γδ T cells in hematological malignancies: mechanisms and therapeutic strategies

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Abstract

 $\gamma\delta$ T cells are a unique subset of lymphocytes with both innate and adaptive features. They recognize and eradicate various hematological malignancies through different mechanisms, employing factors including $\gamma\delta$ TCR, NKR, NKG2D, TRAIL, and perforin/ granzyme. They also modulate other immune cells to enhance their antitumor activity. Moreover, $\gamma\delta$ T cells have potent antiviral functions after hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT), which may improve the outcome of patients with hematological malignancies. In this review, we summarize the current knowledge on $\gamma\delta$ T cell biology and function in hematological malignancies and HSCT complications. We also discuss the challenges and limitations of the clinical application of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, such as their low frequency in peripheral blood and heterogeneity among different subsets. We then highlight some promising strategies for $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based therapy, such as using agonist antibodies, cell engagers, or genetic modification technology. Furthermore, we review the recent clinical trials evaluating the safety and efficacy of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell therapy in different hematological malignancies. In conclusion, $\gamma\delta$ T cells represent a promising immunotherapeutic tool for hematological malignancies that deserves further exploration.

Key Words: $\gamma\delta$ T; Hematological malignancies; Immune cell therapy

1. INTRODUCTION

Hematological malignancies are a heterogeneous group of cancers that originate from blood cells or their precursors. They include leukemia, malignant lymphoma, myeloproliferative neoplasm (MPN), myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS), and multiple myeloma (MM). These diseases are characterized by high incidence and mortality rates, especially among children and adolescents. The current standard treatment for hematological malignancies is chemotherapy combined with hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT), which can achieve long-term remission or cure for some patients. In spite of this, leukemia and non-Hodgkin lymphoma still rank in the top 10 in

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 $\gamma\delta$ T cells are a subset of T lymphocytes that express the $\gamma\delta$ T-cell receptor (TCR) instead of the $\alpha\beta$ TCR. Unlike conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells that recognize peptide antigens presented by major histocompatibility complex (MHC) molecules, γδ T cells recognize nonpeptide antigens such as phosphoantigens (PAgs) or stress-induced molecules in an MHC-unrestricted manner.^{3,4} Therefore, $\gamma\delta$ T cells can respond rapidly to exogenous pathogens and endogenous tumor cells without prior sensitization. In conclusion, γδ T cells play extensive roles in immune surveillance and anti-infection activity. In fact, there exist several subsets of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, which distribute in different tissues and obtain various capabilities. Although $\gamma\delta$ T cells are generally considered to possess robust anticancer ability, the interleukin (IL)-17Aproducing $\gamma\delta$ T cells are demonstrated that play an active role in inflammation,⁵ autoimmune dieases,⁶ and protumor activities.⁷ Besides, $\gamma\delta$ T cells reside in specific tissues and are essential for body homeostasis.^{8,9} Overall, $\gamma\delta$ T cells play a pivotal role in bridging innate and adaptive immunity and clarifying their specific responsibilities under different circumstances is needed.

In recent years, immunotherapy has emerged as a new pillar for hematological malignancy treatment, showing remarkable efficacy and safety in clinical trials.^{10,11} Among the different types of immune cells that can be used for adoptive cell therapy, $\gamma\delta$ T cells have attracted considerable attention due to their unique features and functions. Accumulating evidence indicates that $\gamma\delta$ T cells display a robust tumor cell-killing capacity. Unlike

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conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize tumor antigens in an MHC-unrestricted manner and cause minimal GvHD, making them an attractive "off-the-shelf" product. In this review, we provide an overview of different subsets of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, discuss their mechanisms and application in hematological malignancies treatment and HSCT settings, and focus on novel strategies of $\gamma\delta$ T-cell therapy, with the purpose of providing a brief review of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in hematological malignancies.

2. IDENTITIES OF $\gamma\delta$ T Cells

2.1. Subsets and origins of $\gamma\delta$ T cells

 $\gamma\delta$ T cells are a diverse set of cells carrying distinct $\gamma\delta$ TCR chains. They exhibit great heterogeneity with distinct tissue localization and function. Human $\gamma\delta$ T cells are usually classified into V δ 1, V δ 2, and V δ 3 subsets according to their TCR δ chain. In the light of TCR γ chain usage, V δ 2 T cells are the main subset of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and usually interact with V γ 9. They predominate in peripheral blood and account for 1% to 10% of lymphocytes in human peripheral blood.¹² Unlike V δ 2 T cells, V δ 1 T cells and V δ 3 T cells are rare and mainly reside in mucosal tissues.¹³

 $\gamma\delta$ T cells were first defined by their expression of $\gamma\delta$ TCR genes in the mid-1980s.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Studies of $\gamma\delta$ T cells development are usually in mice, only a few studies have examined $\gamma\delta$ T cells in human. In mice, the intrathymic development of $\gamma\delta$ T cells appears in fetal.¹⁷ They originate from common thymic precursors as $\alpha\beta$ T cells and branch from double-negative (DN) thymocytes stage. Differently, $\gamma\delta$ T cells develop and depart from the thymus in coordinated and successive waves, which are in the following order: the dendritic epidermal T cells, the IL-17-producing $\gamma\delta$ T ($\gamma\delta$ T17) cells, and the $\gamma\delta$ NKT cells.¹⁸ Similarly to mice, the first $\gamma\delta$ T cells developed in human thymus are V γ 9V δ 2 T cells and then the V δ 1 T cells. They complete their lineage commitment at the DN3 stage during thymic development and ultimately migrate to peripheral blood or tissues¹⁹ (Fig. 1). Besides, study of human peripheral blood and postnatal thymus suggests that V $\gamma9V\delta2~T$ cells may experience expansion in the periphery. 20

2.2. Antigen recognition of γδ TCR

Conventional $\alpha\beta T$ cells recognize their antigens which are peptides presented by MHC molecules via TCR. Vy9V82 T cells, the predominant subset of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, recognize the PAgs produced by bacteria or viruses through nonmevalonate isoprenoid synthesis pathways, such as the high-affinity PAg (E)-4-hydroxy-3-methyl-but-2-enyl-pyrophosphate (HMBPP)²¹ and endogenous PAgs, such as the lower-affinity PAg isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), which are generated via the mevalonate pathway in the tumor microenvironment.²² The activation of $\sqrt{10}$ Vy9V82 T cells depends on the binding of PAgs and butyrophilin subfamily 3 member A1 (BTN3A1), which induces a conformational change in BTN3A1 and interaction with BTN2A1.23 Therefore, aminobisphosphonates such as zoledronate (ZOL), which disrupt the mevalonate pathway and cause an accumulation of IPP, or synthetic PAg analogs, such as bromohydrin pyrophosphate (BrHPP) are commonly used to expand $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells.²⁴ In addition, unlike V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, V δ 1 T cells, the major tissue $\gamma\delta$ T cells subset, recognize lipid antigen presented by CD1^{25,26} and function as naive cells in host defense. Overall, knowledge about $\gamma\delta$ TCR remains poorly understood, and the molecular basis involved needs to be elucidated.

3. FUNCTIONS OF $\gamma\delta$ T CELLS IN HEMATOLOGICAL CANCERS

3.1. Mechanisms of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-mediated killing in hematological malignancies

The antitumor functions of $\gamma\delta$ T cells have been demonstrated in vitro and in mouse models (Fig. 2). Girardi et al first showed this ability in mice with cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma,

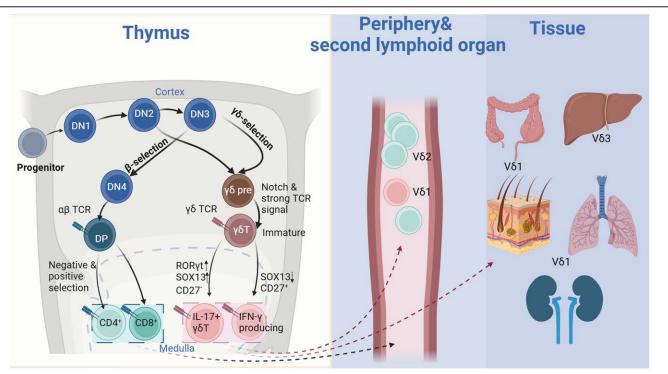


Figure 1. $\gamma\delta$ T cell development. The diagram depicts the development of $\gamma\delta$ T cell and $\alpha\beta$ T cell from bone marrow progenitors. They originate from common thymic precursors and branch from DN3 thymocytes stage. Functional expression of $\alpha\beta$ TCR or $\gamma\delta$ TCR drives cells into $\alpha\beta$ T or $\gamma\delta$ T cell lineage. $\alpha\beta$ T cells which undergo positive and negative selection are mature and eventually migrate to periphery and second lymphoid organ. While $\gamma\delta$ T cells gain IL-17 or IFN- γ -producing properties through different transcriptional factor signal and ultimately migrate to peripheral blood or tissues. IFN- γ = interferon- γ , IL-17 = interleukin 17, TCR = T-cell receptor.

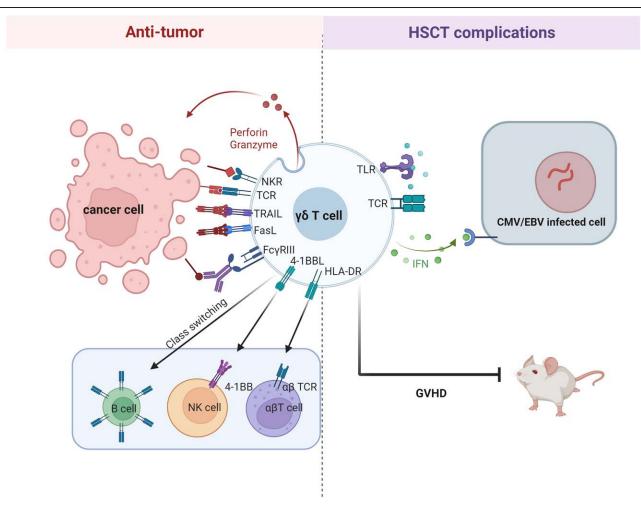


Figure 2. The functions of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Human $\gamma\delta$ T cells exhibit potent cytotoxicity against various tumors through multiple mechanisms, such as receptor-ligand interactions (eg, $\gamma\delta$ TCR, NKR, TRAIL, and FasL), cytokine secretion (eg, IFN- γ , TNF- α) and release of cytolytic granules (eg, granzyme B and perforin). They can also mediate ADCC against tumor cells. Furthermore, they can modulate anticancer immunity by interacting with other immune cells, such as B cells, NK cells, and $\alpha\beta$ T cells. In particular, V82-negative T cells have been shown to play a crucial role in controlling CMV and EBV infections after HSCT, as they can recognize viral particles or infected cells via TLRs, $\gamma\delta$ TCRs, and NKG2D, and exert antiviral effects by producing IFN or lysing infected cells directly or indirectly through cross-talk with other immune cells. The role of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in GVHD is still unclear, but some studies have reported that $\gamma\delta$ T17 and V $\gamma4$ T cells could ameliorate GvHD in mouse models. ADCC = antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity, CMV = cytomegalovirus, EBV = Epstein–Barr virus, FasL = Fas ligand, GvHD = graft-versus-host disease, GZMB = granzyme B, HSCT = hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, IFN- γ = interferon- γ , NKG2D = natural killer group 2-member D, TCR = T-cell receptor, TLR = toll-like receptor, TNF- α = tumor necrosis factor α , TRAIL = tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand. Figures are created with Biorender.com.

demonstrating that $\gamma\delta$ T cells suppressed cancer development.²⁷ Subsequently, $\gamma\delta$ T cells were shown to effectively lyse various cancer cells, including those from solid tumors and hematolog-ical malignancies.²⁸⁻³⁰ Furthermore, several clinical trials have confirmed the safety of yo T cells in adoptive immune cell therapy.³¹ $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize cancer cells mainly via $\gamma\delta$ TCR and NKR. Therefore, ZOL-pretreated tumor cell lines that accumulate IPP are sensitive to γδ T-cell killing.³² Gertner-Dardenne et al³³ reported that DNAX accessory molecule-1 (DNAM-1) ligands such as poliovirus receptor (PVR, CD155) and Nectin-2 were more highly expressed in acute myeloid leukemia (AML) blasts and confirmed the TCR- and DNAM-1-dependent cytotoxicity of Vy9V62 T cells using blocking assays. Moreover, AML blasts could be killed by the perforin and granzyme pathways.³³ Kunzmann's³⁴ group showed that $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells were directly activated by NKG2D by binding with MHC class I chain-related protein A (MICA), and they identified the NKG2D ligand ULBP1 as a significant biomarker to predict sensitivity to Vy9V82 T-cell killing through comprehensive analysis of primary AML samples.³⁵ In addition, soluble ULBP4, another NKG2D ligand, was shown to activate $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells via both γδ TCR and NKG2D.36 On the other hand, stress-induced MICA and MHC class I chain-related protein B (MICB) or soluble MIC ligands were also found to be recognized by intestinal epithelial Võ1 T cells.^{37,38} Võ1 T cells could be induced to express NKp30, NKp44, and NKp46 in a manner dependent on phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (AKT) signaling, resulting in increased cytotoxicity against lymphoid leukemia cells and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), with abundant granzyme B, interferon- γ (IFN- γ) and tumor necrosis factor α (TNF-a) secretion.^{30,39} Moreover, tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) and Fas are involved in the killing activity of Võ1 T cells against B-CLL cell lines.⁴⁰ Notably, Vy9V82 T cells can mediate cytotoxicity via antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC), which enhances monoclonal antibody therapy. $^{\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!^{41,42}}$ In addition, $\gamma\delta$ T cells also mediate antitumor activity by interacting with other immune cells, such as activating natural kill (NK) cells through 4-1BB, assisting antibody class switching of B cells and activating $\alpha\beta$ T cells via human leukocyte antigen (HLA)-DR molecules.7

 $\gamma\delta$ T cells have demonstrated significant antitumor activity in various hematologic malignancies, despite these capabilities,

γδ T cells face significant challenges within the tumor microenvironment (TME) that can lead to functional impairment and exhaustion. Continuous exposure to tumor-associated PAgs, such as IPP and HMBPP, drives $\gamma\delta$ T cells toward a state of chronic stimulation, ultimately leading to exhaustion.43 The enhanced mevalonate pathway activity in tumor cells increases the production of PAgs, which overstimulates $\gamma\delta$ T cells, diminishing their antitumor efficacy. The immunosuppressive nature of the TME is reinforced by a variety of inhibitory cells, including myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), Tregs, and M2-polarized tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs). These cells secrete cytokines such as transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) and IL-10, which promote the differentiation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells into tumor-promoting phenotypes like $\gamma\delta$ T17 cells and yoTregs, further reducing their antitumor potential.44,45 Additionally, MDSCs can inhibit IFN-γ secretion by γδ T cells, impairing their cytotoxic functions,46 while reactive oxygen species (ROS) released by neutrophils can suppress $\gamma\delta$ T cell activation and proliferation.⁴⁷ In addition, compared to healthy cells, $\gamma\delta$ T cells within the TME often exhibit elevated levels of immune checkpoint receptors (ICRs), which contributes to functional impairment and diminished cytotoxicity. The balance between inhibitory and costimulatory signals is critical; excessive inhibitory signaling can shift $\gamma\delta$ T cells toward a state of anergy. Notably, immune checkpoints such as programmed death-1 (PD-1), TIM3, Lag-3, cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4), and B and T lymphocyte attenuator (BTLA) are known to prevent proper activation of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and driving them toward dysfunction.48-50 Collectively, negative effects of TME are critical barriers to the efficacy of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based therapies in hematological malignancies and highlights the importance of strategies aimed at modulating the TME to enhance $\gamma\delta$ T cell infiltration, survival, and function.

3.2. Exploration of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based cellular therapy in hematological cancers

Adoptive cellular therapy has been extensively explored for cancer therapy. Immune cells such as $\alpha\beta$ T cells, NK cells, and genetically modified T cells, including engineered TCR-T cells and chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cells, have shown potential as effector cells against hematological cancers but still present various limitations, such as short persistence and unexpected toxicity.⁵¹ Current studies on solid cancers or hematological cancers have indicated that $\gamma\delta$ T cells are associated with favorable clinical outcomes for most cancer types, ⁵²⁻⁵⁴ suggesting a prognostic value of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. However, some distinct protumor phenotypes, such as IL-17⁺ $\gamma\delta$ T cells, are related to unfavorable outcomes and are mainly found in solid cancers.⁵⁵ In particular, $\gamma\delta$ T cells have emerged as promising products for hematological malignancies therapy.

3.2.1. Leukemia Several clinical reports in the late 1990s suggested the favorable role of γδ T cells after allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (allo-HSCT). Lamb et al⁵⁶ reported that 43 leukemia patients who received partially HLA-mismatched grafts depleted of αβ T cells had improved disease-free survival (DFS) if they had an increased (≥10%) proportion and number of γδ T cells in the first 6 months. After 3 years of follow-up, they confirmed that these γδ T cells were Vδ1+CD69+ and cytotoxic to K562 cells in vitro. An increased percentage of these Vδ1+ T cells was associated with lower relapse rates and better survival.⁵⁷ In a subsequent 8-year study, they extended the clinical trial to 153 patients with acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) or AML. They confirmed that increased percentages of γδ T cells in leukemia patients undergoing αβ T cell-depleted allo-HSCT had an overall survival (OS) and DFS advantage.⁵⁸ Similarly, a study of 80 children with

acute leukemia who received HLA-haploidentical allo-HSCT with grafts manipulated by $\alpha\beta$ T-cell and B-cell depletion⁵⁹ and a study of 102 pediatric patients with leukemia who underwent allo-HSCT⁶⁰ all showed a positive relation between $\gamma\delta$ T cells and improved outcome. These clinical trials indicate that $\gamma\delta$ T cells may play an important role in the graft-versus-leukemia (GvL) effect.

Kunzmann et al⁶¹ conducted a prospective clinical trial using ZOL and IL-2 in vivo to expand V γ 9V δ 2 T cells of patients with renal cell carcinoma, melanoma, and AML. They reported a significant increase in the percentage of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and production of IFN- γ but no objective responses in solid tumor patients and only 2 (25%) partial remissions (PR) in AML patients, suggesting a limited GvL effect of autologous $\gamma\delta$ T cells. In a subsequent trial,⁶² 4 refractory hematological malignancy patients received haploidentical family donor peripheral blood mononuclear cells after CD4 and CD8 depletion plus serial ZOL infusions. The researchers observed an elevated number of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, and 3 (75%) patients achieved complete remission without GvHD. These trials demonstrated the safety and feasibility of allogeneic $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based therapy.

3.2.2. Lymphoma and MM $\gamma\delta$ T cells stimulated by aminobisphosphonates such as pamidronate, alendronate, and ibandronate⁶³ or specific synthetic PAgs⁶⁴ in vitro showed specific cytotoxicity against lymphoma and myeloma cell lines. Wilhelm et al65 enrolled 19 patients with relapsed or refractory low-grade non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL) or MM and assessed the in vivo expansion and activity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells after pamidronate and IL-2 infusion. They found that only 3 patients (33%) who had a significant increase in the percentage of $\gamma\delta$ T cells achieved PR, indicating the antilymphoma and antimyeloma potential of in vivo-expanded and in vivo-activated $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Abe's group⁶⁶ performed the first adoptive cellular therapy of $\gamma\delta$ T cells for MM patients by expanding $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells in vitro using ZOL and administering sufficient V γ 9V δ 2 T cells to nine MM patients. The results of this pilot study were disappointing, as none of the patients showed an improved outcome, suggesting a need for novel strategies for $\gamma \delta T$ cell-based therapy.

4. γδ T CELLS IN HSCT COMPLICATIONS

4.1. Relationships between γδ T cells and GvHD

GvHD is a major transplant-related complication after allo-HSCT or adoptive cell therapy. The role of yo T cells in GvHD is controversial. Several clinical studies have suggested that $\gamma\delta$ T cells do not affect the onset and exacerbation of GvHD.^{56,67,68} In another clinical trial (NCT01810120), 80 children with acute leukemia received allo-HSCT mainly composed of γδ T cells due to $\alpha\beta$ T-cell and B-cell depletion, and they showed a lower incidence of acute GvHD (aGVHD) and chronic GvHD (cGVHD), indicating a protective effect of $\gamma\delta$ T cells. 59 In line with human data, some preclinical studies confirmed that $\gamma\delta T$ cells are not involved in GvHD development.^{69,70} Using a murine aGVHD model, Song et al 71 found that a specific subset of $\gamma\delta$ T cells, Vy4 y δ T cells, attenuated aGVHD after allo-HSCT by suppressing CD4⁺ T-cell activation. Similarly, Hu's group⁷² generated a novel population of immunoregulatory $\gamma\delta$ T cells induced by decitabine, TGF- β 1, and other cytokines. These $\gamma\delta$ Treg cells inhibited GvHD in a mouse model.72 The researchers also analyzed the clinical data of patients who underwent allo-HSCT and found a significantly increased number of Foxp3⁺ $\gamma\delta$ Tregs in the non-cGVHD group.73 Moreover, another subset of IL-17producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells was effective in ameliorating intestinal aGvHD in an aGvHD mouse model by increasing the infiltration of Gr-1+CD11b+ MDSCs into the inflamed intestine.74 However, some studies suggest that $\gamma\delta$ T cells contribute to the pathogenesis of GvHD. In a murine study, $\gamma\delta$ T cells were reported to enhance the allo-stimulatory ability of DCs and exacerbate aGvHD in allogeneic bone marrow transplantation models.⁷⁵ Another murine study showed that $\gamma\delta$ T cells induced lethal GvHD.⁷⁶ Furthermore, in a clinical study, patients who received allogeneic peripheral blood stem cell transplantation were evaluated according to the severity of GvHD, and the researchers found that a higher infusion dose of $\gamma\delta$ T cells was associated with more severe aGvHD (aGvHD II-IV).⁷⁷ Overall, specific subsets of $\gamma\delta$ T cells such as V $\gamma4$ $\gamma\delta$ T cells, Foxp3⁺ $\gamma\delta$ Tregs, and IL-17-producing $\gamma\delta$ T cells are involved in the prevention of GvHD, while some other subsets of $\gamma\delta$ T cells participate in the promotion of GvHD. These conflicting studies indicate that more investigations and clinical data are needed to elucidate the relationships between different subsets of $\gamma\delta$ T cells and GvHD.

4.2. Crucial roles of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in infectious complications after HSCT

Cytomegalovirus (CMV) and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) infection are common during the reconstitution of immune cells and granulocytes after HSCT. Several clinical studies have suggested that $\gamma \delta$ T cells have a protective effect against infection during HSCT.^{60,78-80} A study of 102 pediatric patients with leukemia who underwent allo-HSCT showed that patients with increased numbers of $\gamma\delta$ T cells had a lower risk of infection than those with low/normal numbers of γδ T cells.⁶⁰ Of note, the antivirus functions are limited to V δ 2-negative $\gamma\delta$ T cells. Fujishima et al⁸¹ demonstrated that these Vo1 T cells were cytotoxic against autologous EBV-lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs) in vitro. Similarly, patients who received cord blood transplantation exhibited early expansion of Vo1 T cells in EBV infection settings, and these Vo1 T cells were differentiated and could lyse EBV-infected cells.82 TLRs were identified as the predominant recognized receptors of V δ 2-negative $\gamma\delta$ T cells as well as $\gamma\delta$ TCR and NKG2D receptor pathways,83 and the antivirus activity depends on chemokine and cytokine such as IFN-y production. They can also facilitate the lysis of infected cells in indirect ways by interacting with other immune cells.⁸⁴ Therefore, the antiviral activity of yo T cells suggests tremendous potential for the treatment of infectious complications after HSCT.

5. NOVEL STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING γδ T CELL-BASED IMMUNOTHERAPY

Several novel strategies have been developed to enhance the efficiency of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based immunotherapy. Ongoing clinical trials of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based therapies for hematological malignancies are summarized in Table 1.

One strategy is to use monoclonal antibodies that target BTN3A, which is necessary for activating $V\gamma 9V\delta 2$ T cells. For

example, ICT01, an agonist antibody developed by ImCheck Therapeutics,⁸⁵ showed robust cytotoxicity against leukemia cell lines and lymphoma cell line (Daudi), and the first-in-human phase I/IIa trial (EVICTION: NCT04243499) is ongoing, the preliminary data indicate good safety. The EVICTION trial is an open-label Phase I/IIa study that explores ICT01 both as a monotherapy for solid and hematological malignancies and in combination with pembrolizumab for solid tumors. In the Phase I dose-escalation study involving relapsed/refractory hematological malignancies, 26 patients were enrolled, including 24 with AML, 1 with diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), and 1 with follicular lymphoma (FL). All patients had failed prior standard-of-care therapies. ICT01 was administered at doses ranging from 200 µg to 75 mg every 21 days. The primary endpoints were the incidence of treatment-emergent adverse events (AEs) and the disease control rate (DCR), defined as the sum of complete response (CR), CR with incomplete hematologic recovery (CRi), PR, and stable disease (SD). Secondary endpoints included the assessment of circulating γ 982 T cells, as well as pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic analyses. The reported data showed no dose-limiting toxicities, and a DCR of 30% was observed among the 10 evaluable patients at week 8. Importantly, ICT01 treatment effectively and safely induced the activation and migration of $\gamma 9\delta 2$ T cells from the peripheral blood within hours of administration, indicating successful target engagement.⁸⁶ Other monoclonal antibodies targeting BTN3A 20.1 also enhanced Vy9V82 T cell-mediated killing of AML blasts, including those that are poorly sensitive to nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates (N-BPs).87,88

Another strategy is to use bispecific antibodies that can simultaneously engage $\gamma\delta$ T cells and leukemia antigens. Recently, a unique bispecific antibody that is derived from the linkage of a CD1d-specific single-domain antibody with a V δ 2-TCR-specific single-domain antibody was developed. It engaged V γ 9V δ 2 T cells with NKT cells to target tumor cells that express CD1d, which reduced side effects such as cytokine release syndrome and off-tumor toxicity with high efficacy.⁸⁹ In addition, other bispecific anti-CD1d-V δ 2 antibody,⁹⁰ anti-V γ 9-CD123 antibody,⁹¹ and anti-CD40-V γ 9V δ 2 T-cell engager⁹² exhibited improved cytotoxicity in the treatment of CLL, AML, and MM, respectively.

A third strategy is to use allogenic cell therapy. A phase I clinical trial (NCT03533816) of allogeneic γδ T-cell (INB-100) infusion after HSCT is ongoing.⁹³ INB-100 is a γδT cell product expanded from haploidentical transplant donors. Patients received haploidentical stem cell transplantation followed by infusion of INB-100 within 7 days post-engraftment. Two dose cohorts were evaluated: 1×10^6 cells/kg and 3×10^6 cells/kg. As of August 12, 2024, the latest clinical trial data released by INBio reports that 10 patients, primarily diagnosed with AML, have been enrolled. The median follow-up period is

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Strategies	Company	Disease	Phase	Clinical trials	
Monoclonal antibody			1.41		
BTN3A agonist antibody	ImCheck Therapeutics	Hematopoietic/lymphoid cancer	I/IIa	ICT01 (NCT04243499)	
Bispecific antibody					
Vγ9TCR-CD1d	Lava Therapeutics	CLL/MM/AML	I/IIa	LAVA-051 (NCT04887259)	
Allogeneic γδT cell					
DOT cells	GammaDelta Therapeutics	MRD+AML	1	GDX012 (NCT05001451)	
γδΤ	IN8bio	AML/CLL/ALL/myelodysplastic syndromes	I	INB-100 (NCT03533816)	
γ9δ2 Τ	Anhui Provincial Hospital	Recurrent hematologic tumors	1	NCT05755854	
γδ TCR-T	Gadeta	AML	1	TEG001 (NTR6541)	
γδ TCR-T	Gadeta	MM	i i	TEG002 (NCT04688853)	
CD20.CAR-Vδ1 T	Adicet Bio	B-cell malignancies	i	ADI-001 (NCT04735471)	
ODZ0.0AIT-VOT T	Autoet Dio	D-cell malignaticles	1	ADI-001 (NOT04755471)	

CAR = chimeric antigen receptor, DOT = Delta one T, TCR = T-cell receptor.

ww19.5 months, with all patients maintaining morphologic CR for over 12 months. Notably, no relapses have been observed among AML patients to date. Additionally, 3 patients with highrisk disease have remained relapse-free for over 3 years, with a median follow-up of 19.5 months. This is significant considering the high risk of relapse in this patient population and the data showed good safety, highlighting the potential of allogeneic $\gamma\delta$ T cell therapy to provide long-term durable responses in this challenging patient population.⁶⁸ In our transplantation center, a phase I clinical trial (NCT05755854) of allogeneic $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cells for the treatment of recurrent hematologic tumors is in the recruiting phase. Besides $V\gamma9V\delta2$ T cells, Bruno's group developed a stable clinical-grade protocol for Delta one T (DOT) cell expansion, which has shown efficient leukemia killing in vitro and in vivo without effect on normal leukocytes.⁹⁴

In addition, multiple modified $\gamma\delta$ T cells such as CAR- $\gamma\delta$ T cells or $\gamma\delta$ TCR-engineered $\alpha\beta$ T cells have been developed and put into clinical trials. For example, CD19-targeted CAR Vy9V82 T cells for ALL therapy95 and CD123-directed CAR DOT cells for AML treatment reduced the tumor burden in leukemia mouse models.96 Moreover, CAR-V&1 T cells directed toward CD20, developed by Adicet Bio under the name ADI-001,97 have been evaluated in phase 1 clinical trial for B-cell malignancies (NCT04735471). The preliminary data showed an encouraging objective response rate (67%) and CR rate (67%) without GvHD.98 To overcome the limited proliferation and diversity of V γ 9V δ 2 T cells, Johanna et al⁹⁹ established a novel product called TEGs, which combined a defined $\gamma\delta$ TCR with $\alpha\beta$ T cells. The first-in-human phase I trial of TEG001 (NTR6541) in patients with primary refractory or relapsed AML is ongoing. Moreover, several TEGs (NCT04688853) have been confirmed to have improved efficacy and safety for leukemia treatment and B-cell malignancies.^{100,101}

6. CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

 $\gamma\delta$ T cells are a unique subset of lymphocytes with both innate and adaptive features. They can recognize and eradicate various hematological malignancies through different mechanisms, modulate other immune cells, and enhance their antitumor activity. Moreover, $\gamma \delta$ T cells have potent antiviral functions after HSCT, which may improve the outcome of patients with hematological malignancies. However, the clinical application of $\gamma\delta$ T cells presents many challenges, such as low frequency in peripheral blood, heterogeneity of different subsets, and immunosuppression by the TME. Exploiting distinct subtypes or differentiation stages of yo T cells may maximize their function in cell therapy. Pizzolato et al¹⁰² performed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) of human $\gamma\delta$ T cells and found that Vô1 and Vô2 T cells resemble NK and CD8+ T cells, respectively, according to their single-cell transcriptomes. In a recent study, V\delta1 and V\delta3 subsets were demonstrated that contribute to the response to immune checkpoint blockade therapy in patients with HLA-class-I-defect colon cancers, which underline the potential of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in cancer immunotherapy.¹⁰³ Second, further studies are needed to optimize the strategies for $\gamma\delta$ T-cell expansion, activation, and infusion, such as using optimized molecule drugs, antibodies, or CARs. Additional clinical trials should be conducted to evaluate the safety and efficacy of $\gamma\delta$ T cell-based therapy in different hematological malignancies and HSCT settings. Third, combining $\gamma\delta$ T cells with traditional anticancer drugs may be beneficial for cancer therapy. Some studies have shown that dasatinib,¹⁰⁴ ibrutinib,¹⁰⁵ and LBH589 (a pan-histone deacetylase inhibitor)¹⁰⁶ can enhance the cytotoxic capacity of $\gamma\delta$ T cells.

In conclusion, $\gamma\delta$ T cells represent a promising immunotherapeutic tool for hematological malignancies that warrants further investigation.

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