabe K (2011) Phase I/II study of adoptive transfer of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in combination with zoledronic acid and IL-2 to patients with advanced renal cell carcinoma. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 60:1075–1084
25. Abe Y, Muto M, Nieda M, Nakagawa Y, Nicol A, Kaneko T, Goto S, Yokokawa K, Suzuki K (2009) Clinical and immunological evaluation of zoledronate-activated V γ 9 $\gamma\delta$ T-cell-based immunotherapy for patients with multiple myeloma. *Exp Hematol* 37:956–968
26. Nakajima J, Murakawa T, Fukami T, Goto S, Kaneko T, Yoshida Y, Takamoto S, Kakimi K (2010) A phase I study of adoptive immunotherapy for recurrent non-small-cell lung cancer patients with autologous $\gamma\delta$ T cells. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg* 37:1191–1197

27. Lichtenfels R, Biddison WE, Schulz H, Vogt AB, Martin R (1994) CARE-LASS (calcein-release-assay), an improved fluorescence-based test system to measure cytotoxic T lymphocyte activity. *J Immunol Meth* 172:227–239
28. Cimini E, Piacentini P, Sacchi A, Gioia C, Leone S, Lauro GM, Martini F, Agrati C (2011) Zoledronic acid enhances V δ 2 T-lymphocyte antitumor response to human glioma cell lines. *Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol* 24:139–148
29. Kuroda J, Kimura S, Segawa H, Kobayashi Y, Yoshikawa T, Urasaki Y, Ueda T, Enjo F, Tokuda H, Ottmann OG, Maekawa T (2003) The third-generation bisphosphonate zoledronate synergistically augments the anti-Ph⁺ leukemia activity of imatinib mesylate. *Blood* 102: 2229-3
30. Battistini L, Salvetti M, Ristori G, Falcone M, Raine CS, Brosnan CF (1995) $\gamma\delta$ T cell receptor analysis supports a role for HSP 70 selection of lymphocytes in multiple sclerosis lesions. *Mol Med* 1:554–562
31. Nathanson D, Mischel PS (2011) Charting the course across the blood–brain barrier. *J Clin Invest* 121:31–33
32. Coomber BL, Stewart PA, Hayakawa K, Farrell CL, Del Maestro RF(1987) Quantitative morphology of human glioblastoma multiforme microvessels: structural basis of blood–brain barrier defect. *J Neurooncol* 5:299–307

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Phenotypic analysis of human peripheral blood-derived $\gamma\delta$ T cells

Cells were stained with specific mAbs (see Supplemental materials and methods) and analyzed by flow cytometry. The top left panel shows the gated TcR $\gamma\delta$ -positive cell population for which the histograms on the right show specific antibody staining. Open histograms show controls stained only with secondary PE-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG, and filled histograms show specific mAb staining. For each histogram, the percentage of positive cells is shown and the ratio of mean fluorescence intensity (RFI) is given in parentheses. The RFI was calculated as the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the individual sample/MFI of the isotype-matched control. The results shown are representative of three independent experiments.

Fig. 2 Cytotoxic killing of human GBM cell lines by $\gamma\delta$ T cells expanded *in vitro*

The ability of $\gamma\delta$ T cells to kill 1×10^4 GBM cells or K562 leukemia cells was tested at different effector-to-target (E:T) ratios, as shown, by 4h calcein released assay. Each data point is a mean \pm standard error (SE) of values obtained from at least three independent experiments. *P* values compared with K562 cells were determined using one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffe's test. * *P* < 0.05 and ** *P* < 0.01

Fig. 3 ZOL sensitizes GBM cell lines to the $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing

a, U87MG cells were pretreated with 0, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 5, and 10 μ M ZOL for 20 h, and then washed extensively. Cells were labeled with calcein-AM and co-cultured with $\gamma\delta$ T cells at a 5:1 E:T ratio for 4 h. Supernatants from the co-cultures were measured by fluorometry. Each bar represents the mean \pm SE of values obtained in three independent experiments. **b**, Three GBM cell lines and the leukemia cell line K562 were pretreated with 0 or 1 μ M ZOL for 20 h, then labeled with calcein-AM and co-cultured with $\gamma\delta$ T cells for 4 h at an effector-to-target (E:T) ratio of 5:1. Supernatants from the co-cultures were measured by fluorometry. Each bar represents the mean \pm SE of values obtained in three independent experiments. The open and filled bars show the cytotoxic killing of untreated and ZOL-treated cell lines, respectively. *P* values were determined using a t-test to compare untreated and ZOL-treated cell lines. ** *P* < 0.01.

Fig. 4 Mechanisms of ZOL-enhanced killing of GBM cells by $\gamma\delta$ T cells

a, Cold inhibition assay. Calcein-labeled, untreated or ZOL-pretreated U87MG cells were used as hot targets and were mixed with ZOL-pretreated U87MG (filled bars) or untreated U87MG cells (diagonal bars) as cold targets, at a hot-to-cold target ratio of 1:10. The $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated lysis of the mixture was determined as calcein release after 4 h at an effector-to-hot target ratio of 5:1. Each bar represents the mean \pm SE of values obtained in triplicate experiments. *P* values were determined using a

t-test. ** $P < 0.01$. **b**, Effects of ZOL on expression of ligands on GBM cell lines specific for receptors expressed on $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Cell lines were pre-treated with 0 or 1 μ M ZOL for 20 h, and the effect of ZOL on the expression of the molecules shown was then evaluated by flow cytometry. Open and filled bars show the results for untreated and ZOL-treated cells, respectively. Each bar shows the ratio of mean fluorescence intensity (RFI) \pm SE obtained in three independent experiments. P values were determined using a t-test to compare untreated and ZOL-treated cells. * $P < 0.05$. **c**, Antibody blocking experiments. The $\gamma\delta$ T cells were treated with 10 μ g/ml anti-TcRV γ 9 mAb or an isotype-matched control antibody for 1h. ZOL-pretreated GBM cell lines were incubated with the antibody-treated $\gamma\delta$ T cells at an E:T ratio of 5:1 and the percent lysis was determined as calcein release after 4 h. Each bar represents the mean \pm SE of values obtained in triplicate experiments. P values were determined using a t-test. ** $P < 0.01$. **d**, ZOL-enhanced killing is not specific to $\gamma\delta$ T cells. LAK and CTL were expanded from PBMCs cultures for 14 d. Effector LAK or CTL were then co-cultured with calcein labeled-GBM cell lines for 4 h at an E:T ratio of 5:1. Open and filled bars show the results for untreated or ZOL-pretreated target cells, respectively. Data are presented as the mean \pm SE of triplicate determinations. P values were determined using a t-test comparing untreated and ZOL-pretreated cells. ** $P < 0.01$.

Figure 1.

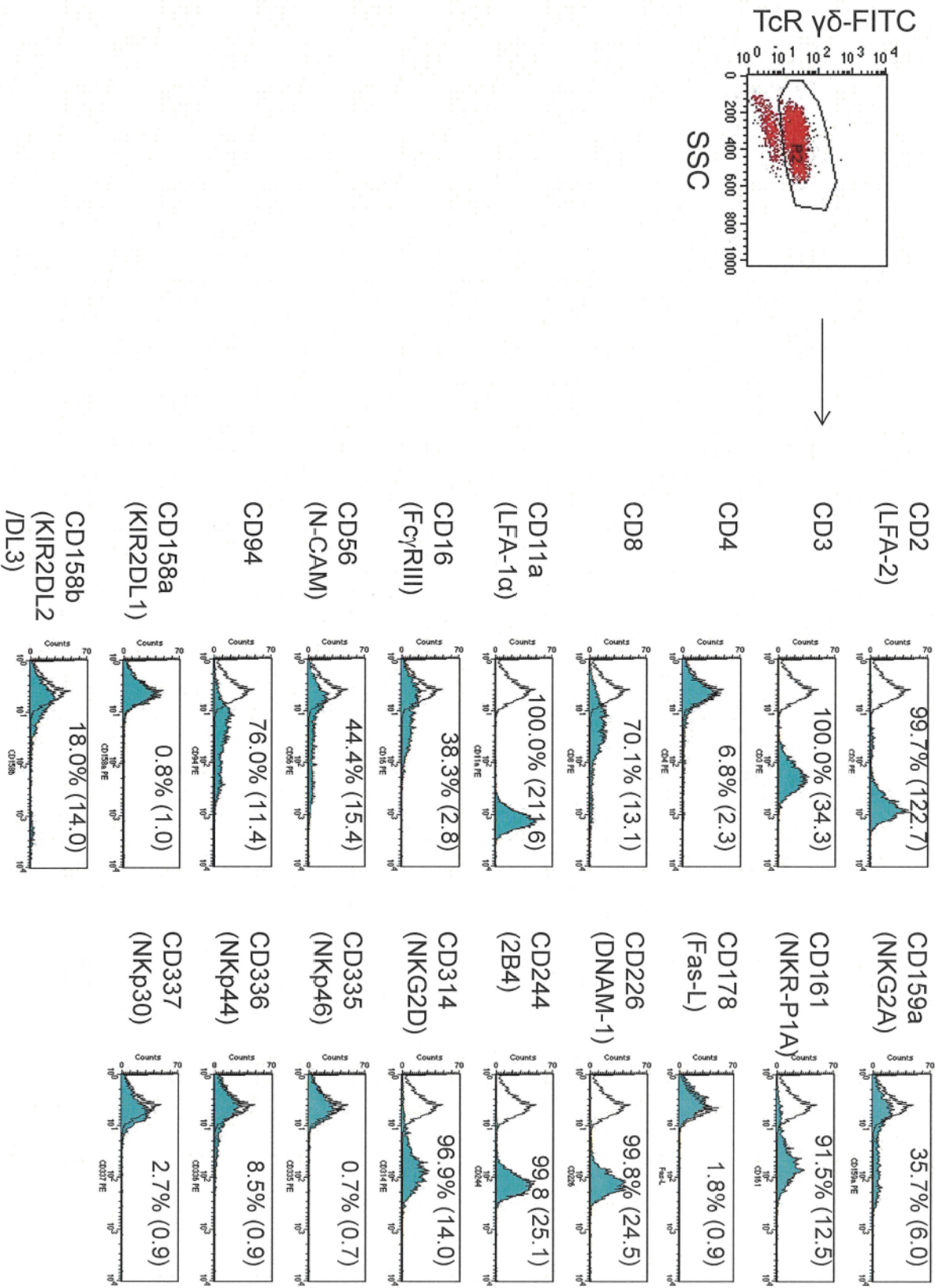


Figure 2.

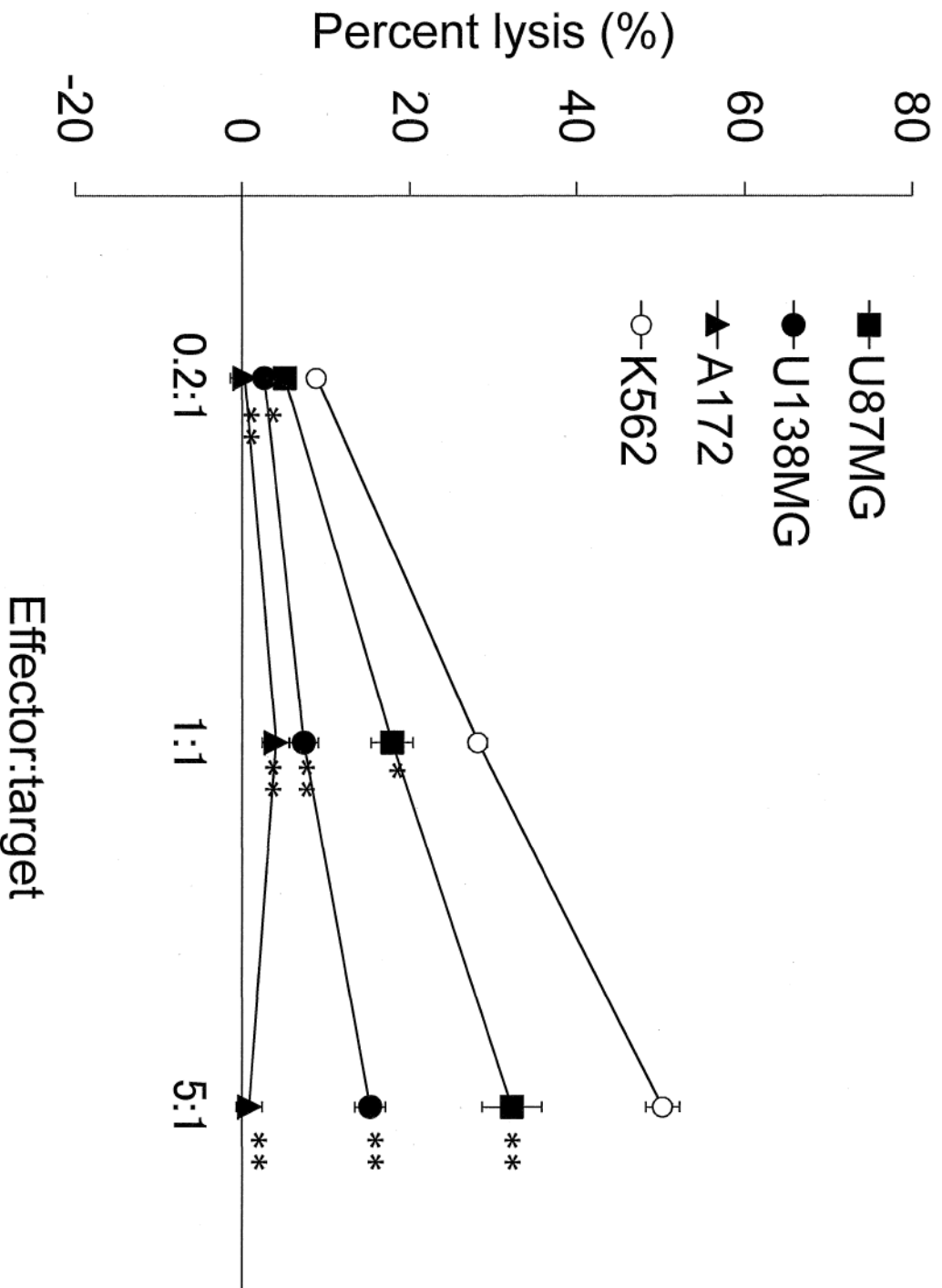


Figure 3a.

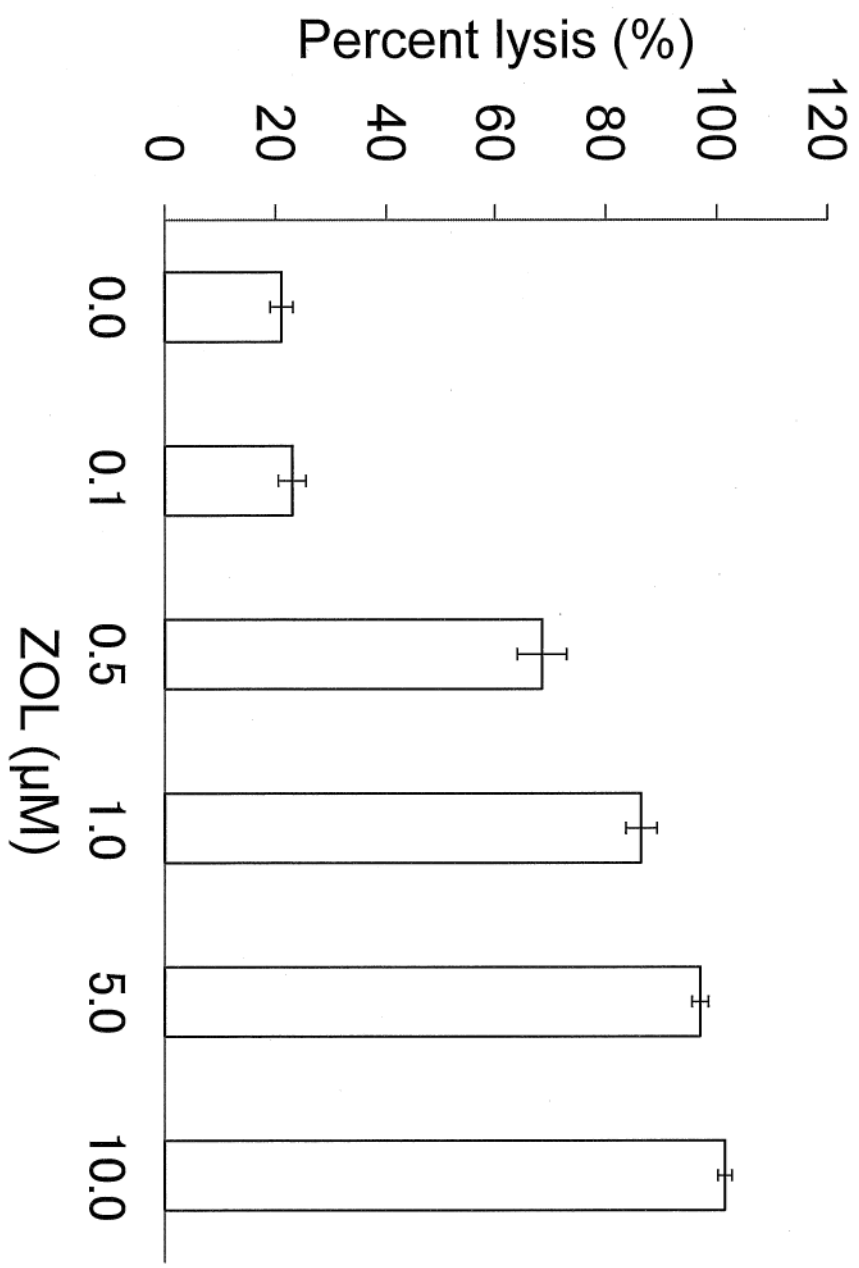


Figure 3b.

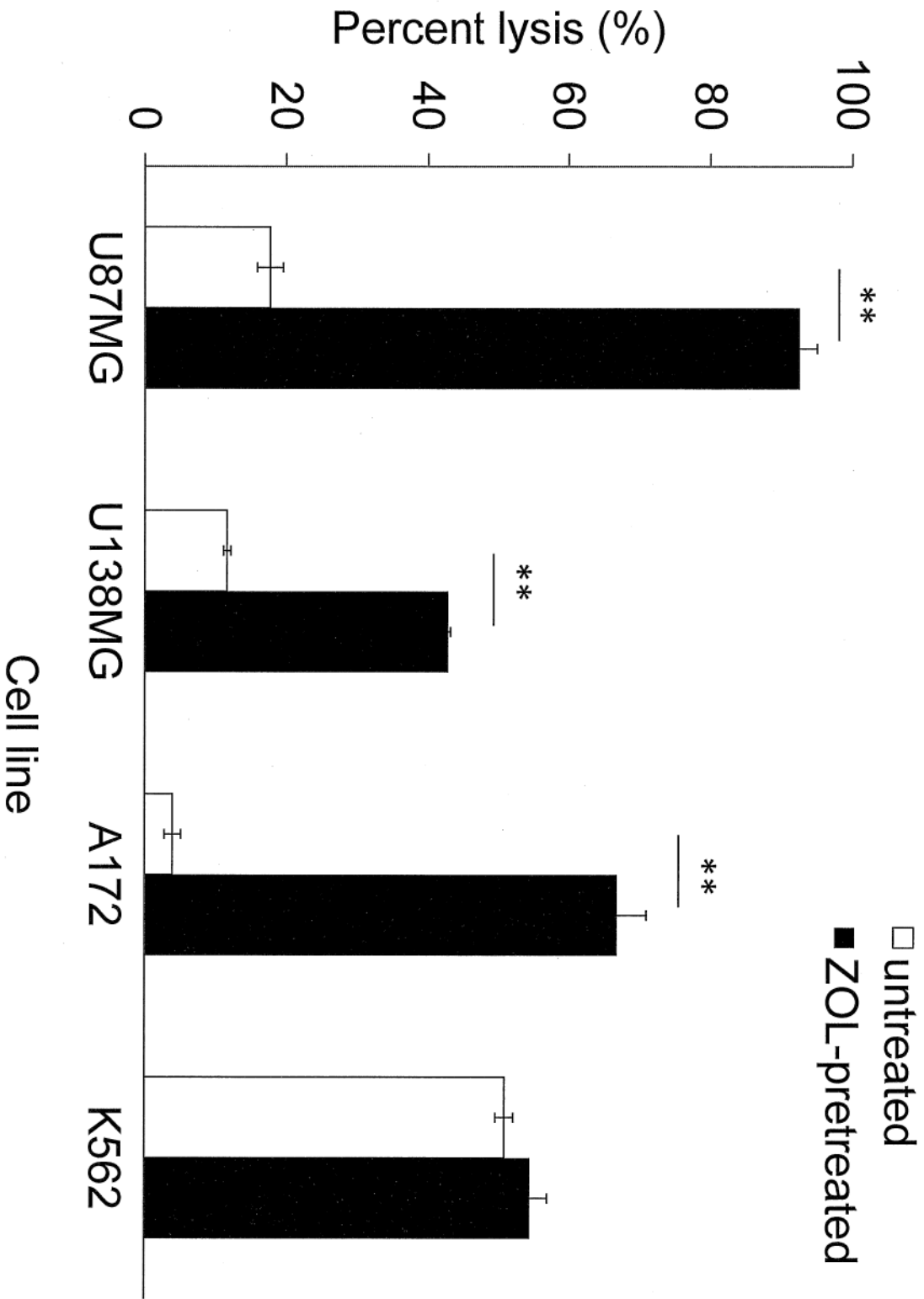


Figure 4a.

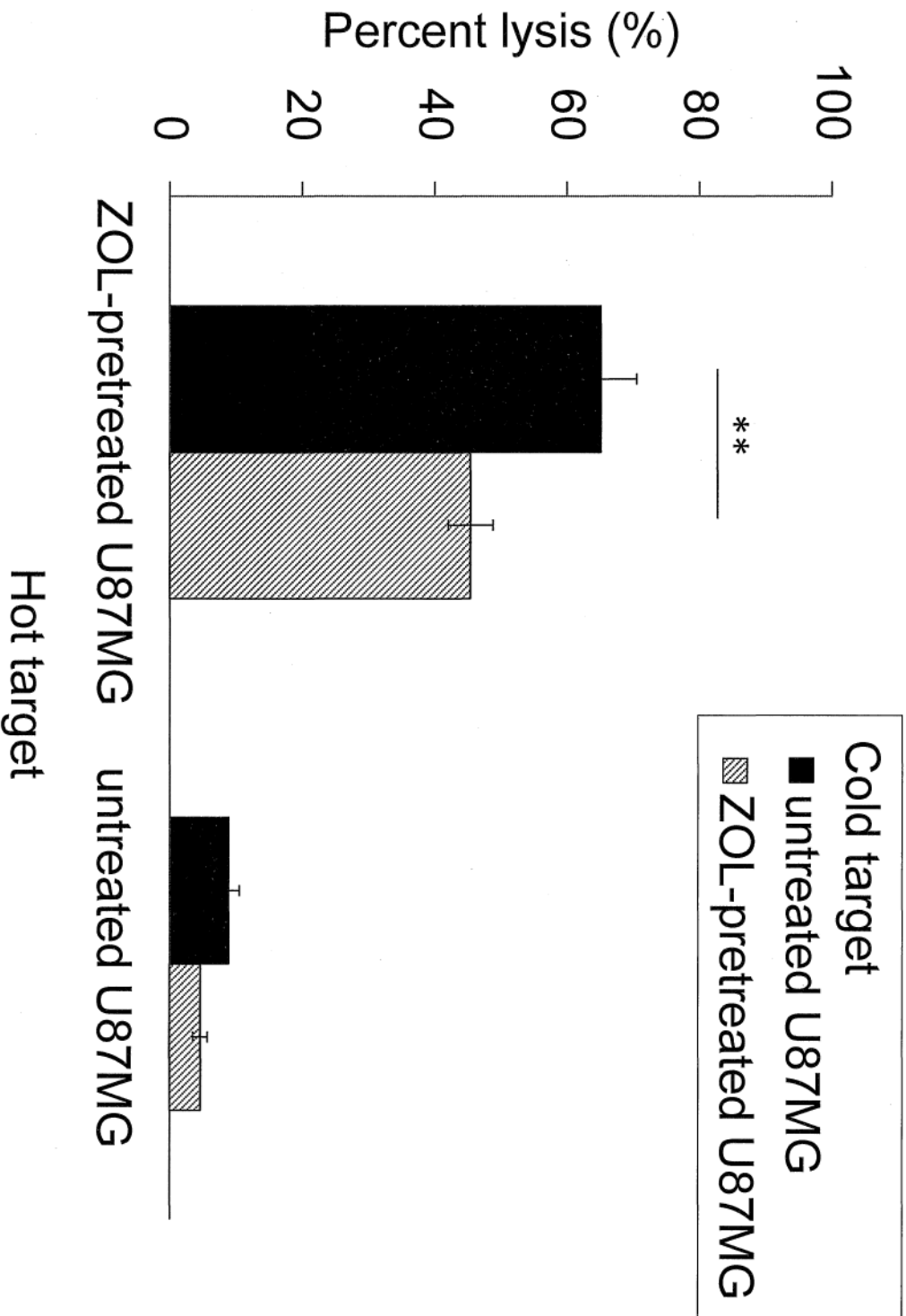


Figure 4b.

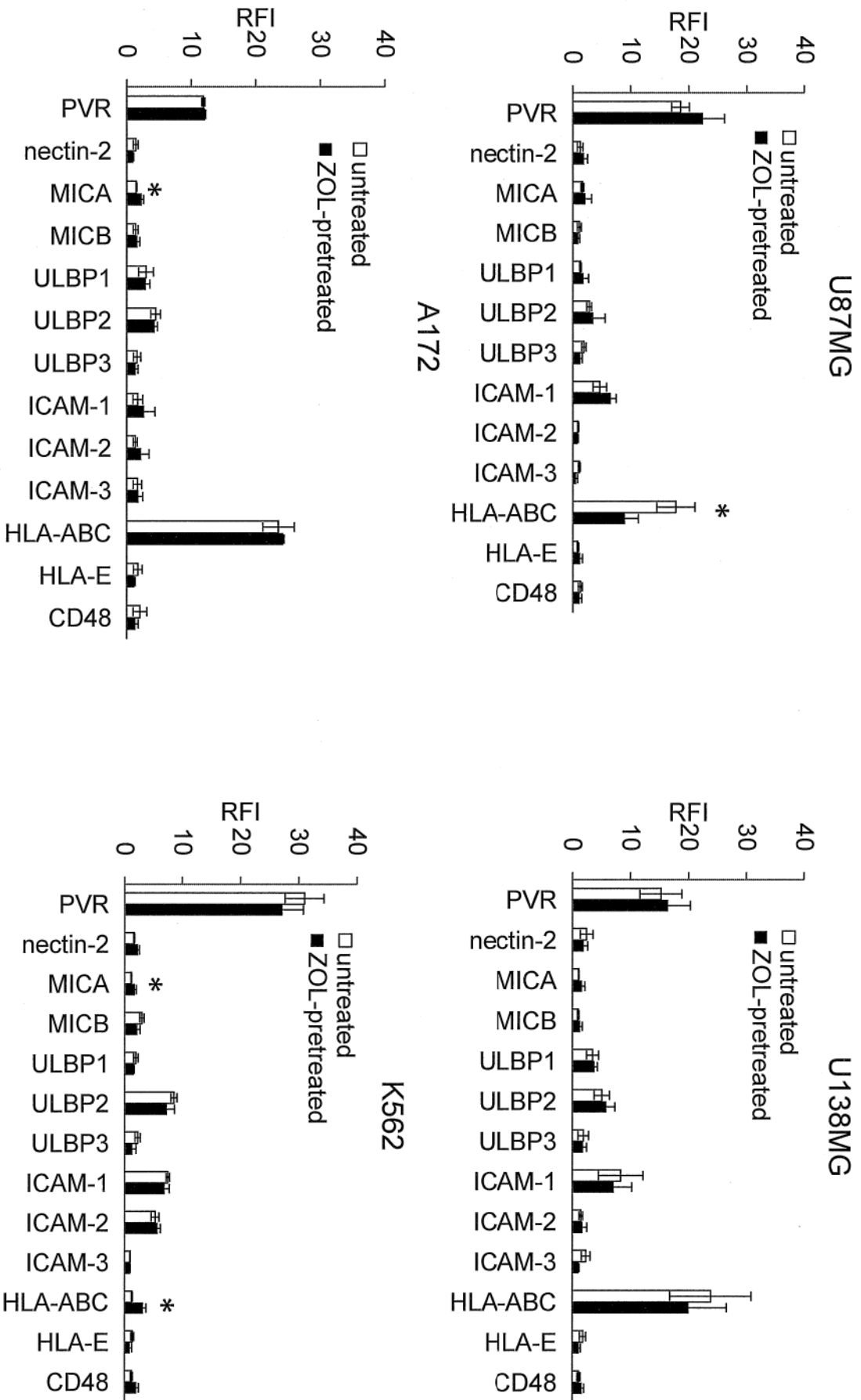


Figure 4c.

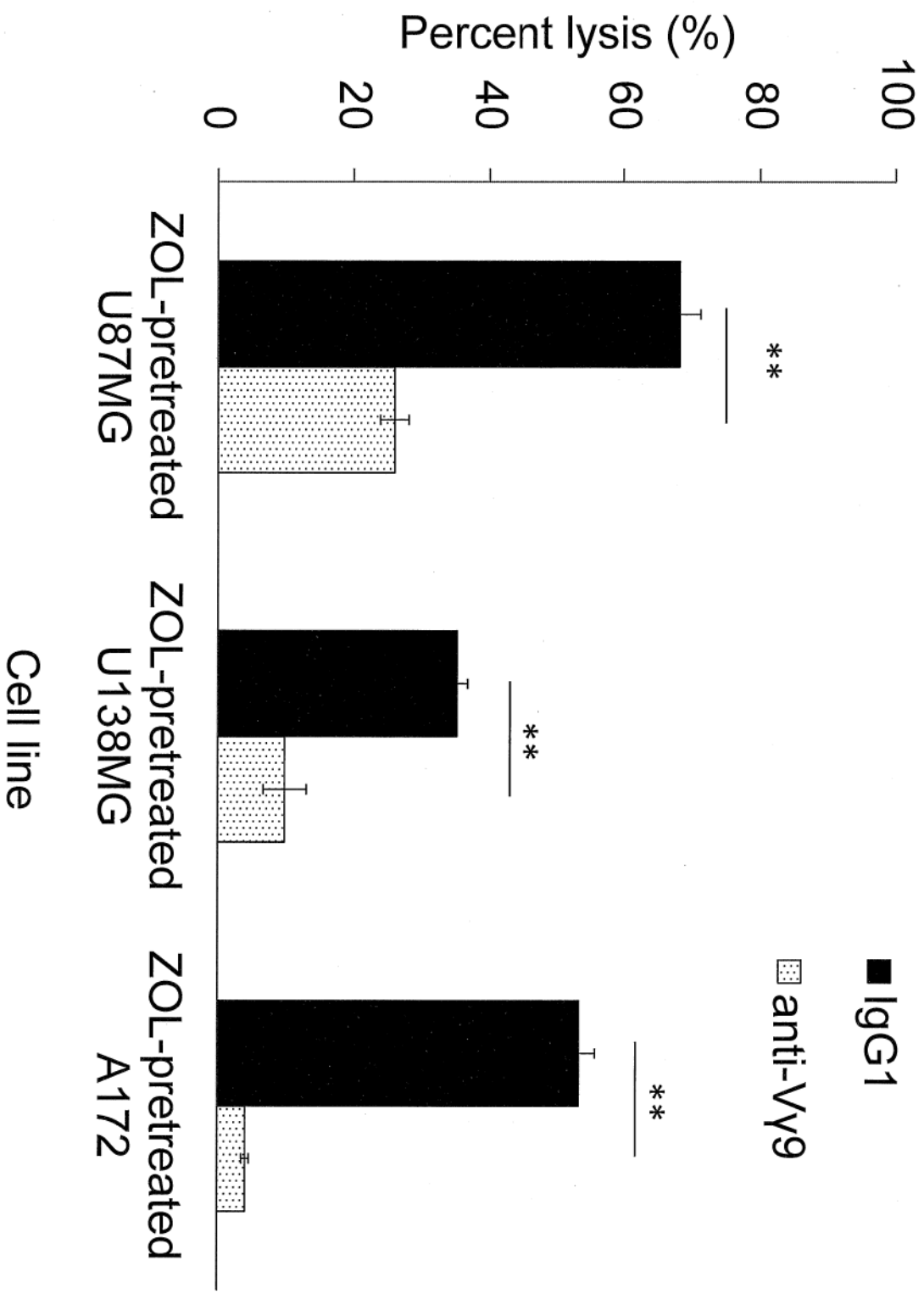


Figure 4d.

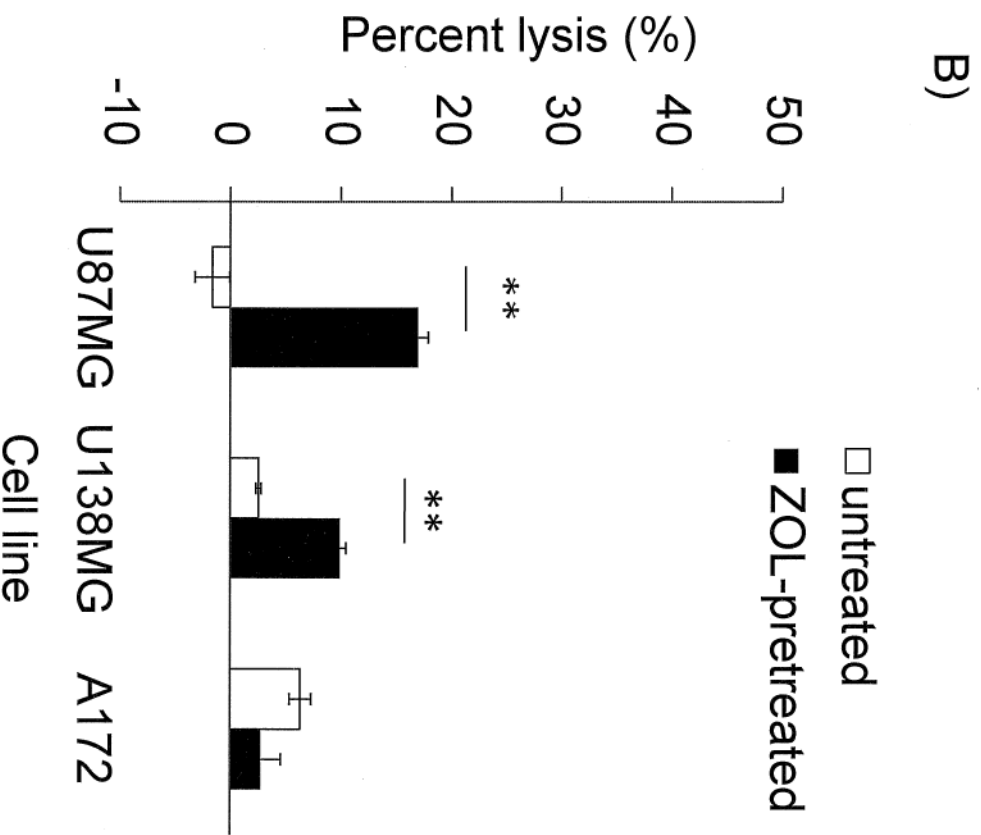
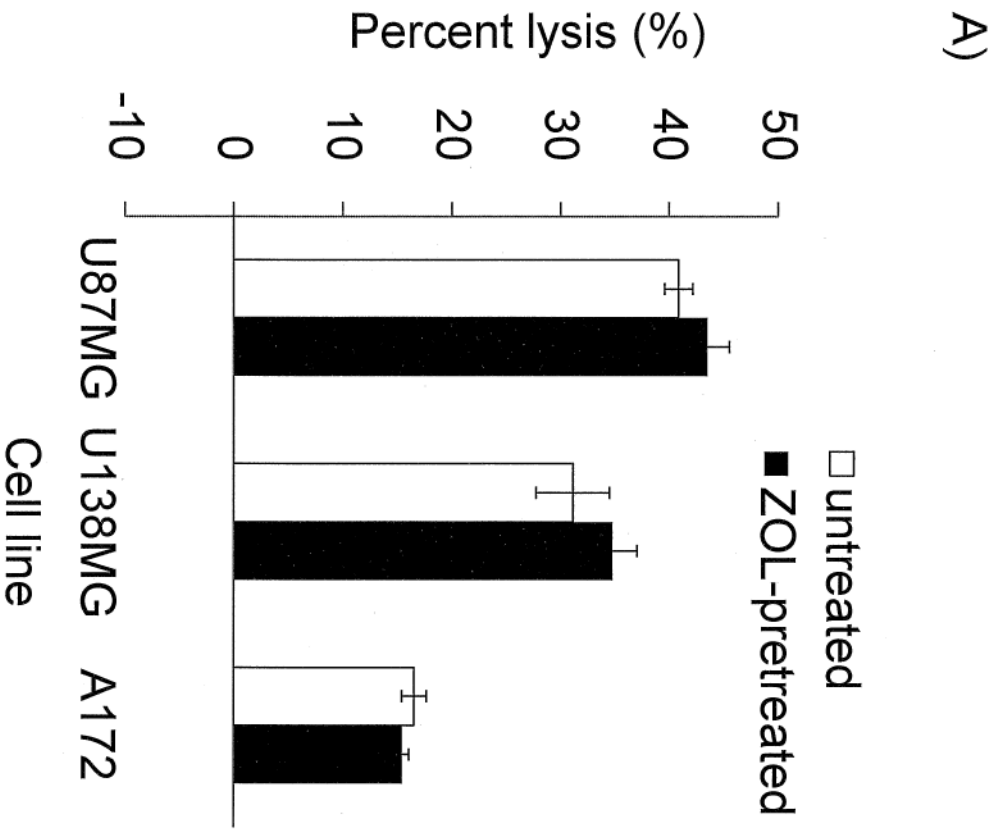


Table 1 Expression of ligands on GBM cell lines specific for receptors expressed on $\gamma\delta$ T cells

	HLA-ABC	HLA-E	PVR	nectin-2	CD48	MICA	MICB	ULBP1	ULBP2	ULBP3	ICAM-1	ICAM-2	ICAM-3
U87MG	17.7	0.9	18.6	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.1	1.3	2.9	1.9	4.7	0.9	1.1
UI38MG	23.8	1.8	15.2	2.4	1.1	1.1	1.0	3.5	5.1	1.9	8.3	1.5	2.3
A172	23.5	1.7	11.9	1.4	2.1	1.5	1.4	3.0	4.5	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.7
K562	1.3	1.3	31.0	1.7	1.2	1.2	3.0	2.0	8.6	2.3	7.5	5.3	1.0

GBM cell lines were analyzed by flow cytometry for expression of the indicated molecules. The numbers given are the ratios of mean fluorescence intensity (RFI) of values obtained in three independent experiments. Since K562 cells were HLA-ABC negative, an RFI of ≤ 1.3 was judged to be negative.

Supplemental materials and methods

Antibodies

PE-conjugated anti-TcR $\alpha\beta$ (clone, T10B9.1A-31; isotype, IgM), FITC-conjugated anti-TcR $\gamma\delta$ (11F2, IgG₁), anti-CD50 (TU41, IgG_{2b}), anti-CD94 (HP-3D9, IgG₁), anti-CD158a (HP-3E4, IgM), anti-CD158b (CH-L, IgG_{2b}), anti-CD161(DX12, IgG₁), PE-conjugated anti-CD226 (DX11, IgG₁) monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA, USA). Anti-CD16 (3G8, IgG₁), anti-CD56 (NKH-1, IgG₁), PE-conjugated anti-CD159a (Z199, IgG_{2b}), anti-CD178 (NOK-1, IgG₁), anti-CD244 (C1.7, IgG₁), anti-CD314 (ON72, IgG₁), PE-conjugated anti-CD335 (BAB281, IgG₁), PE-conjugated anti-CD336 (Z231, IgG₁), and PE-conjugated anti-CD337 (Z25, IgG₁) mAbs were purchased from Beckman-Coulter (Fullerton, CA, USA). Anti-CD54 (HA58, IgG₁), anti-CD102 (CBRIC2/2, IgG_{2a}), anti-CD48 (156-4H9, IgG₁), PE-conjugated anti-PVR (2H7CD155, IgG₁), anti-HLA-E (3D12HLA-E, IgG₁), anti-nectin-2 (R.2.525, IgG₁), and anti-HLA-ABC (W6/32, IgG_{2a}) mAbs were purchased from eBioscience (San Diego, CA, USA). Anti-CD2 (NU-TER, IgG₁), anti-CD3 (NU-T3, IgG_{2a}), anti-CD4 (NU-TH/I, IgG₁), and anti-CD8 (NU-TS/C, IgG_{2a}) mAbs were purchased from Nichirei Co. (Tokyo, Japan). Anti-CD11a (TS1/22, IgG₁) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc. Anti-MICA (AM01, IgG₁) and anti-MICB (BMO1, IgG₁) mAbs were purchased from MBL International Co. (Nagoya, Japan). Anti-ULBP1 (170818, IgG_{2a}), ULBP2 (165903, IgG_{2a}), and ULBP3 (166510, IgG_{2a}) mAbs were purchased from R&D systems (Minneapolis, MN, USA). Anti-mouse

PE-conjugated goat F(ab)₂ was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA, USA).

Isotype-specific control antibodies for mouse IgG₁, mouse IgG_{2a}, mouse IgG_{2b}, PE-conjugated mouse IgM, and FITC-conjugated mouse IgG₁ were purchased from eBioscience, and were used to measure background staining levels.