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Antitumor activity of pegylated human interferon β as monotherapy or in combination with immune checkpoint inhibitors via tumor growth inhibition and dendritic cell activation

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ABSTRACT

Type I interferons (IFN), especially human IFN alpha (IFN α), have been utilized for antitumor therapy for decades. Human interferon beta (IFN β) is rarely used for cancer treatment, despite advantages over IFN α in biological activities such as tumor growth inhibition and dendritic cell (DC) activation. The utilization of pegylated human IFN β (PEG-IFN β), as monotherapy or in combination with immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) was evaluated in this study through in vivo efficacy studies in syngeneic mouse melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), and colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) models resistant to immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs). In vitro comparative study of PEG-IFN β and pegylated IFN α -2b was performed in terms of tumor growth inhibitor against human melanoma, NSCLC and COAD cell lines and activation of human monocyte-derived DCs (MoDCs). Our data demonstrate that the in vivo antitumor effects of PEG-IFN β are partially attributable to tumor growth inhibitory effects and DC-activating activities, superior to pegylated IFN α -2b. Our findings suggest that utilizing PEG-IFN β as an antitumor therapy can enhance the therapeutic effect of ICIs in ICI-resistant tumors by directly inhibiting tumor growth and induction of DC maturation.

1. Introduction

Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), such as anti-programmed cell death protein 1/anti-programmed cell death 1 ligand 1 (PD-1/PD-L1) monoclonal antibodies, have made great success in the treatment of malignancies. Achievements in non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC), colorectal cancer (CRC), and melanoma have resulted in durable responses [1–4]. However, limited patients benefited from such treatments due to primary or acquired resistance attributed to loss of neoantigens, defective antigen presentation, and upregulation of immune checkpoints other than PD-1/PD-L1 [5–8]. In fact, objective response rates (ORR) in patients with positive expression of the PD-L1 biomarker range from 10 % to 40 % [9–13]. Therefore, it is necessary to explore new therapeutic strategies, such as combination therapy, to overcome drug resistance to ICIs.

Type I IFNs have enormous antitumor capabilities attributed to

direct inhibition of tumor cell proliferation and tumor angiogenesis, as well as immunomodulatory effects [14–17]. Emerging evidence suggests that type I IFNs can significantly induce tumor cell apoptosis and inhibit tumor cell proliferation and metastasis [15,18]. In addition, type I IFNs stimulate dendritic cell (DC) differentiation and maturation, thereby enhancing DC activity [19]. Adequate type I IFNs may be ideal collaborators for ICIs to enhance the therapeutic efficacy, especially in subpopulations of cancer patients with deficient antigen presentation and T cell priming.

Among the subtypes of type I IFNs, interferon alfa (IFN α) and Pegylated interferon alfa (PEG-IFN α) are of interest. IFN α [21] and PEG-IFN α [22,23] have been approved for the treatment of cancer. Compared to IFN α , another member of type I IFNs, interferon beta (IFN β) exhibits better antitumor potency which correlates with more potent receptor binding, DC activation and antiproliferative activity [24–29]. In the

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clinical setting, IFN β and pegylated interferon beta (PEG-IFN β) have been approved as disease-modifying therapies for multiple sclerosis (MS) [30,31]. To date, IFN β monotherapy, with moderate efficacy mainly through early phase studies [32,33] and ongoing phase III clinical trials [34], is approved only in Japan for the treatment of cancer [35]. The potency of IFN β in combination with ICIs has been explored preliminarily in clinical trials in melanoma patients [36] and preclinical studies of mouse IFN β in murine melanoma models [37,38]. A comprehensive preclinical elucidation of the efficacy of IFN β as monotherapy or in combination with ICIs in tumor models other than melanoma is warranted.

In this study, human IFN β was conjugated with polyethylene glycol (named PEG-IFN β) to conquer the deficiencies of cytokine-based therapies, such as rapid clearance and short half-life [39,40]. The efficacy of PEG-IFN β as monotherapy or in combination with anti-PD-1 antibody in lung cancer, colon cancer, and melanoma mouse models was elucidated. In addition, we compared the effect of PEG-IFN β and pegylated human IFN α -2b (PEG-IFN α -2b) on proliferation of human tumor cell lines (lung cancer, colon cancer, and melanoma) and activation of human monocyte-derived dendritic cells (MoDCs).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cells

Mouse LLC, MC38, B16F1 cells and human A549, A375, HCT116 cells were bought from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, USA), and cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (SinoCellTech Ltd., China) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (Gibco, USA) at 37°C. Human MoDCs were generated from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) (Oribiotech, China) cultured in RPMI (SinoCellTech Ltd., China) and 10 % FBS (Gibco, USA) at 37°C, supplemented with 20 ng/mL GM-CSF (R&D Systems, USA) and 160 ng/mL IL-4 (Sino Biological Inc., China). Expression of cell surface molecules was detected after treatment with PEG-IFN β (SinoCellTech Ltd., China) or PEG-IFN α -2b (Amoytop, China) for 72 h.

2.2. Mice

Female C57BL/6 mice (6—8 weeks) were purchased from Beijing Charles River Laboratory Animal Technology Co., Ltd. Human PD-1 knock-in mice (C57BL/6 background) were purchased from Beijing Biocytogen Co., Ltd. All animal experiments comply with Chinese animal use guidelines and the procedures were approved by the Committee of Laboratory Animal Welfare and Ethics of the National Institutions for Food and Drug Control [No. 2019(B) 001].

2.3. Evaluation of in vivo biological activity of PEG-IFN β in mice

C57BL/6 mice received a single subcutaneous (s.c.) injection of PEG-IFN β or mouse IFN β (PBL Assay Science, USA). Mouse sera were collected at 0, 2, 24 and 48 h, followed by flow cytometry to determine the expression levels of chemokines downstream of IFN β , such as CXCL1, CXCL9, CXCL10, and CCL2 [17,41–46].

2.4. Syngeneic tumor models

Mice were subcutaneously inoculated with 1.5×10^6 LLC cells, 1.0×10^6 B16F1 cells, and 1.0×10^6 MC38 cells in 100 uL of PBS into the right dorsal flank. Tumor volumes were calculated as follows: volume (mm³) = (width \times length²) / 2. Tumor growth inhibition ratio (TGI) was calculated as follows: TGI (%) = $(1-V_t / V_v) \times 100$ %. V_t : tumor volume in the treatment group; Vv: tumor volume in the vehicle group. When tumor volumes reached 50—100 mm³, mice were subjected to treatment with PEG-IFN β (s.c.), anti-human PD-1 antibody (SCTI10A, SinoCellTech Ltd) or anti-mouse PD-1 antibody (BioXcell, USA) injected intraperitoneally

(i.p.), or combination therapy. Dosages and treatment intervals were shown in figure legends.

2.5. Immunohistochemistry

Mouse tumor tissues were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (Sigma, USA) for 24 h, dehydrated and cleared in xylene (Sinopharm, China). 4- μ m sections were treated with 3 % hydrogen peroxide (Sinopharm, China) for 15 min, autoclaved with 0.01 mol/L EDTA (Shhushi, China) and blocked with 10 % goat serum (ZSGB-BIO, China) for 30 min at room temperature. Slides were incubated with anti-CD3 antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, USA) overnight at 4°C, stained with goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody (ZSGB-BIO, China) for 1 h, visualized with 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) (ZSGB-BIO, China), and counterstained with hematoxylin (Njjcbio, China) at room temperature. Morphological evaluation was performed by image scanner (KFBIO, China). The IHC staining intensity for anti-CD3 antibody was semi-quantified based on a five-point scale [47,48].

2.6. Cell proliferation assay

A549, A375 and HCT116 cells were seeded in 96-well plates (Corning, USA) at a density of 5×10^3 cells/well. After 24 h, cells were treated with PEG-IFN α -2b or PEG-IFN β for 96 h. Cells were incubated in the dark at 37°C for 2 h in the presence of Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) reagents (10 μ L/well) (Meilune, China). Absorbance at 450 nm was measured by a microplate reader (BioTex, USA). Clone formation assay was performed by crystal violet staining, and data analysis was performed with image J (National Institutes of Health, USA).

2.7. Flow cytometry

For chemokine assay, mouse sera were mixed with anti-CXCL1, anti-CXCL9, anti-CXCL10, and anti-CCL2 antibodies for further detection according to the manufacturer's instructions (CBA kit, Biolegend, USA). For tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) assay, TILs were isolated (MACs, USA) and stained for CD49b, CD45, NK1.1, CD4, and CD8 (BD, USA). For DC activation assay, MoDCs were stained with anti-CD11c (BD, USA), anti-HLA-DR, anti-CD80, anti-CD83 and anti-CD86 antibodies (Biolegend, USA). FACS was performed using FACSCelesta (BD, USA) and analyzed with FlowJo software (FlowJo, USA).

2.8. Statistical analysis

All data were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Graphpad Prism 8.0 software (GraphPad Software, USA) was used for data analysis. Comparisons between two groups were performed using unpaired *t*-test. Comparisons between multiple groups were performed by one-way analysis of variance and Tukey-Kramer test analysis. A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. In vivo biological activity of PEG-IFN β in mice

Human IFN β (hIFN β) shares 49.2 % sequence identity with mouse IFN β (mIFN β) [49]. The receptors for type I interferons share approximately 50 % sequence identity between humans and mice [50]. To verify the feasibility of using mouse syngeneic tumor models to study the efficacy of PEG-IFN β , we validated the biological activity of PEG-IFN β in C57BL/6 mice. A single dose of PEG-IFN β was injected subcutaneously into C57BL/6 mice at three dose levels (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU, and 10⁷ IU). mIFN β (0.1 mg/kg) was used as positive control. Serum levels of IFN β downstream chemokines were measured before and after dosing at indicated time points (Fig. 1). Elevated serum levels of all tested chemokines were observed in both the PEG-IFN β and mIFN β treated groups.



Fig. 1. Characterization of chemokine levels in mouse serum after PEG-IFN β or mouse IFN β treatment. C57BL/6 mice (n = 4/group) were injected subcutaneously with a single dose of PEG-IFN β (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU, and 10⁷ IU, respectively) or mIFN β (0.1 mg/kg). Serum levels of CXCL1 (A), CXCL9 (B), CXCL10 (C) and CCL2 (D) were measured predose (0 h) and postdose (2 h, 24 h and 48 h).



Fig. 2. Antitumor effects of PEG-IFN β monotherapy in syngeneic mouse models of Melanoma, NSCLC and COAD. C57BL/6 mice (n = 6/group) were inoculated with B16F1 (**A**), LLC (**B**), and MC38 (**C**) cell lines, and treated with PEG-IFN β (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU and 10⁷ IU) administered subcutaneously 3 times per week. Upper panel: Tumor growth curves. Bottom panel: TGI at the end of the experiment.

Serum concentrations of CXCL1, CXCL10 and CCL2 reached peak levels 2 h after administration and gradually decreased thereafter (Fig. 1A,C, D). CXCL9 peaked at 2 h after mIFN β administration and 24 h in the serum of PEG-IFN β -treated mice (Fig. 1B). Therefore, PEG-IFN β could activate the expression of chemokines downstream of mIFN β , suggesting that syngeneic mouse tumor models were suitable for evaluating the therapeutic effect of PEG-IFN β .

3.2. Therapeutic effect of PEG-IFN β in syngeneic mouse models of melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), and colon adenocarcinoma (COAD)

To evaluate the therapeutic effect of PEG-IFN β as monotherapy, C57BL/6 mice were inoculated with the mouse melanoma cell line B16F1, the lung cancer cell line LLC, or the colorectal cancer cell line MC38, with non-inflammatory immune phenotypes or enriched immunosuppressive cells [51,52], implicating resistant to ICIs, were treated with PEG-IFN β (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU and 10⁷ IU) three times per week.

In the B16F1 melanoma tumor model, enhanced antitumor effects were observed compared to the LLC model. In the PEG-IFNβ-treated groups (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU, and 10⁷ IU/dose), the TGI at the end of the experiment (day 10) were 49.8 %, 55.6 % and 76.2 %, respectively (Fig. 2A). The tumor volume in PEG-IFNβ (10⁷ IU) treatment group was significantly lower than that in the vehicle group (1026.4 \pm 538.1 mm³ vs. 242.8 \pm 225.2 mm³, P < 0.01). In the LLC NSCLC tumor model, PEG-

IFNβ inhibited tumor growth in a dose-dependent manner. TGI at the end of the experiment (day 11) was 10.2 %, 34.8 % and 45.0 % in mice treated with 10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU and 10⁷ IU of PEG-IFNβ, respectively (Fig. 2B). A significant difference in tumor volume was observed between the PEG-IFNβ (10⁷ IU) treated group and the vehicle group (266.5 \pm 80.3 mm³ vs. 148.6 \pm 109.6 mm³, *P* < 0.05). In the MC38 COAD tumor model, TGI on day 14 for each PEG-IFNβ treated group (10⁵ IU, 10⁶ IU, and 10⁷ IU/dose) was 20.5 %, 14.0 % and 53.8 %, comparable to those in the LLC model (Fig. 2C). PEG-IFNβ (10⁷ IU) treatment lead to significantly lower tumor volume than the vehicle group (1040.0 \pm 483.4 mm³ vs. 464.8 \pm 170.3 mm³, *P* < 0.05).

3.3. PEG-IFN β enhanced the antitumor effects of anti-PD1 antibodies in syngeneic mouse models of melanoma, NSCLC, and COAD

Next, the efficacy of PEG-IFN β on reinforcing the therapeutic effect of the immune checkpoint blocker anti-PD-1 antibody was verified in mouse LLC, B16F1, and MC38 tumor models.

In the B16F1 model, both anti-mPD-1 antibody and PEG-IFN β showed moderate efficacy, with a TGI of 40.6 % and 37.1 % (day 13), respectively, reaching 60 % in the combined treatment group (Fig. 3A). We further verified this effect in the LLC model. The antitumor effects of PEG-IFN β and an anti-human PD-1 antibody (SCT-I10A), were evaluated in LLC-tumor bearing hPD-1 knock-in (KI) C57BL/6 mice as monotherapy or in combination. On day 18 after treatment, SCT-I10A



Fig. 3. Synergistic antitumor effects of PEG-IFN β and anti-PD-1 therapeutic antibody in syngeneic mouse models of Melanoma, NSCLC, and COAD. (A) C57BL/6 mice bearing melanoma B16F1 (n = 6/group), (B) hPD-1 KI C57BL/6 mice bearing lung cancer LLC (n = 8/group), and (C) hPD-1 KI C57BL/6 mice bearing colorectal cancer MC38 (n = 7/group), were injected with PEG-IFN β (s.c.) 3 times a week or anti-PD1 antibody (i.p) twice a week at indicated dose levels. Upper panel: Tumor growth curves. Bottom panel: TGI at the end of the experiment.

monotherapy (10 mg/kg) exhibited significant tumor growth inhibitory ability with a TGI of 95.1 %, while low-dose PEG-IFN β monotherapy (10⁵ IU) could hardly inhibit the growth of LLC cell line in vivo. All mice in the combination therapy group achieved a complete response (CR) from day 16 on, with a slight increase in TGI compared with anti-hPD-1 monotherapy (95.1 % vs. 100 %) (Fig. 3B). In the MC38 model, hPD-1 KI C57BL/6 mice bearing MC38 tumor were administered with SCT-I10A at a relatively low dose (2 mg/kg) as monotherapy or in combination with a moderate dose (10⁶ IU) of PEG-IFN β . On day 16 after treatment, the TGI for combination therapy was 23.8 %, better than that for each monotherapy group (12.4 % for PEG-IFN β , and – 5.8 % for anti-hPD-1) (Fig. 3C).

3.4. Immunomodulatory effects of $IFN\beta$ on the tumor microenvironment of B16F1 melanoma

With the ability to inhibit melanoma cell growth and induce dendritic cells to cross-prime CD8⁺ T cells in vitro and in vivo, IFN β has been used clinically to treat malignant melanoma [35,45,53]. We validated the immunomodulatory effect of IFN-β on the tumor microenvironment in the B16F1 melanoma model. The ratio of CD8⁺T/CD4⁺T and CD8⁺T/ Treg, which indicate the potency of anti-tumor T cell immunity [54,55], showed no difference between the vehicle-treated group and each monotherapy group as demonstrated by flow cytometry analysis (P >0.05) (Fig. 4A,B). Innate immunity plays a unique role in antitumor immunity [17,56-58]. In mice administered with PEG-IFN β , the number of NK cells in B16F1 tumor significantly increased (0.83 \pm 0.29 vs. 1.98 \pm 0.73, *P* < 0.01) (Fig. 4C). Combination therapy induced an increase in antitumor innate immunity and T cell immunity, as indicated by the ratio of CD8⁺T/Treg (2.59 \pm 1.33 vs 5.71 \pm 4.92, ns.), CD8⁺T/CD4⁺T (0.63 \pm 0.22 vs. 1.97 \pm 1.57, P < 0.05) (Fig. 4A,B), and the percentage of NK cells (0.83 % \pm 0.29 vs. 1.81 % \pm 0.45, P < 0.05) (Fig. 4C). No change in the number of tumor-infiltrating CD3⁺T cells was detected by IHC in each monotherapy group, when compared with the vehicletreated group. In sharp contrast, when PEG-IFN β and anti-PD1 were administered simultaneously, the CD3-positive signal in tumor tissues significantly increased (Fig. 4D).

3.5. PEG-IFN β exhibits superior growth inhibitory activity to PEG-IFN α -2b against human melanoma, NSCLC, and COAD cell lines

To further elucidate the clinically relevant biological function of PEG-IFN β , the effect of PEG-IFN β on the proliferative capacity of human melanoma cell line A375, NSCLC cell line A549, and COAD cell line HCT116 was evaluated via CCK-8 assay and clone formation assay. PEG-IFN α -2b was used as a comparator.

In the presence of a wide range of concentrations of PEG-IFN β , a significant reduction in tumor cell growth rate was observed. Notably, PEG-IFN β exhibited stronger tumor growth inhibitory ability than PEG-IFN α -2b in vitro, as demonstrated by the half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) for A375 (2312.0 ng/mL vs. 177.0 ng/mL) (Fig. 5A), A549 (78.9 ng/mL vs. 14.3 ng/mL) (Fig. 5B), and HCT116 (8093.0 ng/mL vs. 945.3 ng/mL) (Fig. 5C). These findings were further validated by clone formation assay, as indicated by the colony number for A375 (268.0 ± 23.1 vs. 202.8 ± 56.8), A549 (183.1 ± 23.1 vs. 84.3 ± 12.8), and HCT116 (372.5 ± 52.5 vs. 233.8 ± 27.6) (Fig. 5D).

3.6. PEG-IFN β promotes human monocyte-derived DCs (MoDC) maturation more effectively than PEG-IFN α -2b

To investigate the role of PEG-IFNα-2b and PEG-IFNβ in regulating MoDC maturation, human PBMCs were cultured in the presence of GM-CSF (20 ng/mL) and IL-4 (160 ng/mL) to generate immature MoDC, which were subsequently treated with serial dilutions of PEG-IFN α -2b or PEG-IFNB. Viable cells were sorted with 7-AAD negative areas and stained for CD3⁺CD14⁺CD19⁺CD20⁺ to exclude T cells, B cells and monocytes. DCs were gated based on HLA-DR and CD11c staining. Cell surface expression levels of DC maturation markers (CD80, CD83 and CD86), were subsequently measured by flow cytometry (Fig. 6A). Compared with PEG-IFN α -2b (50 ng/mL), PEG-IFN β (50 ng/mL) showed a higher ability to promote the expression of DC maturation biomarkers, demonstrated by percentages of CD80 (4.10 % vs. 8.94 %), CD83 (5.74 % vs. 10.20 %), and CD86 (25.80 % vs. 37.90 %) positive MoDC subsets (Fig. 6B, Supplementary Table S1). These findings were further validated when MoDCs were cultured with PEG-IFN α -2b or PEG-IFN β at different concentrations (50 - 400 ng/mL) (Fig. 6C). Our data suggests



Fig. 4. Enhanced antitumor immunity mediated by PEG-IFN β in the mouse B16F1 melanoma model. B16F1-bearing C57BL/6 mice (n = 6/group) were administered with PEG-IFN β (s.c.) and anti-mPD-1 antibody (i.p.) on day 1 and day 4, as a single agent or in combination. Tumor tissues were isolated on day 6 and subjected to analysis of tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) by flow cytometry (**A**, **B**, and **C**) or CD3⁺ T cells by IHC (**D**). *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01. Scale bar: 100 µm.



Fig. 5. PEG-IFN β produces higher growth inhibitory activity against human melanoma, NSCLC, and COAD cell lines compared to PEG-IFN α -2b. Effects of PEG-IFN α -2b and PEG-IFN β on the proliferation of A375 cells (**A**), A549 cells (**B**) and HCT116 cells (**C**). IC₅₀, half maximal inhibitory concentration. (**D**) Representative images of clone formation assay (left), and statistical analysis of colony number (right). Data are presented as mean \pm SD. *, *P* < 0.05 (PEG-IFN β vs. PEG-IFN α -2b).

that PEG-IFN β promotes human MoDC maturation more effectively than PEG-IFN $\alpha\text{-}2b.$

4. Discussion

Among type I Interferons, IFN α has been widely evaluated in cancer therapy, especially for the treatment of melanoma, either as monotherapy or in combination with ICIs. IFN α combined with anti-CTLA-4 immunotherapy produced acceptable safety and promising clinical activity in patients with metastatic melanoma in a phase II trial [59]. Phase I/II trials with anti-PD-1 plus PEG-IFN α combination demonstrated more activated tumour-reactive T cells, leading to improved clinical outcomes in patients with metastatic melanoma [59,60]. Coadministration with Pembrolizumab and IFN α -2b in patients with resectable stage III/IV melanoma showed a manageable safety profile with improved overall response rate (73.3 %) and pathologic complete response rate (43 %), superior to IFN α -2b monotherapy [61]. A neoadjuvant, consisting of Ipilimumab and IFN α -2b, has been used to treat patients with locally/regionally advanced melanoma with a favorable safety profiles and promising response rates [17,62].

In terms of antitumor therapy, preliminary data showed that IFN β exhibited superior antitumor potency to IFN α , which may be attribute in part to the enhanced potency of IFN β in receptor binding [17,27], tumor cell growth inhibition and apoptosis induction [24–26], DCs activation [17,28], and angiogenesis inhibition [29] as shown by comparative in vitro assessments of human IFN α and IFN β . A recent in vivo analysis of mouse IFN α and IFN β suggests that IFN β may be a better adjuvant than several subtypes of IFN α [63].

In the current study, we investigated the in vivo antitumor efficacy of PEG-IFN β as monotherapy or in combination with anti-PD-1 antibodies in three syngeneic mouse tumor models (melanoma, NSCLC, and COAD). Although mIFN β does not show anti-proliferative effect on human tumor cells due to limited cross-species activity [64]. hIFN β exhibited weak but definite cross-species activity in mice (Fig. 1). The same conclusion has been reached as indicated by preclinical studies of hIFN β (such as Rebif®) in experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis



Fig. 6. PEG-IFN β enhanced cell surface expression of human MoDC maturation markers more efficiently than PEG-IFN α -2b. (**A**) Flow sort diagram image of MoDCs. (**B**) Flow histogram images of CD80, CD83 and CD86 expressed on MoDCs treated by PEG-IFN α -2b or PEG-IFN β (50 ng/mL). Representative results of 6 independent experiments. (**C**) The expression levels of CD80, CD83 and CD86 on MoDCs, cocultured with PEG-IFN α -2b or PEG-IFN β (50 – 400 ng/mL) determined by flow cytometry.

(EAE) mouse model [65] and syngeneic murine melanoma model [66]. PEG-IFN β as a single agent slowed tumor cell growth in vivo in all models (Fig. 2), and enhanced the antitumor benefit of ICIs in a combination setting (Fig. 3). These findings validate the conclusions when mIFN β was used for treatment in mouse melanoma models [37,38,63].

Furthermore, administration of PEG-IFN β at high dose levels (10⁷ IU, equal to 5.8 mg/kg) induced only moderate responses compared to mIFN β (0.1 mpk) (Fig. 1). Future studies are necessary to accurately elucidate the dose–response relationship of PEG-IFN β , and the antitumor effects of different IFN signaling strengths (hIFN α vs. hIFN β) in mouse models carrying human type I interferon receptors (IFNARs), such as human IFNAR transgenic mice [17,50], which was not available at the time of this study. Xenograft models based on mice with a functional humanized immune system might be an alternative approach to comprehensively understand how hIFN β modulates the anti-tumor immune responses. Furthermore, since syngeneic mouse models are immunogenic differently than human tumors of the same tissue origin [67], further studies based on patient-derived xenograft (PDX) models may provide more additional clinically relevant implications for clinical translation.

The synergistic suppression of tumor growth by combination treatment with ICIs and PEG-IFN β can be partially attributed to CD8⁺ T cells and NK cells, since the cause-and-effect relationship between intratumoral effector cells and tumor suppression after treatment with IFN- β or ICIs has been comprehensively clarified by previous research through antibody-mediated depletion of T cells or NK cells [64,68–70]. Increased presence of intratumoral effector cells confirmed the above findings (Fig. 4).

In vitro comparative study between PEG-IFN β and PEG-IFN α -2b demonstrated superior activity of PEG-IFN β in inhibiting human tumor cell proliferation (Fig. 5) and activating human MoDCs (Fig. 6), in alignment with previously reported findings [27,28]. Anti-angiogenic

activity, another approach used by type I IFNs to inhibit tumor development [14], has been evaluated comparatively between hIFN α and hIFN β [29] but was not explored in this study. Cytokines can be pleiotropic [71] and the impact of type I IFN signaling strength on antitumor effects is context-dependent [17,72]. In a clinical setting, the baseline strength of the type I IFN signal should be noted and incorporated into the evaluation of treatment modalities including type I IFN therapy.

In conclusion, our study demonstrates the antitumor activity of PEG-IFN β as monotherapy or in combination with ICIs. PEG-IFN β exhibits greater potency in human tumor growth inhibition and human MoDC activation compared to PEG-IFN α -2b. Future application of PEG-IFN β in clinical settings should be further evaluated.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Rui Wang: Conceptualization, Investigation, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Tao Zhang: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft. Yuan Lu: Investigation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing – original draft. Yalong Lin: Investigation, Data curation. Shuyuan Kou: Investigation, Data curation. Xuefeng Li: Writing – review & editing. Yang Wang: Writing – review & editing. Liangzhi Xie: Supervision, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Conceptualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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