Phenotypic and functional characterisation of regulatory T cells in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma

Samantha Drennan

PhD by Thesis

The University of Hull and The University of York

Hull York Medical School

March 2013

Abstract

Head and neck cancer is the sixth most common cancer worldwide. Despite advances in therapy, the five year survival rate remains poor. The presence of regulatory T cells (Tregs) may be a mechanism by which head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) evades the immune system. Using flow cytometry to identify distinct Treg populations on the basis of phenotype and a CFSE proliferation assay, the frequency and suppressive activity of Treg populations from the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment of newly-presenting HNSCC patients was assessed. No difference in the circulating Treg prevalence was observed between HNSCC patients (n=39) and healthy controls (n=14), or between patients with HNSCC from different subsites. However, patients with advanced stage tumours and those with nodal involvement had significantly elevated levels of peripheral CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs compared with patients who had early stage tumours (p=0.03) and those without nodal involvement (p=0.03) respectively. Circulating CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from the entire HNSCC patient cohort and patients whose tumours had metastasised to the lymph nodes suppressed the proliferation of effector T cells significantly more compared with those from healthy controls (p=0.04) or patients with no nodal involvement (p=0.04). Additionally, peripheral CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs consistently induced greater suppressive activity than CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs. The tumour microenvironment had an elevated frequency of Tregs ($p \le 0.002$) and a lower frequency of effector T cells ($p \le 0.03$) compared with the patient's peripheral circulation (n=15). No difference was observed in the level of suppression between tumour and peripheral Tregs. Using immunohistochemistry, patients with oropharyngeal tumours showed a significantly greater infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells in the tumour and stroma compared with laryngeal tumours. Furthermore, as determined by ELISA, the dispersed tumour specimens secreted detectable levels of TGF- β and IL-10, but secretions from HNSCC (dissociated tumour samples and cell lines) did not influence the suppressive activity of Tregs. Clarifying the role of CD127^{low/-} Tregs in HNSCC and the influence the tumour may have on the regulatory population will provide the opportunity, through future work, to establish whether Tregs can be used as a prognostic determinant or manipulated by immunotherapy.

Thesis associated manuscripts

Drennan S., Stafford N. D., Greenman J., Green V.L. Increased frequency and suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs in the peripheral circulation of patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma are associated with advanced stage and nodal involvement Immunology, manuscript submitted February 2013

Drennan S., Stafford N. D., Greenman J., Green V.L. CD127^{low/-} Tregs infiltrating the tumour microenvironment of head and neck cancer demonstrate an increased frequency but similar suppressive activity to the circulating population. Manuscript in preparation for British Journal of Cancer

Thesis associated presentations and published abstracts

Drennan S., Greenman J., Stafford N. D., Green V.L. (2012) Assessing the activity of regulatory T cells in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) patients and controls; relation to tumour site and stage. (Poster) Clinical Otolaryngology. *37* (Suppl. 1), 16

Drennan S., Greenman J., Stafford N. D., Green V.L. (2011) Does the suppressive activity of regulatory T cells differ between head and neck squamous cell carcinoma subsites and tumour stage? (Poster) Immunology. *135* (Suppl. 1), 149

Green V.L., Michno A., Murray P., **Drennan S.**, Stafford N.D., Greenman J. (2011) What effects does head and neck squamous cell carcinoma have on the systemic and intratumoral cytokine environment and Treg cell number? (Poster) Yorkshire Cancer Research Annual Conference

Michno A., **Drennan S.**, Stafford N., Greenman J., Green V., (2010) T regulatory cell phenotype in HNSCC pre- and post- treatment. (Oral) Otolaryngology - Head and Neck Surgery. *143*, 176

Murray P., Green V.L., **Drennan S**., Stafford N.D., Greenman J. (2010) Investigating the Treg/Th17 cytokine axis within head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (Poster) Yorkshire Cancer Research Annual Conference

List of contents

Abstract	i
Thesis associated manuscripts	ii
Thesis associated presentations and published abstracts	ii
List of contents	iii
Table of figures	xii
Table of tables	XV
Abbreviations	xviii
Acknowledgements	XX
Author's declaration	XX
Chapter 1. Introduction	1
1.1 Head and neck cancer	2
1.2 Anatomy and clinical presentation of HNSCC	3
1.2.1 The larynx	3
1.2.2 The oropharynx	4
1.2.3 The lymph nodes	4
1.3 Progression of HNSCC	5
1.4 Epidemiology of head and neck cancer	7
1.5 Aetiology of head and neck cancer	9
1.5.1 Alcohol and tobacco	9
1.5.2 Human papillomavirus (HPV)	11
1.5.3 Epstein Barr Virus	
1.5.4 Genetic alterations	12
1.5.4.1 TP53	13
1.5.4.2 p16	13
1.5.4.3 Epidermal growth factor receptor	14
1.6 Staging of HNSCC	14

1.7 Management of HNSCC	17
1.8 Cancer and the immune system	19
1.8.1 Immune tolerance	21
1.8.2 Dendritic cells	21
1.8.3 Transforming growth factor-β	22
1.8.4 Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase	23
1.8.5 Regulatory T cells	23
1.9 Tregs and peripheral tolerance	23
1.10 History of Tregs	24
1.11 Treg subtypes	25
1.11.1 nTregs	26
1.11.2 iTregs	
1.12 Identification of Tregs	29
1.13 Tregs and cancer	34
1.14 Aims of study	
Chaper 2. Materials and methods	
2.1 Culture of head and neck cancer cell lines	40
2.2 Cryogenic storage of head and neck cancer cell lines	40
2.3 Mycoplasma testing and treatment	41
2.3.1 Mycoplasma testing	41
2.3.2 Mycoplasma treatment	42
2.4 Cell counting and viability determination	42
2.5 Collection of conditioned medium from head and neck cancer cell lines	43
2.6 Determination of cytokine production by ELISA	43
2.7 Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorter (FACS) Aria TM II operation	45
2.8 Setting compensation on the FACSAria TM	46

2.8.1 Preparing the compensation samples46
2.8.2 Calculating compensation values
2.9 Titration of fluorescently conjugated antibodies47
2.10 Phenotypic analysis of cells using flow cytometry
2.11 Immunohistochemistry50
2.11.1 Quantification of immunostaining
2.12 HNSCC patients and healthy controls
2.13 Isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells from whole blood
2.14 Isolation of tumour infiltrating lymphocytes53
2.14.1 Collection of TIL and tumour specimen conditioned medium
2.15 Isolation of Tregs using magnetic activated cell sorting (MACS)55
2.16 Isolation of Tregs using fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS)
2.16.1 FACSAria TM II set up for isolation of Tregs using FACS
2.17 Culture of peripheral Tregs and effector T cells with conditioned medium
2.18 Determination of cellular proliferation using a carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl
ester (CFSE) assay63
2.19 Analysis of CFSE proliferation to determine the suppressive activity of Tregs65
Chapter 3. Optimisation of methods for the functional characterisation of Tregs in
HNSCC
3.1 Isolation of Tregs69
3.1.1 Isolation of Tregs by MACS70
3.1.2 Isolation of Tregs using FACS75
3.1.3 Assessing MACS and FACS for the isolation of Tregs79
3.1.3.1 Assessment of MACS79
3.1.3.2 Assessment of FACS80
3.1.3.3 MACS vs. FACS
3.2 Assessing cellular proliferation using a CFSE assay

3.2.1 CFSE assay with HNSCC cell lines
3.2.1.1 Blocking cellular proliferation
3.2.2 CFSE assay with effector T cells
3.2.3 Calculation of the proliferation index
Chapter 4. Phenotype, frequency and suppressive activity of T cell subsets in the
peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls
4.1 Introduction
4.2 Materials and methods
4.2.1 HNSCC patients and healthy controls100
4.2.2 Assessing the phenotype and prevalence of T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls
4.2.3 Assessment of Foxp3 expression by T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls
4.2.4 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls using a CFSE assay104
4.2.5 Statistical analysis105
4.3 Results
4.3.1 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls
4.3.1.1 Percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4107
4.3.1.2 Percentage of CD4 ⁺ cells expressing CD25109
4.3.1.3 Percentage of Tregs expressing low levels of CD127110
4.3.1.4 The percentage of Tregs in the peripheral circulation using different phenotypes
4.3.1.5 Percentage of CD4 ⁺ effector T cell populations expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127
4.3.2 Expression of Foxp3 by T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls

+.5.2.1 Telechage of CD+ Telef subsets expressing Toxp5
4.3.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs from HNSCC patients and healthy controls 116
4.3.3.1 Suppressive activity of Tregs at different Treg : effector T cell ratios 117
4.3.3.2 Suppressive activity of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter/high} CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs on CD4 ⁺ CD25
CD127 ^{-/+} effector T cells
4.3.3.3 Suppressive activity of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter/high} CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs on
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺ effector T cells
4.3.3.4 Assessing the phenotype and suppressive activity of CD25 ^{inter} and CD25 ^{high}
Tregs122
4.3.3.5 Comparison of the suppressive activity of Tregs on CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/4}
and CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺ effector T cells
4.4 Discussion
4.4.1 Prevalence of CD4 ⁺ cells in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and
HNSCC patients
4.4.2 Prevalence of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and
HNSCC patients
HNSCC patients
HNSCC patients
 HNSCC patients
HNSCC patients 127 4.4.2.1 Methodological issues with Treg identification 127 4.4.2.2 The frequency of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics 132 4.4.3 Prevalence of other T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients 4.4.4 Assessing the expression of Foxp3 by T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls 4.4.5 The suppressive activity of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls 4.4.5.1 The suppressive activity of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics
HNSCC patients 127 4.4.2.1 Methodological issues with Treg identification 127 4.4.2.2 The frequency of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics 132 4.4.3 Prevalence of other T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients 135 4.4.4 Assessing the expression of Foxp3 by T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls 136 4.4.5 The suppressive activity of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls 137 4.4.5.1 The suppressive activity of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics 139 4.4.5.2 Comparison of the phenotype and suppressive activities of Tregs with 139

4.4.5.3 Comparison of effector T cells susceptibility to Treg induced
suppression143
4.4.6 Conclusion
Chapter 5. Phenotype, frequency and suppressive activity of T cell subsets in the
tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients
5.1 Introduction
5.2 Materials and methods
5.2.1 HNSCC patients
5.2.2 Staining of HNSCC sections for infiltrating Foxp3 ⁺ cells by immunohistochemistry
5.2.3 Quantification of HNSCC sections stained for Foxp3 ⁺ cells153
5.2.4 Isolation of TIL from HNSCC specimens153
5.2.5 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in TIL and the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients
5.2.6 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients using a CFSE assay
5.2.7 Statistical analysis155
5.3 Results
5.3.1 Identification of Foxp3 ⁺ cells infiltrating the tumours of head and neck cancer patients
5.3.2 Optimising the isolation of TIL from HNSCC158
5.3.3 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment
5.3.3.1 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and primary tumour microenvironment
5.3.3.2 Comparison of the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

5.3.4 Suppressive activity of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC
patients
5.3.4.1 Suppressive activity of tumour infiltrating Tregs at different Treg : effector T cell ratios
5.3.4.2 Suppressive activity of Tregs on effector T cells in tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and the primary tumour microenvironment
5.3.4.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs on effector T cells in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients
5.3.4.4 Assessing the suppressive activity of tumour Tregs on tumour infiltrating and peripheral effector T cells
5.3.4.5 Assessing the suppressive activity of tumour and peripheral Tregs on peripheral effector T cells
5.4 Discussion
5.4.1 Foxp3 ⁺ cells infiltrating the tumours of head and neck cancer patients
5.4.2 Optimising the isolation of TIL from HNSCC specimens
5.4.3 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients
5.4.3.1 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients
5.4.4 The suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients
5.4.4.1 Comparison of the suppressive activity of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients
5.4.4.2 The suppressive activity of tumour Tregs on tumour infiltrating and peripheral effector T cells
5.4.4.3 The suppressive activity of tumour and peripheral Tregs on peripheral effector T cells
5.4.5 Conclusion

Chapter 6. The secretion of TGF-β and IL-10 by HNSCC and the influence of
HNSCC conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity197
6.1 Introduction
6.2 Materials and methods
6.2.1 HNSCC cell lines and collection of conditioned medium
6.2.2 HNSCC tumour specimens and collection of conditioned medium201
6.2.3 Assessment of TGF- β and IL-10 in conditioned medium using ELISA202
6.2.4 Isolation of Treg and effector T cell populations by FACS202
6.2.5 Culture of peripheral Tregs with conditioned medium
6.2.6 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs cultured with conditioned medium using a CFSE assay
6.3 Results
6.3.1 Assessment of TGF-β and IL-10 secretion by HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens
6.3.1.1 TGF- β and IL-10 secretion by HNSCC cell lines
6.3.1.2 TGF- β and IL-10 secretion by dissociated tumour infiltrated nodal
specimens
 specimens
 specimens
 specimens
 specimens
specimens 205 6.3.2 Optimising the culture of effector T cells for the subsequent assessment of Treg suppressive activity 207 6.3.3 Assessment of the influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity 208 6.3.3.1 Influence of HNSCC cell line conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity 209 6.3.3.2 Influence of conditioned medium collected from dissociated HNSCC specimens on Treg suppressive activity 211 6.4 Discussion 213
 specimens

6.4.1.2 Secretion of IL-10
6.4.2 The influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on the functional capacity of
Tregs
6.4.2.1 Conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens216
6.4.2.2 Optimisation of effector T cell culture for subsequent assessment of Treg
activity217
6.4.2.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs cultured with HNSCC conditioned
medium
6.4.3 Conclusion
Chapter 7. Discussion
7.1 Future work
7.2 Conclusion

References	227
Appendix	254

Table of figures

Figure 1.1	Anatomical regions of the head and neck	2
Figure 1.2	Presentation of the stepped progression model for HNSCC	6
Figure 1.3	Incident rates for laryngeal cancer by sex	8
Figure 1.4	Incident rates for oral cancer by sex	9
Figure 1.5	General treatment strategies dependent on staging of HNSCC	17
Figure 1.6	Generation of different CD4 ⁺ Treg subtypes	26
Figure 1.7	Different gating strategies to identify CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} Tregs	31
Figure 2.1	The different stages of the DuoSET sandwich ELISA method	45
Figure 2.2	Calculation of compensation values for flow cytometry and cell sorting experiments	47
Figure 2.3	Dot plot and histogram of an isotype control sample acquired by flow cytometry	49
Figure 2.4	Layers formed after differential centrifugation of whole blood on lymphocyte separation medium to isolate PBMC	53
Figure 2.5	LD column and magnetic MidiMACS separator magnet	56
Figure 2.6	Negative depletion of non-target cells from cell suspension by LD column	56
Figure 2.7	Two MS columns attached to MiniMACS separators	57
Figure 2.8	Positive selection of target cells from cell suspension by MS column	58
Figure 2.9	Video image of the stream	60
Figure 2.10	Visualisation of the five streams for FACS	60
Figure 2.11	Gating strategy used to identify and isolate effector T cell and Treg populations	62
Figure 2.12	CFSE data analysed by ModFit TM software	66
Figure 3.1	Expression of CD4 and CD127 by cells retained in the LD column	72
Figure 3.2	Comparison of the number of Tregs isolated by MACS with different starting numbers of PBMC	74
Figure 3.3	Gating strategy used to identify and isolate effector T cell populations	77
Figure 3.4	Populations following the sorting of PBMC for effector T cells and Tregs	78
Figure 3.5	Schematic representation of the stages involved during the labelling of a cell with CFDASE	83
Figure 3.6	SIHN-011A incubated with a range of CFSE concentrations	86

Figure 3.7	SIHN-011A CFSE proliferation assay	87
Figure 3.8	SIHN-011A proliferation with and without serum containing medium	89
Figure 3.9	Effector T cell CFSE proliferation assay	91
Figure 3.10	Co-culture of CFSE labelled CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+} effector T cells with CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs at different days of culture	92
Figure 3.11	Gated peaks identifying cycles of division by proliferating CFSE labelled effector T cells	94
Figure 4.1	CONSORT diagram to illustrate the PBMC samples that were analysed for phenotype and assessed for Treg function	101
Figure 4.2	Gating strategy used to detect the prevalence of CD4 ⁺ cells, Tregs and effector T cells to be assessed in healthy controls and HNSCC patients	102
Figure 4.3	Histograms used to assess the expression of Foxp3 by different T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation	104
Figure 4.4	Percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 from healthy controls and HNSCC patients separated by tumour stage and subsite	109
Figure 4.5	Percentages of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients as identified using different phenotypes	113
Figure 4.6	Percentage of CD4 ⁺ cells from HNSCC patients expressing CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+} and CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺ separated by tumour stage and subsite, and nodal status	114
Figure 4.7	Mean percentage of suppression by CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-} and CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+} effector T cells at varying ratios for HNSCC patients	118
Figure 4.8	Mean percentage of suppression by CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-} and CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺ effector T cells at varying ratios for HNSCC patients	119
Figure 4.9	Distribution of isolated Treg and effector T cell populations based on the expression of CD4 and CD25	123
Figure 4.10	Mean percentage of suppression by CD25 ^{high} and CD25 ^{inter} Tregs on the proliferation of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+} effector T cells	124
Figure 4.11	Mean percentage of suppression by $CD25^{high}$ and $CD25^{inter}$ Tregs on the proliferation of $CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$ effector T cells	125
Figure 4.12	Different gating strategies used to identify CD4 ⁺ T cells expressing varying levels of CD25	130
Figure 4.13	Identification and isolation of Tregs using the markers CD4, CD25 and CD127	131

CD25^{high} suppression Figure 4.14 Level of induced bv and 142 CD25^{inter/low}CD127^{low} Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells CONSORT diagram to illustrate the tumour samples that were Figure 5.1 152 analysed for phenotype and assessed for Treg function Figure 5.2 Diagram to illustrate the co-culture combinations of tumour 155 infiltrating and peripheral Tregs and effector T cells Figure 5.3 Immunohistochemical staining for Foxp3 in HNSCC specimens 157 Figure 5.4 Identifying the TIL population by flow cytometry 160 Dot plots showing an appropriate length of dissociation for Figure 5.5 162 HNSCC specimens in terms of CD4 expression Figure 5.6 Expression of CD4 by TIL isolated from HNSCC tissue and 163 HNSCC patient peripheral blood CD25^{high} Figure 5.7 Mean suppression bv 172 percentage of and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at varying ratios for tumour infiltrated lymph node samples CD25^{high} Figure 5.8 of suppression bv 173 Mean percentage and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells at varying ratios for tumour infiltrated lymph node samples Percentages of suppression induced by CD25^{high} Figure 5.9 and 176 CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and corresponding primary tumour samples Concentration of TGF- β in the conditioned medium of five Figure 6.1 206 HNSCC cell lines over a 96 hour culture period Figure 6.2 CFSE parent populations obtained during the different culture 208 conditions of effector T cells Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of 210 Figure 6.3 CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines Figure 6.4 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of 211 CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of Figure 6.5 212 CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from dissociated tumour specimens Figure 6.6 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of 213 CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells by Tregs incubated with or without conditioned medium from dissociated tumour specimens

Table of tables

Table 1.1	Risk of developing head and neck cancer at various subsites for the highest alcohol and tobacco frequencies	10
Table 1.2	Different features of HNSCC dependent on HPV status	12
Table 1.3	Staging of the primary tumour in HNSCC	15
Table 1.4	Classification of regional lymph node metastases in HNSCC	16
Table 1.5	Classification of distant metastases in HNSCC	16
Table 1.6	TNM group staging for HNSCC	16
Table 1.7	Markers important to Treg function or used to identify Treg subsets	34
Table 1.8	Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of Treg phenotypes in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients compared with healthy controls	36
Table 1.9	Representative studies demonstrating association of tumour infiltrating Tregs with prognosis in cancer	37
Table 2.1	Combinations of cells cultured during the CFSE assay to determine the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells	65
Table 2.2	Calculating the percentage of suppression induced by Tregs using proliferation indexes	67
Table 3.1	The number of $CD4^+$ and $CD4^-$ cells passing through the LD column as the number of washes increases starting with 1 x 10^7 PBMC	71
Table 3.2	Isolation of Tregs by MACS using PBMC samples stored under different conditions from a starting number of 3×10^7 PBMC	75
Table 3.3	Isolation of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-} Tregs by FACS	76
Table 3.4	UMSCC cell lines 11b and 12a	88
Table 3.5	Calculations to determine the PI	95
Table 4.1	Treg phenotypes demonstrating increased suppressive activity of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients in comparison with healthy controls	99
Table 4.2	Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients and healthy controls whose PBMC were phenotypically characterised	106
Table 4.3	Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in healthy controls and HNSCC patients in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status	108
Table 4.4	Percentage of CD4 ⁺ cells expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127 in healthy controls and HNSCC patients in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status	111

Table 4.5 Mean percentage of T cell subsets expressing Foxp3 in HNSCC 115 patients and healthy controls Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients and Table 4.6 117 healthy controls whose peripheral Tregs were analysed for suppressive activity Table 4.7 Percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation 121 of effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio for both healthy controls and HNSCC patients separated by tumour stage, subsite and nodal status Table 5.1 Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of 149 Tregs infiltrating malignant tissue compared with non-malignant tissue from cancer patients Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of 149 Table 5.2 Tregs infiltrating malignant tissue compared with the peripheral circulation of cancer patients Clinicopathological features of HNSCC patients whose tumour Table 5.3 156 specimens were assessed for Foxp3⁺ cell infiltration Mean score of Foxp3⁺ cells infiltrating the stroma and tumour of Table 5.4 158 HNSCC sections in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients whose 164 Table 5.5 TIL were phenotypically characterised from primary tumours and tumour infiltrated nodes Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in tumour Table 5.6 165 infiltrated lymph nodes in relation to tumour subsite Table 5.7 Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in primary 166 tumour and tumour infiltrated lymph node samples Table 5.8 Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in the 168 tumour microenvironment and corresponding PBMC samples in relation to tumour subsite Percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing varying levels of CD25 and Table 5.9 169 CD127 in the tumour microenvironment and corresponding PBMC samples in relation to tumour subsite **Table 5.10** Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients whose 171 primary tumour or nodal infiltrating Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity 175 **Table 5.11** Percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells for tumour infiltrated lymph nodes separated by tumour subsite **Table 5.12** Percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation 177 of effector T cells in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients separated by tumour subsite

Table 5.13	Percentage of suppression induced by nodal and primary tumour infiltrating Tregs on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells	179
Table 5.14	Percentage of suppression induced by nodal, primary tumour and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of autologous peripheral effector T cells	181
Table 6.1	HNSCC cell lines	201
Table 6.2	Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients recruited to obtain overnight conditioned medium from dissociated tumour infiltrated nodal specimens	201
Table 6.3	Combination of cultures used in the CFSE assay to determine the influence of conditioned medium on the suppressive activity of Tregs	204
Table 6.4	Calculating the percentages of suppression induced by Tregs cultured without and with oropharyngeal cell line conditioned medium on the proliferation of effector T cells	209

Abbreviations

AD	Active Disease
APC	Allophycocyanin
bFGF	Basic Fibroblast Growth Factor
BSA	Bovine Serum Albumin
CFDASE	Carboxyfluorescein Diacetate Succinimidyl Ester
CFSE	Carboxyfluorescein Succinimidyl Ester
CTL	Cytotoxic T Lymphocyte
CTLA-4	Cytotoxic T-Lymphocyte Antigen-4
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium
DMSO	Dimethylsulphoxide
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
EBV	Epstein Barr Virus
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetra Acetic Acid
EGFR	Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor
ELISA	Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay
ENT	Ear, Nose and Throat
ERCC1	Excision Repair Cross-Complementation group 1 enzyme
FACS	Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting
FBS	Foetal Bovine Serum
FITC	Fluorescein Isothiocyanate
Foxp3	Forkheadbox Transcription Factor p3
FSC	Forward Scatter
GITR	Glucocorticoid-Induced TNF Receptor
GM-CSF	Granulocyte Macrophage Colony Stimulating Factor
HCl	Hydrochloric Acid
HEPES	4-(2-Hydroxyethyl) Piperazine-1-Ethanesulfonic Acid
HNSCC	Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma
HRP	Horseradish Peroxidase
HPV	Human Papillomavirus
H_2SO_4	Sulphuric Acid
ICOS	Inducible Co-Stimulator
IDO	Indoleamine 2,3-Dioxygenase
IFN-γ	Interferon-gamma
IL	Interleukin
INT	Iodonitrote-trazolium
IPEX	Immune Dysregulation, Polyendocrinopathy, Enteropathy,
	X-linked Syndrome
iTreg	Induced T Regulatory Cells
LSM	Lymphocyte Separation Medium
MACS	Magnetic Activated Cell Sorting
MDSC	Myeloid Derived Suppressor Cells
MHC	Major Histocompatibility Complex
miRNA	Micro Ribonucleic Acid
mRNA	Messenger Ribonucleic Acid
N^+	Nodal Involvement

N0	No Nodal Involvement
NADPH	Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Phosphate (Reduced)
NaOH	Sodium Hydroxide
NED	No Evidence of Disease
NK	Natural Killer
NPC	Nasopharyngeal Carcinoma
NSCLC	Non Small Cell Lung Cancer
nTreg	Naturally Occurring T Regulatory Cells
OVC	Ovarian Cancer
PBMC	Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells
PBS	Phosphate Buffered Saline
PE	Phycoerythrin
PerCP	Peridinin-Chlorophyll-Protein Complex
PGE2	Prostaglandin E2
PI	Proliferation Index
pRb	Retinoblastoma Protein
R and D	Research and Development
RNA	Ribonucleic Acid
SCC	Squamous Cell Carcinoma
SSC	Side Scatter
TBS	Tris-Buffered Saline
TCR	T Cell Receptor
TGF-β	Transforming Growth Factor-Beta
Th1	T Helper-1
Th2	T Helper-2
Th3	T Helper-3
Th17	T Helper-17
TIL	Tumour Infiltrating Lymphocytes
TMB	Tetramethylbenzidine
TNF	Tumour Necrosis Factor
TNM	Tumour, Node, Metastases
Tr1	T Regulatory Type 1
Treg	Regulatory T cells
VEGF	Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor

Acknowledgements

I have received an enormous amount of support and encouragement throughout my research from many different people. I would firstly like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Victoria Green, who has tirelessly supported and guided me throughout my project. Thank you for your continuous encouragement and extensive knowledge that has helped to take this project from infancy to publication, your help along this journey has been invaluable. Thank you also to my supervisor Prof. Nicholas Stafford for his support and clinical involvement throughout the project. To Prof. John Greenman whose enthusiasm for research is never ending, thank you for your unfailing support, unlimited knowledge and your constant positive outlook throughout the years. Without the help of the clinical colleagues in our group this project would never have been possible, thank you for three years of sample collection and a particular thank you to Deborah Sylvester and Simon Carr for their clinical insight and continued support throughout the long days spent in the laboratory. To my friends at Daisy, your friendship, advice and encouragement has been unwavering, thank you especially to Katie Wraith, Lucy Scaife, Victoria Hodgkinson and Joanne Smith who always had time to listen to the ups and downs of my project. Finally, thank you to my Mum and sister, whose patience and support is never-ending.

Author's declaration

I confirm that this work is original and that if any passage(s) or diagram(s) have been copied from academic papers, books, the internet or any other sources these are clearly identified by the use of quotation marks and the reference(s) is fully cited. I certify that, other than where indicated, this is my own work and does not breach the regulations of HYMS, the University of Hull or the University of York regarding plagiarism or academic conduct in examinations. I have read the HYMS Code of Practice on Academic Misconduct, and state that this piece of work is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged work from any other sources. I confirm that any patient information obtained to produce this piece of work has been appropriately anonymised.

Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1 Head and neck cancer

Head and neck cancer is a term used to group together epithelial malignancies that develop from anatomically defined locations within the upper aerodigestive tract; including the larynx, nasopharynx, oropharynx, hypopharynx, oral cavity and nasal cavity (Figure 1.1; Choong and Vokes, 2008). Approximately 90% of head and neck cancer cases are squamous cell carcinomas (SCC) arising from organs lined by squamous epithelium (Curado and Hashibe, 2009). It is widely recognised that patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) have a suppressed immune system and that the tumour employs numerous mechanisms to evade immune recognition, inhibit anti-tumour responses and promote an immunosuppressive environment (Duray *et al.*, 2010; Young, 2006).



Figure 1.1 Anatomical regions of the head and neck

Taken from Scott-Brown et al., 2008

The disease burden and treatment of HNSCC can cause severe loss of function in the area where the tumour has developed, effecting eating, drinking, speech, swallowing, breathing, social interactions and work capabilities. Despite advances in surgical and chemoradiotherapy regimes, the overall survival of HNSCC patients has not significantly improved in the past 30 years. In addition, surgical resection of the tumour in such a compact and anatomically complex region can have a negative aesthetic impact (Wrangle and Khuri, 2007). These aspects can greatly reduce a patient's quality of life emphasising the need for continued research to understand further the cellular pathways and interactions involved, in the hope of both providing better prognostic information and the development of new treatment strategies.

1.2 Anatomy and clinical presentation of HNSCC

Although HNSCC are united by general location and histology, the different primary sites vary in presentation, pathogenesis and survival. The studies performed in this thesis have assessed the HNSCC cohort as a whole, as is the case in many research publications (Schaefer *et al.*, 2005; Schott *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a), but have also analysed individual subsites and examined the differences that may occur between the primary sites. The conducted studies have predominately focused on HNSCC developing from the larynx and oropharynx along with their associated tumour infiltrated lymph nodes; these primary subsites and associated regional nodes will be discussed briefly in turn.

1.2.1 The larynx

The larynx, located in the anterior neck, acts to provide voice and protect the respiratory airways from the digestive tract; it is commonly referred to as the voice box. The larynx consists of a framework of cartilage, connected by ligaments and muscles which are lined by a mucous membrane, comprising of pseudostratified and squamous epithelium. Anatomically, the larynx can be divided into three regions: supraglottis (the area above the vocal cords), glottis (the area containing the vocal cords) and subglottis (the area below the vocal cords); SCC can develop in any of these locations (American Cancer Society, 2011a; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008;).

The clinical presentation of laryngeal cancer varies depending on the region involved. For early stage glottic lesions and advanced supraglottic tumours, hoarseness of

the voice is one of the most common symptoms. Consequently, glottic cancer is diagnosed early with a greater survival rate, in contrast to supraglottic tumours which commonly present in the advanced stage and usually have nodal involvement with a low probability of cure (Licitra *et al.*, 2003; Marur and Forastiere, 2008). In addition, a sore throat, shortness of breath, ear pain, a mass in the neck or a feeling of a "lump in the throat" are further symptoms observed with cancer of the larynx, in particular with advanced staged cancers of the supraglottis or subglottis (American Cancer Society, 2011a; Licitra *et al.*, 2003).

1.2.2 The oropharynx

The pharynx is divided in to three parts and the oropharynx is one of these regions (Figure 1.1). At the crossroad between the respiratory and digestive tract the oropharynx is located directly behind the oral cavity and includes the base of the tongue (the back third of the tongue), the soft palate (the back area of the roof of the mouth), the tonsillar region and the posterior and lateral pharyngeal wall (American Cancer Society, 2011b; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008). SCC can arise at any of these sites however, the commonest site of oropharyngeal cancer is the tonsillar region (Cohan *et al.*, 2009; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008). Cancer of the oropharynx has a high frequency of lymph node involvement with approximately 60 to 70% of patients presenting with nodal disease (Jose *et al.*, 2002).

Oropharyngeal cancer can be late to present due to small tumours in this region not always producing symptoms or being easy to detect, consequently the patient's tumour will usually be of the advanced stage at the time of diagnosis. Symptoms can include a lump or swelling in the upper neck, a foreign body sensation in the throat, a sore throat, altered voice or ear ache. If the tumour advances and infiltrates the tongue muscles, speech and swallowing are also affected (Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008).

1.2.3 The lymph nodes

Due to the rich lymphatic network present in the head and neck region, when HNSCC cells break away from the primary tumour mass they often infiltrate the lymph nodes and establish SCC growth. Lymphatic drainage varies depending on the anatomical subsite, therefore the primary site of a HNSCC has a great impact on the risk of nodal involvement (Mukherji *et al.*, 2001). For example, the base of the tongue has a significantly higher metastatic risk compared with tumours arising on the oral tongue, because of the close locality of the regional lymph nodes. Similarly, there is a lower incidence of metastases for primary cancers of the glottic larynx due to the sparse lymphatic drainage around the vocal cords (Genden *et al.*, 2003; Marur and Forastiere, 2008; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008).

Nodal involvement has a significant impact on prognosis; HNSCC patients who develop nodal metastatic disease are associated with a higher incidence of distant metastasis, consequently their 5 year survival rate is reduced by approximately 50% (Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008; Wenzel *et al.*, 2004).

1.3 Progression of HNSCC

The accumulation of numerous genetic and molecular alterations in the cells of the upper aerodigestive tract leads to the development of HNSCC. The proposed stepwise progression model for HNSCC is illustrated by Figure 1.2 as the normal mucosa develops towards invasive carcinoma. Many of the genetic disruptions occur in chromosomal regions encoding tumour suppressor genes, thus disrupting the expression of proteins involved in cell cycle regulation and progression which leads to the loss of cell cycle control, continued cell proliferation and the accumulation of genetic mutations (Section 1.5.4; Kim and Califano, 2004; Mao *et al.*, 2004).



Images taken from Argiris et al., 2008 and definitions adapted from Wenig, 2002.

1.4 Epidemiology of head and neck cancer

Head and neck cancer is the sixth most common type of cancer with the incidence estimated to be 650,000 new cases per year and accounting for approximately 350,000 deaths worldwide (Parkin *et al.*, 2005). However, the rates of incidence and mortality can varying greatly depending upon geographical location, HNSCC subsite and gender.

In England and Wales approximately 6,700 new cases of HNSCC are diagnosed each year (National Head and Neck Cancer Audit, 2008). Between October 2007 and November 2008, 29% of cases were cancer of the larynx and 25% were oropharyngeal cancer (National Head and Neck Cancer Audit, 2008).

Worldwide, an estimated 130,000 males were diagnosed with laryngeal cancer in 2008 compared with 21,000 cases in women (Ferlay *et al.*, 2010). In the UK, cancer of the larynx is almost five times more common in men than women with around 1,900 males and 400 females diagnosed in 2010 (Cancer Research UK, 2013a). In Europe, depending upon the country, cancer of the larynx was 4 (Scotland) to 49 (Spain) times more common in men than women (Karim-Kos *et al.*, 2008). For both males and females, due to the reduction in smoking habits, the incidence rate for laryngeal cancer has declined in Europe over the past decade. In contrast, the UK incidence rates in women have remained stable over the last 40 years whilst for men the rates steadily fell in the early 2000's before reaching a stable rate of approximately 5.4 per 100,000 (Figure 1.3; data shown for the last 33 years). It has been projected that between 2007 and 2030 the incidence rates for laryngeal cancer will fall by more than 1% per year in the UK (Mistry *et al.*, 2011). However, the five year survival rates for cancer of the larynx have not considerably improved over the last 30 years with an increase of approximately 3%, reaching a five year survival rate of 66.8% (Cancer Research UK, Laryngeal cancer statistics).



Year of diagnosis

Figure 1.3 Incident rates for laryngeal cancer by sex Age standardised incident rates, per 100,000, for laryngeal cancer in the UK by sex from 1975-2008. Adapted from statistics reported by Cancer Research UK, Laryngeal cancer statistics

Globally, cancer of the oral cavity is the most common HNSCC and accounted for an estimated 274,000 cases in 2002, of which approximately two thirds were male (Parkin et al., 2005). In Europe, the incidence of oral cavity and pharyngeal cancer combined varies considerably, amongst males it is between 5.9 (Finland) and 32 (France) per 100,000 and for women between 1.9 (Finland) and 10.3 (Lithuania) per 100,000 (Karim-Kos et al., 2008). The statistics presented by Cancer Research UK group cancer of the oropharynx with several other head and neck cancers (lip, tongue, mouth, hypopharynx) to form a group termed oral cancer. The charity report that in the UK in 2010 approximately 4,300 men and 2,200 women were diagnosed with oral cancer, a male:female ratio of around 2:1 (Cancer Research UK, 2013b). Over the last decade (1999-2009) oral cancer incidence has increased by 25% for males and 33% for females (Figure 1.4) and it has been projected that between 2007-2030 the incidence of oral cancer will increase by more than 1% per year in the UK (Mistry *et al.*, 2011). In England the incidence rate for oropharyngeal cancer has more than doubled from 1990-2006, a rise greater than any other head and neck cancer site; this has been attributed to infection with the human papillomavirus (HPV; Profiles of Head and Neck Cancers in England, 2010; Section 1.5.2). The five year survival rate for cancer of the oropharynx is approximately 50% (Profiles of Head and Neck Cancers in England, 2010) however, positive HPV status has been associated with an improved overall survival (Section 1.5.2).





Age standardised incident rates, per 100,000, for oral cancer in the UK, by sex, from 1999-2009. Adapted from statistics reported by Cancer Research UK, Oral cancer statistics

1.5 Aetiology of head and neck cancer

1.5.1 Alcohol and tobacco

Smoking and alcohol, either independently or synergistically, are historically the most common aetiological factors for the development of HNSCC. In the UK in 2010, approximately 79% of laryngeal cancers were attributable to smoking and 25% were linked to alcohol consumption (Parkin, 2011a; Parkin, 2011b).

The risk of developing head and neck cancer has been shown to be proportional to smoking frequency and duration, with a strong association for the development of laryngeal cancer (Hashibe *et al.*, 2007; Lewin *et al.*, 1998). One study demonstrated this dose response relationship clearly with the odds ratio of laryngeal cancer being 5.7 for smokers

of up to ten cigarettes per day increasing to 18.4 when consumption was thirty-forty cigarettes per day (Hashibe *et al.*, 2007). Individuals who cease smoking considerably reduce their risk of head and neck cancer in comparison with current smokers; however, the risk is still approximately twice that of never smokers for individuals who have ceased smoking for less than twenty years (Bosetti *et al.*, 2008; Lewin *et al.*, 1998).

Alcohol, or more accurately ethanol, is not classed as a carcinogen *per se* but has been shown to independently increase the risk of developing head and neck cancer in association with high drinking frequency (Hashibe *et al.*, 2007; Lewin *et al.*, 1998). In particular, the risk of cancer of the head and neck is approximately twice for individuals who consume three to four alcoholic drinks per day in comparison with never drinkers. The elevated risk appears to be strongest for cancer of the pharynx (Hashibe *et al.*, 2007; Lewin *et al.*, 2007; Lewin *et al.*, 1998).

The effect of tobacco and alcohol has been estimated to account for 72% of the head and neck cancer burden, of which 33% was due to smoking alone, 4% explained by alcohol alone and approximately 35% by the combined effect of tobacco and alcohol consumption (Hashibe *et al.*, 2009). The elevated risk of developing head and neck cancer due to the use of tobacco and alcohol together has been reported by several groups (Anantharaman *et al.*, 2011; Franceschi *et al.*, 1990; Hashibe *et al.*, 2009; Lewin *et al.*, 1998) and the risk is highest for laryngeal cancer (Table 1.1).

 Table 1.1
 Risk of developing head and neck cancer at various subsites for the highest alcohol and tobacco frequencies

Cancer subsite	Alcohol	Tobacco	Risk
Head and neck	Never	Never	1
	\geq 3 drinks / day	\geq 20 cigarettes / day	14.23
Oral cavity	\geq 3 drinks / day	\geq 20 cigarettes / day	15.49
Pharynx	\geq 3 drinks / day	\geq 20 cigarettes / day	14.29
Larynx	\geq 3 drinks / day	\geq 20 cigarettes / day	36.87

Adapted from Hashibe et al., 2009

1.5.2 Human papillomavirus (HPV)

HPV, perhaps more commonly associated with cancer of the cervix, has recently been associated with HNSCC, particularly cancer of the oropharynx. In the western world the incidence of HNSCC at specific sites arising as a result of alcohol and tobacco use has seen a slow decline or stabilisation over the past decade, however, the incidence of oropharyngeal cancer has risen steadily, and this increase has been attributed to infection with HPV and changes in sexual behaviour (Dufour *et al.*, 2012; Profiles of Head and Neck Cancers in England, 2010).

Approximately 25% of HNSCC cases are positive for HPV DNA, with the prevalence of infection higher in cancer of the oropharynx compared with oral cavity and laryngeal cancer (Dayyani *et al.*, 2010; Gillison *et al.*, 2000). The majority of these cases are related to the high risk subtype HPV-16. In a review of sixty studies Kreimer *et al.* (2005) reported that of the HPV positive HNSCC cases HPV-16 accounted for 86.7% of oropharyngeal, 68.2% of oral and 69.2% of laryngeal cancers. HPV-18 was the next most common oncogenic HPV type detected but with a different subsite profile, being more prevalent in oral cavity cases (34.1%) compared with cancer of the oropharynx (2.8%) and larynx (17%).

HPV-16 mediates carcinogenic effects through the viral oncoproteins E6 and E7 which bind and degrade p53 and retinoblastoma protein (pRb), tumour suppressor proteins, respectively. Consequently the virus causes the cell to lose cell cycle regulation and the ability to induce apoptosis thereby promoting cell proliferation and survival (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2001; Scheffner *et al.*, 1992).

It appears that HPV positive tumours create a distinct group within cancers of the head and neck. As summarised in Table 1.2 differences between individuals with either HPV positive or HPV negative HNSCC have been highlighted in relation to age, risk factors and molecular characteristics. In particular, although the prevalence of HPV positive tumours is on the increase, patients with these tumours have been associated with improved overall survival and progression free survival with approximately a 60% reduction in risk of death compared with HPV negative patients (Ang *et al.*, 2010; Dayyani *et al.*, 2010; Gillison *et al.*, 2000).

Feature	HPV negative HNSCC	HPV positive HNSCC
Incidence	Decreasing	Increasing
Age	Older (above 55 years)	Younger (below 55 years)
Risk factors	Smoking, alcohol	Sexual behaviour
Tumour	Well/moderately differentiated	Poorly differentiated
TP53 mutations	Frequent	Infrequent
Prognosis	Poor	Favourable

Table 1.2 Different features of HNSCC dependent on HPV status

Correlated from Ang et al., 2010; Dayyani et al., 2010; D'Souza et al., 2007; Gillison et al., 2000.

1.5.3 Epstein Barr Virus

The association between the Epstein Barr Virus (EBV) and nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC) is well established. However, distinctive geographical variation indicates that the viral infection is not the sole causative factor, but in conjunction with other risk factors, such as genetic predisposition or environmental events, may contribute to NPC development (Parkin *et al.*, 2005; Spano *et al.*, 2003).

The expression of latent genes by the virus (including EBV nuclear antigens and latent membrane proteins) is important for the maintenance and replication of the EBV genome and maintaining the latent infection within the cells. In addition, latent membrane proteins have been shown to influence the expression of genes involved in cell cycle induction and inhibition of apoptosis, thereby enabling the continued growth and survival of infected cells (Young and Rickinson, 2004).

1.5.4 Genetic alterations

Accumulations of genetic alterations in the cells of the upper aerodigestive tract, including those in tumour suppressor genes and/or proto-oncogenes, disrupt vital homeostatic cell signalling pathways, thereby promoting the development of HNSCC (Section 1.3). Three genetic events known to be mutated in HNSCC will be discussed briefly below, but it should be noted that there are a vast array of candidate genes which

have also been associated with tumourigenesis of the head and neck region, a discussion of these is beyond the scope of this thesis.

1.5.4.1 TP53

The *TP53* gene encodes the p53 tumour suppressor protein which regulates the cell cycle and, if required, induces apoptosis in response to DNA damage. The percentage of HNSCC cases harbouring a *TP53* mutation varies in the literature between 50 and 80% (Balz *et al.*, 2003; Poeta *et al.*, 2007; van Houten *et al.*, 2002). Consequently, inactivation of *TP53* within a cell results in the accumulation of genetic mutations, continuous replicative potential and the ability to evade induced cell death (Fan, 2001).

A significant increase in the frequency of *TP53* mutations has been demonstrated amongst HNSCC patients who smoke and/or consume alcohol (Brennan *et al.*, 1995). Furthermore, mutation of the tumour suppressor gene has been linked with decreased survival in HNSCC, with a median survival of 3.2 years for patients with a *TP53* mutation and 5.4 years for patients with wild-type tumours (Poeta *et al.*, 2007).

1.5.4.2 p16

Inactivation or absence of the p16 gene, located on chromosomal region 9p21, and encoding the tumour suppressor protein p16, is regarded to be one of the most common genetic aberrations in HNSCC, with over 70% of cases displaying allelic loss or absence of p16 (Reed *et al.*, 1996; van der Riet *et al.*, 1994). Furthermore, loss of 9p was reported at the same frequency in pre-invasive and invasive lesions suggesting that loss of p16 occurs early in the progression of HNSCC (van der Riet *et al.*, 1994). In the cell cycle the p16 protein acts to inhibit cell cycle progression by preventing cyclin-dependent kinases 4 and 6 phosphorylating the pRb, subsequently the cell cycle is arrested (Kim and Califano, 2004). As with *TP53*, the absence or inactivation of p16 results in the loss of cell cycle control and has been associated with poor prognosis in HNSCC (Namazie *et al.*, 2002).

1.5.4.3 Epidermal growth factor receptor

Upon ligand binding the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) is involved in the initiation of a signalling cascade which influences many downstream pathways including cell proliferation, migration, apoptosis and angiogenesis (Argiris *et al.*, 2008). Over expression of this membrane bound tyrosine kinase receptor along with elevated levels of mRNA and amplification of the chromosomal region that encodes the *EGFR* gene has been reported in head and neck tumours (Grandis and Tweardy, 1993; Hitt *et al.*, 2005; Laimer *et al.*, 2007; Roman *et al.*, 2008; Thomas *et al.*, 2012). Due to methodological differences the percentage of HNSCC cases positive for EGFR expression, or showing elevated levels of expression, can vary between studies, however, the majority of publications report that over 90% of cases are positive for EGFR expression (Ang *et al.*, 2002; Grandis and Tweardy, 1993; Hitt *et al.*, 2005; Thomas *et al.*, 2012). High expression of the EGFR has been associated with poor prognosis (Ang *et al.*, 2002; Chung *et al.*, 2006; Hitt *et al.*, 2005; Laimer *et al.*, 2007; Rubin Grandis *et al.*, 1998) and the receptor can be targeted by the monoclonal antibody cetuximab during the treatment of advanced staged tumours (Section 1.7).

1.6 Staging of HNSCC

Staging of HNSCC is used by clinicians to express the severity or extent of the disease and assists with predicting patient prognosis whilst also providing a useful guide for the planning of treatment strategies. In addition, staging can be used to share information between NHS Trusts and research centres enabling incidence, prognosis, treatment plans and survival rates to be assessed and monitored in the UK (Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008).

For head and neck cancer, staging is determined by the TNM system which is composed of three categories; the extent of the primary tumour (T; referred to also as T stage), the absence or presence and extent of regional lymph node metastases (N; termed nodal status) and the absence or presence of distant metastases (M). Both the International Union Against Cancer (UICC) and the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), who publish systems of cancer classification, reported the same TNM classification system in their 2002 publications. The anatomical location of HNSCC is important during the staging of head and neck cancer, the AJCC divides the region by subsite to include: lip and oral cavity, pharynx, larynx, nasal cavity-paranasal sinuses, salivary glands and thyroid gland (Choong and Vokes, 2008; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008), with each location having a separate staging system for the primary tumour (T). For example, the T stage of the larynx is dependent on the region of the larynx involved (supraglottis, glottis or subglottis), how far the cancer has spread within and outside the larynx and the movement of the vocal cords (American Cancer Society, 2011a). The pharynx is also divided by location: oropharynx, nasopharynx or hypopharynx (American Cancer Society, 2011b). However, the classification of T stage for all HNSCC subsites can be generalised (Table 1.3).

One of the clinicopathological parameters HNSCC patients were grouped by in this thesis was T stage; patients with T1 or T2 staged tumours were classified as having early stage disease whilst patients with T3 or T4 staged tumours were denoted as having advanced stage disease.

Т	Definition
Tx	Primary tumour cannot be assessed
TO	No evidence of primary tumour
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1, T2, T3, T4	Increasing size and/or local extent of the primary tumour

 Table 1.3 Staging of the primary tumour in HNSCC

Reproduced from Scott-Brown et al., 2008

With the exception of nodal classification for nasopharyngeal carcinoma, the definitions for regional lymph node status and the presence of distant metastases are the same, irrespective of HNSCC subsite (Table 1.4 and Table 1.5; Choong and Vokes, 2008). In the studies conducted for this thesis HNSCC patients were grouped into patients with no evidence of nodal involvement (N0) and those with involvement of the regional lymph nodes (N^+).
Table 1.4 Classification of regional lymph node metastases in HNSCC

Ν	Definition	
Nx	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed	
NO	No evidence of regional lymph node metastases	
N1, N2, N3	Increasing involvement of regional lymph nodes	

Reproduced from Scott-Brown et al., 2008

Table 1.5 Classification of distant metastases in HNSCC

Μ	Definition
Mx	Distant metastasis cannot be assessed
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

Reproduced from Scott-Brown et al., 2008

Classifying HNSCC patients by the three components of the TNM system additionally enables the patients to be subsequently placed within a TNM stage, which is designed to group patients with regard to survival rates (Table 1.6; Scott-Brown *et al.*, 2008).

Table 1.6 TNM group staging for HNSCC

Stage	Т	Ν	Μ
0	Tis	N0	M0
Ι	T1	N0	M0
II	T2	N0	M0
III	T1, T2	N1	M0
	Т3	N0, N1	M0
IVa	T1, T2, T3	N2	M0
	T4a	N0, N1, N2	M0
IVb	Any T	N3	M0
	T4b	Any N	M0
IVc	Any T	Any N	M1

Reproduced from Scott-Brown et al., 2008

1.7 Management of HNSCC

Following diagnosis and staging of a patient's HNSCC their treatment strategies, which are influenced by both the site and stage of the cancer (Figure 1.5), are considered by a multidisciplinary team, including a head and neck surgeon, a radiation oncologist and a medical oncologist. A major challenge in treating HNSCC is the complex anatomical regions where the cancer arises, as the subsites can not only be affected by the presence of disease but also by the therapies used to increase the probability cure. For HNSCC functional outcomes such as speech and swallowing are carefully considered alongside curative intent, and therefore each patient has an individualised treatment plan.



Figure 1.5 General treatment strategies dependent on staging of HNSCC

Adapted from Choong and Vokes, 2008

Approximately one third of patients with HNSCC present with early stage disease and their choice of treatment includes surgery or radiotherapy with curative intent (Figure 1.5; Argiris et al., 2008). During surgery a limited amount of 'healthy' tissue is exposed to treatment and in comparison with radiotherapy the length of time of the treatment is short and avoids the toxicities associated with radiotherapy (Choong and Vokes, 2008). However, surgery is limited by the anatomical locations of the tumour and the desire to preserve organ function. Nevertheless, advances in microsurgical techniques have enabled the excision of accessible small tumours of the oral cavity and larynx which allows organ preservation whilst also providing good oncological outcomes (Argiris et al., 2008). For the Ear, Nose and Throat (ENT) department in Hull, endoscopic laser surgery is a preferred treatment strategy, particularly in the management of early stage laryngeal cancer where there is a risk that conventional surgery may affect the function of the larynx. Radiotherapy however, avoids the possibilities of complications associated with surgery and potentially maintains the function of treated organs without the negative aesthetic impact associated with surgery. Additionally, radiotherapy may be tolerated better compared with surgery for patients who have poor health (Choong and Vokes, 2008). For early stage glottic and base of tongue cancer, radiotherapy results in high tumour control and cure rates (Argiris et al., 2008), consequently this strategy is one of the main treatment options employed by the ENT department in Hull for patients presenting with primary tumours at an early stage. However, tumour radioresistance, which contributes to recurrence and a poor prognosis, is a significant problem in up to 25% of early stage tumours (Nix et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011), therefore additional treatment strategies are continually being sought.

The majority of HNSCC patients present with locally advanced disease and usually require combined therapy (Figure 1.5). Initially it is determined whether the tumour is resectable by surgery, which includes considering the potential functional compromise along with survival benefit. In particular, the main aim of treatment for laryngeal cancer is to provide voice preservation with a high cure rate; surgery tends to be reserved for patients with persistent or recurrent disease (Marur and Forastiere, 2008). Patients will be treated with chemoradiotherapy if the tumour is unresectable or organ preservation is desired, and postoperatively for resectable tumours (Choong and Vokes, 2008); this is the standard care for patients with advanced stage laryngeal and oropharyngeal cancers (Marur and Forastiere, 2008). The cytotoxic drugs, cisplatin, docetaxel and 5-fluorouracil are standard

chemotherapeutic agents in HNSCC treatment, as well as novel targeted therapies including cetuximab; a monoclonal antibody against the EGFR which has a role in the growth and division of cells (Argiris *et al.*, 2008; Harari *et al.*, 2009). The concurrent administration of chemo- and radiotherapy has been a major advancement in the treatment of advanced stage HNSCC (Argiris *et al.*, 2008), with the improvement of chemotherapy regimens reducing the excision of primary tumours year on year in Western Europe and North America.

Depending on the stage, subsite and nodal status of the patient's head and neck tumour, removal of the regional lymph nodes are a further treatment consideration. In approximately one third of cases, although nodal involvement may not have been clinically confirmed, lymph nodes can contain micrometastases and therefore a selective neck dissection is performed to remove the likely chance of cancer developing in the lymph nodes (Argiris *et al.*, 2008). For patients with extensive lymph node involvement a radical neck dissection is performed which can include the removal of some nerves and muscles associated with neck and shoulder movement; this is to ensure that all tissue likely to harbour cancer cells is removed (American Cancer Society, 2011a).

For HNSCC patients with recurrent or metastatic disease there is the option of surgery if the tumour is resectable. However, for many the cure rate is low and the standard choice of treatment is chemotherapy with the aim of providing symptom palliation and extending survival (Argiris *et al.*, 2008; Choong and Vokes, 2008).

Despite the current treatment strategies the five year survival rate for HNSCC remains poor. To develop treatment regimes, establish new therapeutic targets and improve prognostic information it is important that research continues to broaden our understanding of the progression of head and neck cancer; including the immunosuppressive mechanisms that target components of the immune system and the host's anti-tumour immune responses that create a favourable environment for continued tumour growth and development.

1.8 Cancer and the immune system

The immune system is a complex network of components that functions to simultaneously discriminate between self and non-self, remove damaged cells, maintain tissue homeostasis and provide protection from infectious or invading pathogens (de Visser *et al.*, 2006). Cancers are a damaging mass of malignant cells which form due to uncontrolled growth following mutations in key control genes and in order for the immune system to inhibit and eradicate this growth it must generate an attack against these cells.

The immune system can recognise the presence of cancer cells via the molecules they express, for instance molecules that are expressed solely on cancer cells and are absent on normal cells are termed tumour specific antigens. In contrast there are molecules which are expressed by normal cells and tumours, but in a different manner, these molecules are known as tumour associated antigens. Recognition of these antigens allows an anti-tumour T cell attack to be mounted by the immune system (Fairey *et al.*, 2002; Finn, 2008).

The host's anti-tumour immune response is driven predominately by interferon- γ (IFN- γ) producing CD4⁺ helper cells and cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells which act to impede tumour progression by inhibiting and killing cancerous cells (Zamarron and Chen, 2011). Natural killer (NK) cells also aid the anti-tumour attack by targeting tumour cells that are attempting to escape immune recognition through the down regulation of MHC class I molecules (Simonson and Allison, 2011). However, the presence of anti-tumour immunity is not sufficient to eradicate the cancerous mass as many tumours continue to grow with often fatal consequences for the patient. The reason for this is because the tumour employs various immunosuppressive strategies, a number of which are discussed below, which influence the function of immune components, both within the tumour microenvironment and systemically around the body and have the ability to thwart an effective immune attack and hinder the implementation of successful tumour immunotherapies (Rabinovich *et al.*, 2007).

Further to the strategies covered below, the tumour can also create a favourable environment for growth by stimulating myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSC), that assist with suppressing T cell function and proliferation, as well as influencing the differentiation of $CD4^+$ T cells and macrophages to subtypes that promote tumour cell progression (Section 5.1; Duray *et al.*, 2010; Tong *et al.*, 2012). The roles of various immune components along with the influence of cytokine secretions, involved in both tumour progression and inhibition, will be discussed further during the relevant result chapters (Section 5.1 and Section 6.1).

In addition cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells can lose effector function due to chronic stimulation by tumour antigens. These T cells are termed 'exhausted' and are characterised

by decreased cytokine expression, poor effector function and the expression of inhibitory receptors; consequently hindering the clearance of tumour cells (Wherry, 2011). T cell exhaustion was originally observed in mice chronically infected with the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus, and although the majority of studies focus on virus-specific CD8⁺ T cells, exhausted CD4⁺ T cells due to chronic viral infection have also been reported (Baitsch *et al.*, 2012; Wherry, 2011). In melanoma patients, tumour-specific CD8⁺ T cells isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes were shown to express a large variety of genes associated with T cell exhaustion, including the expression of inhibitory receptors, as well as a reduction in the secretion of IFN- γ compared with circulating tumour specific T cells (Baitsch *et al.*, 2011).

1.8.1 Immune tolerance

One of the main obstacles for the immune system to overcome and generate an attack against the tumour is immune tolerance; the absence of an immune response against specific antigens. For transplant patients this is the ultimate aim however, the opposite is true for cancer patients where an inadequate immune response allows continued tumour growth. A major element of immune tolerance is the fact that the cancer has arisen from the host's own tissue and is consequently expressing a large number of self antigens to which the immune system's T lymphocytes have been tolerised, either by central or peripheral tolerance (Mapara and Sykes, 2004). Therefore one of the main regulatory mechanisms employed by the immune system to prevent responses against self constituents, and therefore autoimmune diseases, is also one of the major strategies that contributes to cancer cells escaping a T-cell mediated attack (Rabinovich *et al.*, 2007).

1.8.2 Dendritic cells

Dendritic cells are antigen presenting cells which take up, process and present antigens to T lymphocytes to enable a tumour specific response to be generated (Rabinovich *et al.*, 2007). It has been reported in head and neck cancer that the number and function of dendritic cells in the peripheral circulation and tumour draining lymph nodes of patients was significantly reduced compared with healthy controls (Almand *et al.*, 2000). Additionally, the number and activity of dendritic cells in the periphery of patients with advanced stage HNSCC was significantly lower than that in patients with early stage disease (Almand *et al.*, 2000). A further study has shown that patients with cancer of the breast, prostate and malignant glioma have a significantly larger proportion of immature dendritic cells in their circulation which had a reduced ability to capture and present antigens (Pinzon-Charry *et al.*, 2005). Decreased numbers or function of dendritic cells in cancer patients will lead to reduced antigen presentation and immune stimulation, enabling the tumour to escape a T cell mediated response.

1.8.3 Transforming growth factor-β

The production of the immunoregulatory cytokine transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) by malignant cells of the tumour is another potential way that cancer is able to suppress the actions of the immune system. TGF- β is a multifunctional immunosuppressive cytokine which aids immune homeostasis by maintaining tolerance through the regulation of lymphocyte proliferation, differentiation and survival (Li et al., 2006). In HNSCC elevated levels of TGF- β have been reported within the carcinoma, adjacent tissues (Lu et al., 2004) and secreted by carcinoma associated fibroblasts (Rosenthal et al., 2004). Although Logullo and colleagues (2003) reported no clinicopathological association with TGF- β in HNSCC tissue samples, it has been shown in other malignancies, including non small cell lung, gastric and bladder carcinoma, that raised TGF- β levels in tumour specimens and plasma samples correlate with poor prognosis (Hasegawa et al., 2001; Saito et al., 1999; Shariat et al., 2001). The role TGF-β plays in assisting the tumour to escape immune surveillance includes the reduction of MHC I and II expression on carcinoma cells, decreasing NK cell activation as well as disrupting the function and proliferation of tumour infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL; Section 6.1; Bierie and Moses, 2006). Thomas and Massague (2005) has demonstrated this to include TGF- β having the ability to specifically repress the gene expression of cytotoxic mediators (perforin, granzyme A, granzyme B, interferon γ and FasL) in cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL).

1.8.4 Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase

The enzyme indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) catalyses the initial and rate limiting step in the oxidative breakdown of the essential amino acid tryptophan (Rabinovich *et al.*, 2007; Uyttenhove *et al.*, 2003). It has been shown that local shortage of tryptophan and the presence of its catabolites can impair T lymphocyte activation and arrest their proliferation (Frumento *et al.*, 2002; Munn *et al.*, 1999), enhancing the ability of the tumour to evade the host immune response. IDO has been shown to be expressed in numerous tumour types, including HNSCC, with high/diffuse IDO expression also being correlated with poor prognosis in colorectal, invasive cervical and ovarian cancer (Brandacher *et al.*, 2006; Inaba *et al.*, 2010; Okamoto *et al.*, 2005; Uyttenhove *et al.*, 2003).

1.8.5 Regulatory T cells

Over the past few years a subset of suppressive T lymphocytes (regulatory T cells; Tregs) that have an essential role in the maintenance of peripheral tolerance (Section 1.9), have received significant interest for their role in the suppression of anti-tumour immunity. The level of CD4⁺ Tregs has been reported to be elevated in a large number of malignancies, including head and neck cancer (Section 1.13). The role, presence and function of Tregs in HNSCC is investigated in this thesis in an attempt to gain a greater understanding of the regulatory population in the hope of contributing towards new immunotherapeutic strategies and improved prognostic information.

1.9 Tregs and peripheral tolerance

The immune system is finely balanced through its ability to discriminate between self and non-self, to prevent autoimmunity and preserve immune homeostasis. This equilibrium is maintained by both central and peripheral tolerance (Dieckmann *et al.*, 2001).

Central tolerance is the primary mechanism employed to delete self reactive T lymphocytes and occurs during T lymphocyte development in the thymus. For those

autoreactive T lymphocytes that escape thymic deletion or are reactive to self antigens expressed only extrathymically, peripheral tolerance is used to render these harmful populations unresponsive. Tregs are a population of T lymphocytes that play a major role in the maintenance of peripheral tolerance by suppressing the activation and effector function of autoreactive T cells, preventing the development of autoimmune diseases (Dieckmann *et al.*, 2001; Thornton and Shevach, 1998). Numerous studies in both mice and humans have shown that deletion or inactivation of this T cell subset results in the development of severe autoimmune diseases (Bennett *et al.*, 2001; Gavin *et al.*, 2006; Itoh *et al.*, 1999; Sakaguchi *et al.*, 1995; Wildin *et al.*, 2002).

1.10 History of Tregs

It has been known for many years that the immune system is regulated in some way to prevent excessive immune activity and in 1971, a short time after the two major lymphocyte groups (B and T) of the adaptive immune system had been identified, Gershon and Kondo (1971) suggested that T lymphocytes had the ability to 'shut off' the activity of other cells through the production of an immunosuppressive substance. In conjunction with publications presenting evidence for the existence of different functional subsets of T cells, as identified by Ly and Ia antigens (Cantor and Boyse, 1975; Vadas *et al.*, 1976), as well as the logical idea that the immune system needed to be tightly controlled to prevent over activity, the notion and presence of a suppressive T cell population quickly became accepted (Germain, 2008).

Immunologists of this era however did not possess the necessary tools and techniques required to conduct precise experiments, and perhaps due to this, their results have not stood the test of time. Consequently, this led to a lack of transferable skills and variations in results between different laboratories and research groups (Waldmann, 2008). As research continued in this rapidly growing field, concepts surrounding suppressor T cells began to become complicated and the accumulation of discrepancies and negative findings led a once rapidly moving field to one that was tainted with doubt. As a result, the volume of work decreased and publications on suppressor T cells became scarce (Germain, 2008).

After several years of scepticism surrounding suppressor T cells, interest began to increase during the 1990s as experimental evidence accumulated on a specific regulatory T cell population. In both syngenic nude mice and rats it was demonstrated that a lethal wasting disease with multiple organ inflammation developed via inoculation with $CD4^+$ T cells expressing high levels of CD45RB (naïve T cells) whereas injection with $CD4^+$ T cells expressing low levels of CD45RB (memory T cells) did not (Powrie *et al.*, 1993; Powrie and Mason, 1990). In addition it was shown that when both subsets were administered no wasting or colitis developed (Powrie *et al.*, 1993; Powrie and Mason, 1990). These studies indicated that there was a $CD4^+$ T cell population present within normal animals which was capable of causing harm to self. However, a T cell subset existed which regulated the pathological T cells thereby preventing the generation of disease.

The same trend was reported in mice by Sakaguchi and colleagues (1995) who demonstrated that $CD4^+$ cells that were positive for the expression of the IL-2 receptor α chain (CD25) prevented the development of autoimmune diseases, which had been shown to occur in mice inoculated with $CD4^+CD25^-$ T cells. The co-transfer of $CD4^+CD25^+$ and $CD4^+CD25^-$ T cells effectively showed that the presence of $CD25^+$ cells prevented the development of an autoimmune disease through interaction with the $CD25^-$ cells. The publication of the Sakaguchi study is regarded by many as the beginning of a plethora of investigations that reignited interest in the field of Tregs (Bettini and Vignali, 2010; Fontenot and Rudensky, 2004; Shevach, 2002; Wilke *et al.*, 2010).

1.11 Treg subtypes

CD4⁺ Tregs have been categorised into two broad groups according to their different pathways of development and the methods employed to induce suppression; naturally occurring Tregs (nTregs) and induced or adaptive Tregs (iTregs; Figure 1.6). nTregs develop in the thymus and enter the periphery with a functionally suppressive phenotype expressing the forkheadbox transcription factor p3 (Foxp3; Wing *et al.*, 2006), and for healthy individuals this subset of Tregs is present from birth (Roncarolo and Battaglia, 2007). In contrast, iTregs arise in the periphery where regulatory capacity is generated in naïve T cells in response to environmental signals (Shevach, 2006; Wing *et al.*, 2006).

al., 2006). iTregs can be divided further into T regulatory type 1 (Tr1) cells, T helper-3 (Th3) cells or induced $CD4^+CD25^+Foxp3^+$ Tregs depending on their method of development and secretion of cyokines (Section 1.11.2; Figure 1.6).

Tregs with a CD8⁺ phenotype have also been identified and may be able to be divided further dependent on phenotype or function (Shevach, 2006). However, due to the ability of CD4⁺ Tregs to suppress the activation and function of CD8⁺ T cells (Piccirillo and Shevach, 2001) and difficulties in the characterisation of this regulatory population (Wang and Alexander, 2009) there has been limited research into CD8-specific Tregs (Shevach, 2006).



Figure 1.6 Generation of different CD4⁺ Treg subtypes

Adapted from Curotto de Lafaille and Lafaille, 2009

1.11.1 nTregs

When the literature discusses Tregs it is commonly referring to nTregs, although this is not always clearly explained. nTregs are a CD4⁺ T cell population that develop and

obtain their suppressive phenotype (CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺) in the thymus and migrate to the periphery (Fontenot and Rudensky, 2004). This naturally occurring regulatory population plays a major role in the maintenance of peripheral tolerance and deficiency in nTregs leads to the development of severe autoimmune diseases (Section 1.9). It has been known for many years that a suppressive T cell population develops in the thymus following a number of studies reporting the induction of multi organ autoimmune diseases after neonatal thymectomy in a murine model (Kim and Rudensky, 2006; Taguchi *et al.*, 1985; Tung *et al.*, 1987). These investigations demonstrated that central tolerance does not completely delete all autoreactive T cells and in addition, highlighted that the thymus produces a population of suppressor T cells which are able to regulate the action of these harmful T cells.

Tregs are anergic *in vitro*, i.e. they do no proliferative or produce IL-2 upon T cell receptor (TCR) stimulation, however, this anergy can be broken by the addition of high doses of IL-2 or anti-CD28 (Fehervari and Sakaguchi, 2004a; Thornton *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, Treg anergy is not observed *in vivo*, with studies demonstrating proliferation and expansion of the regulatory population (Klein *et al.*, 2003; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2003). For Tregs to exert their suppressive function they must first be activated through their TCR with a specific antigen, although once activated their suppressive activity is not antigen specific (Dieckmann *et al.*, 2001; Itoh *et al.*, 1999; Takahashi *et al.*, 1998; Thornton and Shevach, 1998). It is known that Tregs specific for self-antigens are primed in the thymus, it is therefore perhaps not surprising that Tregs have been shown to be specific for tumour associated antigens due to the cancer arising from the host's self tissue (Mougiakakos *et al.*, 2010; Piersma *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, in a murine study it was demonstrated that the concentration of antigen required to activate and exert Treg function was approximately 10-100 fold lower than the concentration required to induce the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells (Takahashi *et al.*, 1998).

Although this T cell population is vital in preserving immune homeostasis through the maintenance of peripheral tolerance, Tregs have been shown to be elevated in a number of different cancers types (Section 1.13) and are regarded as an important mechanism by which the tumour impairs the host's anti-tumour response and successfully evades the immune system, thus making them a potential therapeutic target.

1.11.2 iTregs

The induction of Tregs allows the immune system to adapt and respond to immunogenic conditions (Feuerer *et al.*, 2009). As previously mentioned the iTreg population can be divided into several different subsets, including Tr1 cells, Th3 cells or induced CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ Tregs. Many iTregs are found at mucosal sites where tolerance to commensal flora and foreign antigens, such as food and inhaled antigens, needs to be maintained in order to prevent pathological responses being generated in the gut, lungs or airways (Yuan and Malek, 2012).

Tr1 cells are characterised by the lack of Foxp3 expression and the production of high levels of IL-10 (Vieira *et al.*, 2004). Secreting high levels of IL-10, low levels of IL-2 and no IL-4, their cytokine profile is distinct from that of Th1 and Th2 effector T cells (Groux *et al.*, 1997). IL-10 has also been shown to be responsible for the generation of this population; Groux and colleagues (1997) demonstrated that naïve antigen specific CD4⁺ T cells continuously stimulated by the TCR in the presence of IL-10 produced a T cell population that had low proliferative capacity and were functionally suppressive. Additionally, in a murine model of inflammatory bowel disease, the transfer of Tr1 cells prevented the development of the disease (Groux *et al.*, 1997). Although IL-10 is regarded as the 'driving force' for the differentiation of Tr1 cells, in the *in vitro* induction of human Tr1 cells from naïve CD4⁺ cells, several experimental studies have shown that IL-10 is required but probably not sufficient for Tr1 cell generation (Battaglia *et al.*, 2006; Roncarolo and Battaglia, 2007). It has also been reported that Tr1 cells exert their suppressive capacity through the production of IL-10 and TGF- β in an antigen non-specific manner (Battaglia *et al.*, 2006; Groux et al., 1997).

In contrast, suppressive Th3 cells are characterised by the primary production of TGF- β with varying amounts of IL-4 and IL-10 (Wing *et al.*, 2006) and were first identified during investigations into oral tolerance (Weiner, 2001). Although experimental evidence is less available for Th3 cells compared with Tr1 cells, it has been demonstrated that TCR and TGF- β co-stimulation converted naïve murine CD4⁺CD25⁻Foxp3⁻ T cells into a CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ regulatory population that was characteristically anergic, expressed TGF- β and had suppressive activity towards T cell proliferation (Chen *et al.*, 2003). Due to the gut microenvironment having high levels of TGF- β the differentiation of naïve CD4⁺ T cells to Th3 cells is promoted, associating the regulatory population with tolerance against food and

commensal bacterial antigens (Chen and Konkel, 2010; Weiner, 2001). However, with the positive expression of Foxp3, this TGF- β generated murine regulatory population may also be classified as induced CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ Tregs.

The stimulation of naïve $CD4^+$ T cells to express Foxp3 in the presence of TGF- β has also been demonstrated in humans (Fantini *et al.*, 2004; Tran *et al.*, 2007). Although the distinction between Th3 cells and induced $CD4^+CD25^+Foxp3^+$ Tregs is unclear and probably overlaps, it is now generally accepted, in both mice and humans, that TGF- β signalling coupled with TCR stimulation is essential for the induction of Foxp3 expression in naïve $CD4^+$ cells and conversion of them into iTregs (Chen and Konkel, 2010). However, unlike in the murine model where Foxp3 expression generates an immunosuppressive T cell population, Foxp3 induction in human T cells does not necessarily confer a population with suppressive activity (Section 1.12).

At the beginning of the work conducted by this thesis, and to date, the iTreg populations, in particular Tr1 and Th3, remain poorly phenotypically defined. The studies conducted for this thesis have therefore focussed on the more characterised nTreg population (Section 1.12), enabling identification, isolation and functional characterisation of the regulatory population in HNSCC patients. However, it is noted that identifying nTregs by their positive expression of Foxp3 may include a population of Foxp3⁺ iTregs.

1.12 Identification of Tregs

In attempts to understand the role of Tregs in various human diseases and the maintenance of peripheral tolerance, identification of this suppressive T cell population is important for isolation, characterisation, functional analysis, *ex vivo* expansion and detecting their existence *in vivo*. However, despite the numerous studies performed on Tregs and efforts to identify a unique marker, a definitive label has yet to be discovered. Consequently, a number of cell surface and intracellular markers are used in combination for their identification.

The most widely recognised surface marker used to identify Tregs is CD25 (IL-2 receptor α chain), with functional Tregs easily isolated from mice using the phenotype CD4⁺CD25⁺ (Sakaguchi *et al.*, 1995). Based on the murine Treg findings, several groups

employed the CD4⁺CD25⁺ phenotype to demonstrate the presence of Tregs in humans (Dieckmann et al., 2001; Jonuleit et al., 2001; Levings et al., 2001). Approximately 10-15% of the CD4⁺ T cell population expresses CD25 (Baecher-Allan et al., 2001; Baecher-Allan et al., 2005; Levings et al., 2001), however, in humans this phenotype is also adopted by activated effector T cells, necessitating further characterisation of Tregs. It has subsequently been found that CD4⁺ cells with high CD25 expression levels (CD25^{high}) have the ability to reduce the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻ cells by 69-98%. In contrast CD4⁺CD25^{low} cells did not possess this suppressive activity (Baecher-Allan et al., 2001; Cesana et al., 2006). CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells, now a commonly used phenotype to identify Tregs, represent approximately 1-2% of the CD4⁺ population; however, the exact definition of CD25^{high} does vary between studies. For example, Whiteside and colleagues define the CD4⁺CD25^{high} population by CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25 with a mean fluorescence of \geq 120 (Figure 1.7a); this boundary was selected following suppression studies which indicated that it was only this population that had suppressive activity (Strauss et al., 2007a; Strauss et al., 2007b). Other groups distinguish CD25^{high} and CD25^{low/intermediate} populations based on the expression of CD25 by CD4⁻ T cells (Figure 1.7b); CD4⁺ T cells exceeding the level of CD25 expression by CD4⁻ T cells are defined as the CD4⁺CD25^{high} population (Cesana et al., 2006; Chi et al., 2010; Hoffmann et al., 2004; Yokokawa et al., 2008). It was this method of CD25 separation that was used by the studies in this thesis to identify Treg populations with varying levels of CD25 expression.



Figure 1.7 Different gating strategies to identify $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs (a) PBMC were acquired and the lymphocyte population gated by forward and side scatter properties. From the lymphocyte population the $CD3^+CD4^+$ cells were identified and used to determine the $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs, based on the expression of CD25 having a mean fluorescence intensity ≥ 120 , Strauss *et al.*, (2007a) and (b) $CD4^+$ cells were divided into $CD25^{high}$, $CD25^{low}$ and $CD25^-$ populations. The $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ gate was determined on the $CD4^+$ cells whose expression of CD25 exceeded that of $CD4^-$ cells, Chi *et al.*, (2010).

The variable levels of CD25 expression and the fact that the receptor is generally expressed on activated T cells fuelled the search for markers unique to Tregs. It was the similarities observed between the symptoms suffered by the Scurfy mutant mouse strain, individuals suffering from immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, Xlinked (IPEX) syndrome and the depletion of Tregs in animal models, which led several groups to investigate the causative gene of these two syndromes; Foxp3 (Fehervari and Sakaguchi, 2004b). Subsequent research demonstrated that Foxp3 plays an important role in both the development and function of Tregs (Fontenot et al., 2003; Gavin et al., 2006; Hori et al., 2003). Murine studies reported that the mRNA level of Foxp3 was 100 times greater in CD4⁺CD25⁺ cells than CD4⁺CD25⁻ cells, with *in vitro* activated CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells failing to express the transcription factor (Fontenot et al., 2003; Hori et al., 2003). It was also demonstrated that mice lacking expression of Foxp3 could be rescued from autoimmune diseases by inoculation of naturally occurring CD4⁺CD25⁺ cells or CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells transduced to express Foxp3 (Fontenot *et al.*, 2003; Hori *et al.*, 2003). A subsequent study observed that CD4⁺CD25^{high}Foxp3⁺ and CD4⁺CD25^{low}Foxp3⁺ cells were both equally suppressive towards CD4⁺CD25⁻Foxp3⁻ T cell proliferation, indicating

that Foxp3, regardless of CD25 expression, is a useful marker for the identification of suppressive murine Tregs (Fontenot *et al.*, 2005).

Investigations into Foxp3 expression in human Tregs are a little more complex. Wang et al. (2007) reported that 93.3% of CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells expressed Foxp3 whereas only 14.2% of CD4⁺CD25^{inter} and 1.8% of CD4⁺CD25⁻ cells expressed the transcription factor; the same trend has been observed by a number of studies comparing CD4⁺CD25⁺ and CD4⁺CD25⁻ populations (Gavin *et al.*, 2006; Morgan *et al.*, 2005; Walker *et al.*, 2003). In contrast to murine investigations, several groups have demonstrated that human activated CD4⁺CD25⁻ effector T cells gain Foxp3 expression, along with CD25 (Allan *et al.*, 2007; Gavin et al., 2006; Morgan et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2007). However, it was shown by flow cytometry that activated Tregs expressed a higher level of Foxp3 than activated effector T cells (Allan et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2007). Additionally, the majority of activated $CD4^+CD25^-T$ cells did not have the capacity to suppress $CD4^+T$ cell proliferation or IFN- γ secretion and expressed Foxp3 only transiently (Gavin *et al.*, 2006; Tran et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2007). In direct contrast, Walker and colleagues (2003) reported that activated CD4⁺CD25⁻, up regulating CD25 and Foxp3, acquired suppressive activity demonstrating the ability to suppress the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻ cells. It has therefore been concluded that, as with CD25, Foxp3 can be used as a marker of T cell activation but is not solely sufficient to induce suppressive activity in human T cells. Consequently, Foxp3 is not a unique marker for the identification of human Tregs but remains one of the most specific markers found to date and may be used in combination with other markers to identify this T cell subset. However, the intracellular location of Foxp3 does mean that this transcription factor cannot be used to isolate Tregs for functional studies or *in vitro* culturing, therefore limiting its use in both research and clinical applications.

In an attempt to find a marker that would identify Tregs in humans and allow for subsequent functional studies, Liu *et al.* (2006) observed that the IL-7 receptor α chain (CD127) was down regulated on Foxp3⁺ T cells. In fact CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells, the commonly accepted phenotype for human Tregs, were shown to have a three fold lower level of mRNA expression for CD127 in comparison to CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells. Liu and colleagues also demonstrated, through multiparameter flow cytometry, that the expression of CD127 was inversely correlated to Foxp3 expression. In fact for one individual, 94% of

the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} T cells expressed Foxp3 and these cells were shown to be as suppressive, if not more, than the classic CD4⁺CD25^{high} Treg population. Additionally, the mean percentage of Foxp3⁺ expression in the CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} population was 25.5% and further analysis showed these cells to possess suppressive activity (Liu *et al.*, 2006). The inverse correlation between Foxp3 and CD127 expression and the suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} T cells has also been supported by Hartigan-O'Connor *et al.*, (2007), Seddiki *et al.*, (2006) and Shen *et al.*, (2009). Highlighting further the relationship between CD127 and Foxp3, it has been demonstrated by Jeffrey Bluestone's laboratory that Foxp3 binds to the IL-7 receptor promoter region, suggesting repression of the CD127 gene by Foxp3 (Liu *et al.*, 2006). Using the Treg markers CD25 and CD127 approximately 6-8% of CD4⁺ T cells express the phenotype CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}, at least threefold more than the CD4⁺CD25^{high} Treg phenotype, thereby providing a greater number of Tregs which could be expanded to a sufficient number of cells for use in immunotherapy (Hartigan-O'Connor *et al.*, 2007; Seddiki *et al.*, 2006).

Klein *et al.* (2010) have reported that a proportion of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ cells are also positive for Foxp3, however, due to the intracellular location of the transcription factor, it is not possible to isolate and assess the suppressive activity of this sub-population. It has also been observed that CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells immediately down regulate CD127 upon activation before expression of the IL-7 receptor reappears in both Foxp3 positive and negative cohorts. This illustrates that activation induced expression of Foxp3 is not sufficient to maintain the low expression of CD127, whereas Foxp3 expression in nTregs is associated with a CD127^{low/-} phenotype (Allan *et al.*, 2007).

In addition to the markers discussed, there are an array of molecules that have been shown to be important to Treg function or are able to be employed to identify a subset of Tregs in combination with other markers (Table 1.7). However, the expression of these markers are not specific to the suppressive T cell population and therefore the search for a marker that will definitively and reproducibly enable the identification and isolation of Tregs continues.

Marker	Role/Marker of	Reference
Cytotoxic T-Lymphocyte	Inhibits T cell function	Birebent et al., 2004
Anugen-4 (CILA-4; CD152)		
CD39	Hydrolyses ATP and ADP	Borsellino et al., 2007
CD45RA	Naïve T cells	Miyara <i>et al.</i> , 2009
CD45RO	Memory T cells	Baecher-Allan et al., 2001
Glucocorticoid-Induced TNF Receptor (GITR)	Suppressive function	McHugh <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Inducible Co-Stimulatory Receptor (ICOS)	Associated with IL-10 and TGF-β induced suppression	Ito <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Helios	nTregs	Thornton et al., 2010

 Table 1.7
 Markers important to Treg function or used to identify Treg subsets

To enable the frequency and suppressive activity of Tregs from HNSCC patients to be investigated, the studies conducted in this thesis will utilise the inverse correlation between Foxp3 and CD127 expression; using the CD127^{low/-} phenotype to identify, isolate and functionally characterise the regulatory populations which have both intermediate and high levels of CD25 expression.

1.13 Tregs and cancer

The notion that a suppressive T cell population is involved in tumour immune evasion is not a new concept. In the 1970s and 1980s it was suggested that one of the methods employed by the tumour, to enable its continued progression, was to favour the generation of a suppressor T cell population (Greene *et al.*, 1979; Treves *et al.*, 1974). In 1980, Berendt and North demonstrated that a thymus dependent mechanism prevented the regression of tumours and this was accredited to a subset of T cells that prevented the host from mounting a successful anti-tumour response. More than twenty years later, and following the identification of Tregs in murine models, it was reported that elimination or inhibition of Tregs with an anti-CD25 monoclonal antibody (PC61) resulted in the regression of several different murine tumours (Onizuka *et al.*, 1999; Shimizu *et al.*, 1999), highlighting their role in sustaining tumour growth.

The presence of Tregs in cancer patients was demonstrated by Woo *et al.* (2001) who showed that there was a significant increase of Tregs (CD4⁺CD25⁺) in the tumour microenvironment of both early stage non small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and late stage ovarian cancer (OVC) compared with the circulation of healthy controls. The elevation of Tregs in the peripheral blood of OVC patients compared with healthy controls was also demonstrated but this significant trend was not shared by the peripheral blood of NSCLC patients. Subsequently, similar results have been observed in a number of malignancies, including HNSCC, with numerous studies reporting an elevation of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients compared with healthy controls (Table 1.8).

The elevation of Tregs in cancer patients, impairing the host's anti-tumour response, has caused numerous groups to investigate the prevalence of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment as a prognostic indicator. In one of the first studies to associate Tregs with cancer patient prognosis, Curiel and colleagues (2004) demonstrated a significant correlation between the number of Tregs present in the tumour tissue and patient survival; patients with a high tumour Treg count had a 4.2 fold reduction in survival when compared to those patients with a low Treg count. However, investigations into other cancer types have not always agreed with these initial reports, with publications reporting conflicting results over whether the presence of tumour infiltrating Tregs are associated with positive or negative prognosis, or of no relevance at all (Table 1.9). In particular, for HNSCC and ovarian carcinoma, there are studies which have presented all three outcomes (Table 1.9). With each cancer type presenting varying results regarding the prognostic association of Tregs, it is important that each type of malignancy is assessed individually, including the different subsites in the head and neck region.

Treg phenotype	Cancer type	Mean	Mean	Reference
		percentage of Tregs in	percentage of Tregs in	
		cancer	healthy	
		patients	controls	
$CD4^+CD25^+$	Pancreas/ breast	13.2/16.6	8.6	Liyanage <i>et al.</i> (2002)
	Gastric/ oesophageal	18.8/26.5	8.9	Ichihara <i>et al.</i> (2003)
	HNSCC	10.1 ^a	5.4 ^a	(2005) Schaefer <i>et al.</i> (2005)
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high}	Hepatocellular	3.9	1.2	Ormandy <i>et al.</i> (2005)
	Gastric/	4.9/5.2	1.9	Kono <i>et al.</i> (2006)
	HNSCC	1.2	0.5	Mandapathil <i>et</i>
	Bladder	8.7	2.4	Chi <i>et al.</i> (2010)
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ FOXP3 ⁺	Colorectal	5.2	3.0	Chaput <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	HNSCC*	86.0 ^b	65.0 ^b	Strauss <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	Oesophageal	7.0	2.5	Maruyama <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> (2010)
	Hepatocellular*	2.0	1.2	Feng <i>et al.</i> (2011)
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	Gastric	7.8 ^c	5.5 [°]	Shen <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	HNSCC*	3.4	1.8	Schott <i>et al.</i> (2010)
	Acute myeloid leukemia	9.20	5.44	Shenghui <i>et al.</i> (2011)

Table 1.8Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of Tregphenotypes in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients compared with healthycontrols

* Identified by stated phenotype but with CD25^{high} expression

All values expressed as a percentage of CD4⁺ cells, apart from ^a lymphocytes ^b CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells and ^c total peripheral T cells

Cancer Type	Prognostic association	Reference
HNSCC	Positive	Badoual <i>et al</i> . (2006)
Ovarian	Positive	Leffers et al. (2009)
Colorectal	Positive	Salama <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Bladder	Positive	Winerdal et al. (2011)
Ovarian	Negative	Curiel et al. (2004)
Pancreatic	Negative	Hiraoka <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Breast	Negative	Bates <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Hepatocellular	Negative	Kobayashi et al. (2007)
NSCLC	Negative	Shimizu <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Renal	Negative	Liotta <i>et al.</i> (2010)
HNSCC	Negative	Sun <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Ovarian	None	Sato <i>et al.</i> (2005)
Anal	None	Grabenbauer et al. (2006)
Renal	None	Siddiqui et al. (2007)
HNSCC	None	Distel et al. (2009)
Colon	None	Sinicrope et al. (2009)
Oesophageal	None	Zingg <i>et al.</i> (2010)
NSCLC	None	Liu et al. (2012)

Table 1.9Representative studies demonstrating association of tumour infiltratingTregs with prognosis in cancer

1.14 Aims of study

The presence of Tregs is thought to be an important mechanism by which HNSCC successfully evades the immune system and the host's anti-tumour attack. However, the exact role of Tregs in HNSCC has yet to be defined.

Head and neck tumours arising from different subsites are frequently grouped together in research studies; however, although HNSCC are united by general location and histology, the different primary sites vary in presentation, pathogenesis and survival, and therefore should be investigated separately in a research setting. Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients have been investigated previously, however the patient populations often include patients who have had prior treatment and have been grouped as a single entity (Schaefer *et al.*, 2005; Schott *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a). In addition, numerous cancer studies examine the frequency of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of patients, however, when assessing the Treg population it is important not only to examine

their prevalence, but also to investigate their suppressive capacity; as it is the functional activity of Tregs which will determine how effective a host's anti-tumour response will be in combating the growth and progression of a tumour. The current study will recruit newly-presenting patients that have received no previous diagnosis or treatment for cancer, to enable the direct influence of the head and neck tumour on the Treg population to be assessed. By using the CD127^{low/-} phenotype, both the frequency and function of Tregs in the circulation and tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients will be assessed in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status.

To investigate the role Tregs have in HNSCC the suppressive T cell population firstly needs to be isolated; several cancer research groups have used magnetic activated cell sorting (Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2010; Yokokawa *et al.*, 2008) or fluorescence activated cell sorting (Chi *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a). This study will compare the use of both methods to determine which of the two procedures is optimal for isolating Tregs from peripheral blood and tumour samples, taking into account the length of the experiment and the purity and yield of the Treg population. Once a method has been established a carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFSE) assay to follow the proliferation of effector T cells will be optimised, to enable the suppressive activity of Tregs in both the periphery and the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients to be assessed. Additionally, the immunosuppressive environment established by HNSCC will be examined further by analysing the secretion of cytokines and investigating the effect of tumour secretions on the functional activity of Tregs.

Increasing our understanding of the regulatory population will help to establish whether Tregs could be used as a prognostic determinant in head and neck cancer or be targeted by future immunotherapeutic strategies to reduce the Tregs responsible for the HNSCC-specific immune suppression; with the hope of improving the quality of life and survival rate for HNSCC patients. Chapter 2.

Materials and methods

2.1 Culture of head and neck cancer cell lines

Head and neck cancer cell lines were cultured in 75cm² culture flasks (Sarstedt, Leicester, UK) containing approximately 12ml of complete medium: Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM; PAA, Yeovil, UK), supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS; Biosera, Ringmer, UK), 0.4mM L-glutamine and penicillin/streptomycin (final concentration: 0.1U/ml and 0.1mg/ml respectively; PAA). Cells were maintained in a humidified incubator at 37°C with an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ (Galaxy 170 S, New Brunswick Scientific, Stevenage, UK).

Upon reaching 80-100% confluence the cell monolayer was passaged in a class II biological safety cabinet (Airstream, Esco, Downton, UK). The medium was removed and the cell monolayer washed with sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS; Appendix; Oxoid Limited, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Basingstoke, UK). Trypsin/ethylenediaminetetra acetic acid (EDTA; 0.5mg/0.22mg/ml respectively; PAA) was added to the flask (2ml) for approximately 5 minutes at 37°C and agitated to ensure thorough removal of the adherent cells. Complete medium (10ml) was added to the flask to inhibit the trypsin and the cell suspension was recovered and centrifuged at 300 x *g* for 3 minutes to pellet the cells. Following removal of the supernatant the pellet was re-suspended in complete medium and the appropriate volume of cells, dependent on the cell line and the time of passage, was added to a sterile, labelled flask containing 12ml of medium.

2.2 Cryogenic storage of head and neck cancer cell lines

To maintain a store of the head and neck cancer cell lines, to be used when required in future experiments and minimise antigenic drift, the cell lines were cryogenically stored following culture. The HNSCC cell lines were cultured for no longer than 2 months before returning to a cryogenic aliquot. Briefly, the confluent culture of cells in a 75cm² culture flask (Sarstedt) was removed by trypsin/EDTA (PAA) as outlined in Section 2.1. Following centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded and the resulting cell pellet resuspended in 3ml of freeze medium (culture medium containing 10% v/v dimethylsulphoxide; DMSO; Sigma, Gillingham, UK). The cell suspension was aliquoted into 1ml labelled cryovials and frozen at a rate of 1°C per minute in a cryo freezing container (Thermo Scientific Nalgene, Loughborough, UK) at -80°C before transfer in to liquid nitrogen storage.

2.3 Mycoplasma testing and treatment

Head and neck cancer cell lines were routinely tested for mycoplasma infection as outlined in Section 2.3.1 and if found to be positive were treated to eradicate the infection as described in Section 2.3.2

2.3.1 Mycoplasma testing

The presence of mycoplasma was determined using a MycoProbeTM Mycoplasma Dectection Kit (R&D Systems, Abingdon, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cell culture supernatants (35µl) were diluted 10 fold in cell lysis diluent (provided in the kit) and vortexed for 15–20 seconds. Following washing of the hybridisation plate twice with the 1x wash buffer provided, and the addition of 50µl of diluted probes to each designated well, 150µl of positive control (synthetic DNA oligonucleotide), negative control (sample diluent) and diluted cell culture samples were added to appropriate wells in duplicate. The diluted probes included biotin-labelled capture oligonucleotide probes and digoxigenin-labelled detection probes that target the 16S ribosomal RNA of the eight most common mycoplasma contaminants that infect cell cultures. The plate was incubated for 60 minutes in a 65° C oven whilst covered with a plate sealer. Throughout the assay procedure each wash step involved aspiration and washing of each well with 400µl of 1x wash buffer, using an automated plate washer (Wellwash 4 Mk 2 Microplate Strip Washer, Thermo Scientific), before a final aspiration.

Following incubation, 150μ l from each well of the hybridisation plate was transferred to a streptavidin-coated plate that had been washed twice with 1 x wash buffer, to capture the ribosomal RNA/probe hybrid. After a further 60 minutes incubation on a horizontal orbital shaker (500 ± 50rpm) at room temperature the plate was washed four times and 200µl of anti-digoxigenin alkaline phosphatase conjugate was added to each

well. The plate was incubated under the same conditions for a further 60 minutes, washed six times and 50µl of substrate solution (NADPH) added to each well. Following 60 minutes of incubation, 50µl of amplifier solution (INT-violet) was added to each well and incubated for 30 minutes before the reaction was stopped with the addition of 50µl of stop solution (2N H_2SO_4). The optical density for each well was determined at 490nm with wave length correction at 620nm.

The average of the duplicate optical density readings was determined for each control and sample tested before the average negative control optical density was subtracted. Average optical density values below 0.05 were considered negative for mycoplasma whilst values over 0.1 were positive indicating that the cell culture was infected with mycoplasma. It was recommended that if values between 0.05 and 0.1 were obtained the procedure be repeated as the results were inconclusive.

2.3.2 Mycoplasma treatment

Head and neck cancer cell lines found to be infected with mycoplasma were cultured in complete medium (Section 2.1) supplemented with MycoKill AB ($10\mu g/ml$; PAA) for two weeks. The culture was then assayed for the presence of mycoplasma (Section 2.3.1) to ensure the infection had been cleared. If the infection persisted the manufacturer recommended repeating the treatment with increased Mycokill AB concentrations; however for the current study mycoplasma was removed from the cell cultures after a single treatment.

2.4 Cell counting and viability determination

The concentration of cells in suspension was calculated using an improved neubauer haemocytometer (Hawksley, Lancing, UK). Cell suspension (10μ l) was added to an equal volume of 0.4% (w/v) Trypan blue (Sigma), which enters non-viable cells through their compromised membrane resulting in blue cytoplasm. The cell/dye suspension was added to the haemocytometer chamber and the number of viable cells in the 25 squares

(volume = 1×10^{-4} cm³) were counted under a light microscope. An average of two counts was taken and the concentration of cells was calculated using the following equation:-

Cell concentration = Average cell count x 2 (dilution factor) x 10^4 (cells/ml)

2.5 Collection of conditioned medium from head and neck cancer cell lines

Adherent cells were recovered from the culture flask using trypsin/EDTA (PAA) as outlined in Section 2.1. Cell concentration and viability were determined using trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4) and 1 x 10^6 cells were added to each well of a 6 well plate (Sarstedt) in 1ml of complete growth medium (Section 2.1). For each cell line a minimum of four wells was cultured to enable a 96 hour time course to be followed. Conditioned medium samples were collected for each head and neck cancer cell line so that the release of cytokines could be examined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA; Section 2.6) as well as assessing the effect of cancer cell line conditioned medium on the suppressive activity of Tregs (Section 2.17).

At appropriate time points (24hrs, 48hrs, 72hrs and 96hrs) growth medium was collected from cultured cells and centrifuged at 300 x g for 3 minutes to remove any cell debris. Aliquots (250µl) were prepared from the supernatant and stored at -80°C in appropriately labelled 0.5ml micro tubes (Sarstedt) for use in subsequent experiments (Section 2.6 and Section 2.17).

2.6 Determination of cytokine production by ELISA

The concentrations of cytokines (TGF- β and IL-10) present in the conditioned medium of head and neck cancer cell lines (Section 2.5) or overnight cultured tumour specimens (Section 2.14.1) were determined using DuoSET ELISA Development kits (Figure 2.1; R&D Systems) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Briefly, the 96 well maxisorp plate (Nunc, Thermo Scientific, Loughborough, UK) was coated with the capture antibody overnight at room temperature ($2\mu g/ml$ anti-IL-10, anti-TGF- β) before being washed with 0.05% Tween 20 (Sigma) in PBS and each well incubated for 1 hour with 300µl of reagent diluent (IL-10) or block buffer (5% Tween 20 in PBS with 0.05% sodium azide; TGF- β). Throughout the ELISA each wash step was performed using an automated plate washer (Wellwash 4 Mk 2 Microplate Strip Washer, Thermo Scientific) and involved aspiration and washing of each well with 400µl of 0.05% Tween 20 in PBS three times before final aspiration.

Measurement of TGF- β in the conditioned medium samples involved pre-treatment to convert latent TGF- β to the immunoreactive form. To do this 1N HCl was added to each sample (20µl/100µl sample), mixed, and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature. The acid was neutralised by the addition of 1.2N NaOH/0.5M 4-(2-hydroxyethyl) piperazine-1-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES, Sigma; 20µl/100µl sample), the sample was then mixed and assayed immediately.

Following washing, 100µl of conditioned medium from cell lines (Section 2.5) or overnight cultured tumour specimens (Section 2.14.1) and standards (seven point standard curve using two-fold serial dilutions; high standard 2000pg/ml IL-10, TGF- β) were added to appropriate wells in duplicate and incubated for 2 hours at room temperature. The wells were washed and incubated with 100µl of biotinylated detection antibody (150ng/ml IL-10; 300ng/ml TGF- β) for 2 hours at room temperature and following further washes each well was incubated for 20 minutes with 100µl of streptavidin-HRP (1:200) avoiding direct light. Detection was achieved, after another wash step, by incubation for 20 minutes with 100µl of tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) substrate solution (Vector Laboratories, Peterborough, UK). The reaction was stopped by the addition of 50µl of 2N H₂SO₄ to each well, the plate was mixed and the absorbance determined at 450nm with wavelength correction at 570nm. A standard curve was generated using a four parameter logistic curve-fit and used to determine the level of the cytokine present in the conditioned medium from cell lines or in the overnight cultured tumour specimens. For TGF- β the read off concentrations were multiplied by a dilution factor of 1.4 due to the pre-treatment step described above.



Figure 2.1 The different stages of the DuoSET sandwich ELISA method

The capture antibody is immobilised on to the 96 well plate surface and binds the analyte of interest, in this case the cytokine present in the conditioned medium of cell lines, overnight cultured tumour specimens or standards, which subsequently binds to a biotinylated detection antibody. Streptavidin-HRP binds to the biotin and the addition of the TMB substrate solution produces a blue colour which turns yellow following addition of 2N H_2SO_4 . This enables the concentration of the cytokine present in the sample to be determined from the standard curve using a four parameter logistic curve-fit following absorbance measurements at 450nm with wavelength correction at 570nm. Image taken from R and D Systems, DuoSet ELISA Development Systems Assay Principle

2.7 Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorter (FACS) AriaTM II operation

The BD FACSAriaTM II (BD Biosciences, Oxford, UK) was set up following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the FACSFlowTM (BD Biosciences) and ethanol (VWR International, Lutterworth, UK) levels were checked and an empty waste container attached before the FACSAriaTM II and computer were switched on. The FACSDiva software (BD Biosciences) was opened and the fluidics start up procedure followed. Once the stream had been turned on and stabilised the cytometer setup and tracking beads were

run (BD Biosciences), which allows the cytometer to automatically characterise, track and report measurements enabling the cytometer to be used reproducibly.

2.8 Setting compensation on the FACSAriaTM

When samples were labelled with more than one antibody conjugated to different fluorochromes it was necessary to 'compensate' for the spill over of one fluorochrome into the detection channel of another fluorochrome.

2.8.1 Preparing the compensation samples

PBS/bovine serum albumin (BSA; Fisher Scientific, Thermo Scientific)/sodium azide (100µl; appendix) was added to appropriately labelled 5ml polystyrene tubes (BD Biosciences). Following thorough vortexing, one full drop of the BD CompBeads negative control and 1 full drop of the BD CompBeads anti-mouse Ig κ was added to each tube. For each individual fluorescently conjugated monoclonal antibody to be used in the experiment the volume required to stain 1x10⁶ cells was added to the appropriate tube and mixed. A negative control tube was set up containing 100µl of PBS/BSA/sodium azide and 1 full drop of the BD CompBeads negative control. All samples were incubated for 20 minutes protected from direct light. Following incubation, 2ml of PBS/BSA/sodium azide was added to each tube to wash the beads and the sample was centrifuged at 200 x *g* for 10 minutes before the supernatant was discarded. The bead pellet was re-suspended in 500µl filtered PBS/BSA/sodium azide and compensation determined by acquisition on the FACSAriaTM II (Section 2.8.2).

2.8.2 Calculating compensation values

Following the set up of the FACSAriaTM II (Section 2.7) an experiment book in the FACSDiva software was opened, a specimen added and the fluorochromes not used during the multi colour experiment were deleted. A compensation specimen was selected from the

software's experiment programmes and the labelled cell sample to be analysed during the flow cytometry or cell sorting experiment was loaded and acquired. The voltage settings for forward and side scatter were altered to visualise the cell population of interest on the dot plot, which was subsequently encompassed by the gate P1 (Figure 2.2a). The voltage settings for each fluorochrome were altered to ensure that the peak representing cells that were negative for the fluorochrome were within the first segment of the histogram grid, whilst the cells positive for the fluorochrome remained in the 2nd to 4th segments of the histogram (Figure 2.2b). Next the negative control tube containing the unstained beads (Section 2.8.1), was loaded, encompassed by the P1 gate and 5000 total events recorded. This was repeated for all the compensation tubes, as directed by the software, and the compensation was automatically calculated using the FACSDiva compensation programme; these values were used during the experiment.



Figure 2.2 Calculation of compensation values for flow cytometry and cell sorting experiments

(a) The labelled cell sample to be used during the experiment was acquired and the forward and side scatter voltages were altered to display the cell population of interest which was encompassed by the gate P1. (b) The fluorochrome voltages were changed to ensure the peak representing the cells (P1) that were negative for the fluorochrome were within the first segment of the histogram grid and the cells positive for the fluorochrome were within the 2^{nd} to 4^{th} sections of the histogram.

2.9 Titration of fluorescently conjugated antibodies

Equivalent concentrations of fluorescently conjugated antibodies and corresponding isotype controls were used throughout the phenotypic analysis of cells (Section 2.10), to minimise the possibility of non-specific binding. All fluorescently conjugated antibodies were titrated to determine the lowest concentration at which a positive population of cells could clearly be identified.

The concentration and viability of cells isolated by centrifugation was determined by trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4) before being re-suspended at 1 x 10^6 cells/100µl in PBS/BSA/sodium azide. Following filtering through a 35µm nylon mesh (BD Biosciences) the cell suspension was aliquoted into appropriately labelled 5ml polystyrene tubes (100µl/tube).

For the titration of antibodies specific for intracellular markers the cells were fixed and permeabilised using a buffer set (BD Biosciences). Briefly, cells (1×10^6) were fixed by incubating with 1X Buffer A (2ml), containing diethylene glycol and formaldehyde, for 10 minutes at room temperature protected from light, before being washed with 2ml of PBS/BSA/sodium azide and centrifuged at 400 x g for 3 minutes. Following removal of the supernatant, the cells were permeabilised in the residual volume with 0.5ml 1X Buffer C [dilution 1:50, Buffer B (50X):Buffer A (1X)] for 30 minutes protected from light. The cells were washed twice with 1 ml of PBS/BSA/sodium azide and centrifuged at 400 x g for 3 minutes before the supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was re-suspended in 100µl of PBS/BSA/sodium azide in preparation for the cells to be labelled.

In separate tubes, cells were incubated with the appropriate volume of fluorescentlyconjugated antibody, as recommended by the manufacturer, and the corresponding concentration of isotype control. In addition, two-fold serial dilutions of the fluorescentlyconjugated antibody were also included in separate tubes. The cells were then incubated for 30 minutes protected from direct light. Following a wash with 1 ml of PBS/BSA/sodium azide and centrifugation at 400 x g for 3 minutes the supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet re-suspended in 500µl of filtered PBS/BSA/sodium azide. The samples were then immediately acquired and analysed on the FACSAriaTM II (Section 2.7) using the FACSDiva software. During acquisition of the isotype control, the forward scatter, side scatter and fluorochrome voltages were altered to visualise and gate the cell population of interest on a dot plot (Figure 2.3a) and to ensure the histogram peak was within the first segment of the grid (Figure 2.3b). The data for 10 000 cells within the gate was recorded. A marker was placed on the isotype control histogram which encompassed \leq 1% of the cells (Figure 2.3b); this marker was used to identify the positive populations in the other tubes. Following titration the minimal concentration of antibody that gave maximal binding was used in all subsequent experiments for the phenotypic analysis of cells (Section 2.10), along with the matched corresponding concentration of isotype control.



Figure 2.3 Dot plot and histogram of an isotype control sample acquired by flow cytometry

(a) Whilst acquiring the isotype control sample voltage settings for the forward and side scatter were altered to clearly show the cell population of interest. The cell population was gated (P1) and used to determine the phenotype of the cells. (b) The histogram plot of the isotype control was plotted using the P1 population. The voltage for the isotype control was altered so that the histogram was within the first segment of the grid. A marker (P2) was inserted ensuring that the percentage of cells encompassed by the marker was $\leq 1\%$ for use in subsequent tubes to identify positive cells.

2.10 Phenotypic analysis of cells using flow cytometry

Cells isolated by centrifugation were re-suspended at 1 x 10^6 cells/100µl before being filtered and aliquoted into appropriately labelled 5ml polystyrene tubes (100µl/tube), as outlined in Section 2.9. Cells were incubated separately, with the appropriate volume of fluorescently conjugated antibody, as determined by titration (Section 2.9), or isotype control for 30 minutes protected from direct light. Cells being phenotyped additionally for an intracellular marker were subsequently fixed and permeabilised before the addition of the fluorescently conjugated antibody (Section 2.9). Following a wash with 1 ml of PBS/BSA/sodium azide and centrifugation at 400 x g for 3 minutes the supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was re-suspended in 500µl of filtered PBS/BSA/sodium azide before being immediately acquired and analysed on the FACSAriaTM II (Section 2.7) using the FACSDiva software. For cell samples incubated with more than one fluorescently conjugated antibody compensation values were calculated as outlined in Section 2.8. The samples were acquired as outlined in Section 2.9, ensuring the marker placed on the isotype control histogram encompassed $\leq 1\%$ of the cells (Figure 2.3b) thereby enabling the percentage of cells positive for the extracellular or intracellular molecule to be determined.

2.11 Immunohistochemistry

Formalin fixed and paraffin embedded HNSCC specimens and normal tonsil, for use as a positive control, were cut into 5µm sections and mounted onto glass slides by Hull Royal Infirmary Pathology Department. The sections were dewaxed through three changes of Histoclear II (National Diagnostics, Hull, UK) before being rehydrated through graded alcohols (100%, 90% and 70%). The sections were subsequently rinsed in running tap water before being incubated for 15 minutes in a 3% v/v hydrogen peroxide solution in methanol to block endogenous peroxidases. Following a further wash in running tap water the sections were boiled in an antigen unmasking solution (Vector Laboratories) using a pressure cooker for 3 minutes. The sections were placed in 1 x Tris-buffered saline (TBS; pH7.6; appendix) before being assembled in to a SequenzaTM slide rack and washed three times with TBS. To prevent non-specific binding of the secondary antibody and the avidin biotin detection system respectively, the sections were incubated for 20 minutes with a 100 fold dilution of normal horse serum (Vector Laboratories) before avidin and biotin binding sites were blocked as per the manufacturer's instructions (avidin/biotin blocking kit, Vector Laboratories). Diluted primary antibody (100µl; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) was added to all sections except one which had an equal concentration of irrelevant IgG1 antibody (1:20 dilution; AbD Serotec, Kidlington, UK) added and another to which an equal volume of TBS was added to act as negative controls. Following incubation for 1 hour at room temperature the sections were washed three times in TBS and incubated for a further 30 minutes with a 50 fold dilution of biotinylated secondary antibody (raised in horse; Vectastain Elite universal kit; Vector Laboratories). After rinsing in TBS the sections were incubated for 30 minutes in a streptavidin/biotin detection system linked to horseradish peroxidase (Vectastain Elite universal kit; Vector Laboratories) before undergoing a further wash step. Positive staining was visualised by applying 3,3-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (Sigma) to the section for approximately 5 minutes before the sections were rinsed in tap water and counterstained with Harris haematoxylin (Sigma) for 20 seconds. Subsequently the sections were rinsed in running tap water before being dehydrated through graded alcohols (70%, 90% and 100%) and three changes of Histoclear II. The sections were then mounted with a coverslip using Histomount (National Diagnostics) to prepare the stained sections for analysis.

2.11.1 Quantification of immunostaining

Positive immunostaining was identified in both the tumour-associated stroma and the tumour nests of HNSCC specimens using a light microscope under 400x magnification. Photomicrographs of five representative fields from each tissue compartment were taken and the absolute number of positive cells per field were counted using Image J software by two independent assessors (Dr. V. Green and Dr. A. Michno). The overall mean score per field for the positive staining of each compartment was calculated from the scores determined by the two assessors.

2.12 HNSCC patients and healthy controls

Newly presenting HNSCC patients and healthy controls were enrolled on to the study following ethical and NHS Trust R and D approval and obtaining informed signed consent. The HNSCC patients were recruited through the Ear, Nose and Throat (ENT) Department of the Hull and East Yorkshire NHS Trust. None of the newly presenting patients had received diagnosis or treatment for any other form of cancer, had active autoimmune or co-existing infectious disease and had received no previous radio- or chemotherapy before sample collection. Healthy controls were either healthy volunteers or were patients undergoing non-cancer related surgery, including removal of their uvula or tonsils, through the ENT department.
2.13 Isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells from whole blood

Blood samples (50ml) were taken by venepuncture into heparin coated syringes (2ml; 5000IU/ml) from healthy controls or HNSCC patients undergoing surgical resection of their tumour once informed signed consent was obtained. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated from 50ml of whole blood under sterile conditions in a class II biological safety cabinet (Airstream, Esco) using density gradient centrifugation. Blood was diluted (1:1 v/v) with PBS (Oxoid Limited) and 20ml layered on top of an equal volume of lymphocyte separation medium (LSM 1077; PAA) before centrifugation at 400 x g for 30 minutes without brake to generate layers as illustrated in Figure 2.4.

The clear middle layer and the cloudy layer above this, the "buffy coat" which contains the PBMC, was removed by pipette and transferred to an equal volume of PBS to wash the PBMC before centrifugation at 400 x g for 10 minutes, with the brake on, to pellet the cells. The supernatant was discarded and the resulting pellets combined before a further wash and re-suspension in freeze medium (FBS; Biosera, containing 10% v/v DMSO; Sigma). The PBMC suspension was aliquoted into 1ml labelled cryovials and placed in cryogenic storage as outlined in Section 2.2.



Figure 2.4 Layers formed after differential centrifugation of whole blood on lymphocyte separation medium to isolate PBMC

Blood samples were diluted (1:1 v/v) with PBS and layered on top of an equal volume of lymphocyte separation medium before centrifugation at 400 x g for 30 minutes without brake to generate the different layers, the PBMC are within the cloudy "buffy coat" layer.

2.14 Isolation of tumour infiltrating lymphocytes

Freshly isolated tumour specimens from HNSCC patients were collected during resection surgery at Castle Hill Hospital and transported in dissociation medium [DMEM (PAA) supplemented with 10% FBS (Biosera), 0.4mM L-glutamine, penicillin/streptomycin (PAA; final concentration: 0.1U/ml and 0.1mg/ml respectively) and fungizone (final concentration 2.5µg/ml; Invitrogen, Paisley, UK)] to the Daisy laboratories on the hospital site. Under sterile conditions in a class II biological safety cabinet (Airstream, Esco) fat, blood or necrotic areas were removed and the remaining tumour was weighed and cut in to ~1mm³ pieces in a Petri dish (Sarstedt) using scalpels (Swann Morton, Sheffield, UK) whilst covered in dissociation medium. The tumour fragments were transferred to a 50ml polypropylene tube (Sarstedt) and following an antibiotic wash (15ml; PBS plus 2.5µg/ml fungizone and penicillin streptomycin, 0.1U/ml and 0.1mg/ml respectively) were recovered by centrifugation at $400 \ge g$ for 4 minutes. The specimen was dissociated for 2–4 hours at 37°C in dissociation medium containing 0.02% DNase (type 1; w/v; Roche Diagnostics, Burgess Hill, UK) and 0.02% collagenase (type IV; w/v; Sigma) whilst under constant rotation (MACSmixTM Tube Rotator; Miltenyi Biotec, Bisley, UK). Following incubation and further centrifugation at 400 x g for 4 minutes the supernatant was discarded and the dissociated tumour fragments were re-suspended in 10ml of dissociation medium, this was repeated a further three times. After the final wash step the dissociated tumour was plated overnight in a 25cm² culture flask (Sarstedt), containing approximately 5ml of dissociation medium to enable the majority of the fibroblasts, epithelial cells and monocytes to adhere to the flask whilst leaving the tumour infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL) in suspension.

2.14.1 Collection of TIL and tumour specimen conditioned medium

Following overnight incubation of the dissociated HNSCC tumour specimen, the medium was collected and centrifuged at 400 x g for 4 minutes. Aliquots (500µl) were prepared from the supernatant and stored at -80°C in appropriately labelled micro tubes for subsequent use in ELISA (Section 2.6) as well as analysing the effect of tumour secretions on the suppressive activity of Tregs (Section 2.17). The remaining cell pellet, containing freshly isolated TIL, was fluorescently sorted to isolate effector and Treg populations (Section 2.16). TIL not to be used immediately by FACS were counted and their viability determined by trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4) before centrifugation at 400 x g for 4 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the TIL were re-suspended (approximately 2 x 10^7 cells/ml) in freeze medium (dissociation medium containing 10% v/v DMSO; Sigma), aliquoted into 1ml labelled cryovials and placed in cryogenic storage as outlined in Section 2.2.

2.15 Isolation of Tregs using magnetic activated cell sorting (MACS)

Tregs were isolated from PBMC using the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Regulatory T Cell Isolation Kit II (Miltenyi Biotec) following the manufacturer's instructions, after optimisation as described in Chapter 3, for comparison to the fluorescently activated cell sorting method.

Briefly, three cryovials of frozen PBMC were thawed and washed with sterile filtered buffer (PBS, 0.5% BSA, 2mM EDTA) and centrifuged at 400 x g for 3 minutes to pellet the cells. The supernatant was discarded and the PBMC pellet was re-suspended in 5ml of buffer before cell concentration and viability were determined using trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4).

Three separate aliquots of 1×10^7 cells were centrifuged at 300 x g for 10 minutes (throughout the isolation each centrifugation took place under these conditions unless otherwise stated). The supernatant was discarded and each cell pellet was incubated in the residual volume with 10µl of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II (biotin-conjugated monoclonal anti-human antibodies against CD8, CD19, CD123 and CD127) for 10 minutes at 4°C. Following incubation, Anti-Biotin Microbeads (20µl) were added and incubated with the cell suspension for a further 15 minutes at 4°C. Cells were washed by adding 1ml of buffer, centrifuged and the resulting cell pellets re-suspended in 500µl of buffer.

Each 1 x 10^7 cell suspension was added to an LD column which had been attached to a MidiMACS separator magnet and had been washed with 2ml of buffer (Figure 2.5). The LD column retains the unwanted magnetically labelled cells and separates them from the unlabelled cells (containing the Tregs) which pass through the column (Figure 2.6). Following the addition of cells each LD column was washed three times with 1ml of buffer and the effluents containing unlabelled target cells were collected, combined and centrifuged at 300 x g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and incubation of unlabelled cells with CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II and Anti-Biotin Microbeads was repeated before applying to a fresh LD column to minimise the number of CD127⁺ cells which had come through during the first incubation and LD column run through. The resulting fraction of unlabelled cells were centrifuged and the cell pellet was re-suspended in the residual volume of buffer, and incubated with 15μ l of CD25 labelled Microbeads II for 15 minutes at 4°C.



Figure 2.5 LD column and magnetic MidiMACS separator magnet

Cells labelled with the T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II and Anti-Biotin Microbeads were retained in the LD column and removed from the cell suspension, enabling the unlabelled cells, containing Tregs, to be collected in the effluent.



Figure 2.6 Negative depletion of non-target cells from cell suspension by LD column The cell suspension was labelled with the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II (biotin-conjugated monoclonal anti-human antibodies against CD8, CD19, CD123 and CD127) and Anti-Biotin Microbeads which when passed through an LD column, attached to a MidiMACS separator magnet, depleted the sample of non-target cells. This allowed the unlabelled cell fraction containing Tregs to be collected and labelled further on in the protocol.

The cells were washed with 1ml of buffer and following centrifugation the resulting pellet was re-suspended in 500µl of buffer and applied to an MS column which had been attached to a magnetic MiniMACS separator and rinsed with 500µl of buffer (Figure 2.7). The MS column positively selects the target population by retaining the magnetically labelled CD25⁺ cells (Tregs) and allowing the unlabelled non-target cells to pass through (Figure 2.8). Following the addition of the cells the MS column was washed three times with 500µl of buffer. The column was removed from the MiniMACS separator and placed onto a collection tube where 1ml of buffer was used to flush out the magnetically labelled cells by pushing the plunger into the column. The magnetically labelled fraction was added to a second newly prepared MS column, washed, flushed and collected as described above to increase the purity of the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Tregs.



Figure 2.7 Two MS columns attached to MiniMACS separators

Cells labelled with CD25 Microbeads II were retained in the MS column which was attached to a MiniMACS separator. CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Tregs were obtained by removing the column from the separator and flushing the Tregs out of the MS column.



Figure 2.8 Positive selection of target cells from cell suspension by MS column The negatively depleted cell suspension was incubated with CD25 labelled microbeads which were positively retained by the MS column. The target cell population, CD4⁺ CD25⁺ CD127^{dim/-}, was recovered by removing the column from the MiniMACS separator magnet and eluting the enriched positively selected fraction by pushing the plunger into the column with buffer.

2.16 Isolation of Tregs using fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS)

Tregs to be isolated from PBMC or TIL using FACS were prepared using the Human Regulatory T Cell Sorting Kit (BD Biosciences) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Briefly, following washing in wash buffer (1 x PBS, 1% Human AB serum; Invitrogen) the concentration and viability of thawed PBMC (Section 2.13) or thawed/freshly isolated TIL (Section 2.14) was determined by trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4). The sample was centrifuged in a 50ml polypropylene tube (Sarstedt) at 400 x g for 3 minutes to pellet the cells. For a concentration of less than 1 x 10⁸ cells the resulting cell pellet was re-suspended in wash buffer to give a final staining concentration of 2 x 10⁷ cells/ml, for greater than 1 x 10⁸ cells the staining concentration was 1 x 10⁸ cells/ml. The appropriate volume of Human Regulatory T Cell Sorting Cocktail [200µl/1 x 10^8 cells; mouse anti-human CD4-PerCP-Cy5.5 (clone L200), CD25-PE (clone 2A3), CD127-Alexa Fluor 647 (clone 4013)] was added to the cell suspension and incubated for 30 minutes protected from direct light to label the Tregs. A volume of wash buffer required to fill the 50ml polypropylene tube was used to wash the cells before centrifugation at 250 x *g* for 15 minutes. Following removal of the supernatant the cell pellet was re-suspended in wash buffer at a concentration of 7.5 x 10^6 cells/ml and filtered through a 35µm nylon mesh into a 5ml sterile polystyrene tube (BD Biosciences), to provide a single cell suspension.

2.16.1 FACSAriaTM II set up for isolation of Tregs using FACS

The FACSAriaTM II was set up as outlined in Section 2.7 before undergoing a programmed aseptic clean as described in the manual and was wiped down thoroughly with ethanol wipes to maintain the sterility of the sort. The sorting collection device, containing four temporary 5ml collection tubes, was installed and the amplitude of the stream was altered so that the drop 1 value was between 200 and 300 pixels; the amplitude determines the break off point of the first drop in the stream, whilst the drop 1 value is the number of pixels from the top of the video image of the stream to the centre of the first broken-off drop and is required to determine the drop delay (see below; Figure 2.9). The voltage was turned on and the test sort function activated to ensure that four collection streams and one waste stream were visible (Figure 2.10). By opening the waste draw it was checked that four streams were correctly entering the tubes in the collection device and the middle stream was passing into the waste, which during sorting would include non-target cells.

After the amplitude range, which defines the optimum values for the four streams entering the collection tubes, had been determined, an accudrop sample (BD Biosciences), containing a single population of particles that are conjugated to a fluorochrome emitting at 570nm, was run to calculate the drop delay. This value is very important to a sort as it calculates the amount of time it takes for a particle to travel from interception by the laser to the break off point of the stream, the drop containing a target cell can therefore be charged and sorted according to this value. Next the compensation values for the fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies present in the Treg sorting cocktail were calculated, as outlined in Section 2.8.



Figure 2.9 Video image of the stream

During the set up of the FACSAria for cell sorting the amplitude of the stream is altered so that the drop 1 value, measuring the number of pixels from the top of the video image of the stream to the centre of the first broken off drop, is between 200-300 pixels.





Turning on the plate voltage and activating the test sort function visualises 5 streams. The central stream (3) enters into the waste and during sorting will include non-target cells. By opening the waste drawer it is ensured that streams 1, 2, 4 and 5 are entering the collection tubes.

The prepared stained PBMC or TIL to be sorted (Section 2.16) were briefly run through the flow sorter and the lymphocyte population was gated and acquired (10,000 events) as determined by forward and side scatter properties (Figure 2.11a). Doublets were subsequently excluded using FSC-W (Figure 2.11b) and SSC-W (Figure 2.11c) parameters. The resulting single cell population (Figure 2.11c; P3) was gated to encompass cells positive for the expression of CD4 (Figure 2.11d). Due to the study isolating two Treg populations differentiated by the level of CD25 expression, a dot plot was drawn to show the expression of CD4 and CD25 by the single cell population (Figure 2.11e). A quadrant was applied to the dot plot which encompassed cells negative for the expression of CD4 and CD25 in the lower left quadrant. High levels of CD25 expression (CD25^{high}) by the CD4⁺ population was determined by placing a gate over the cells expressing CD25 at levels exceeding that expressed by CD4⁻ cells and the cells expressing intermediate levels of CD25 were above the quadrant marker but below the CD25^{high} gate. Subsequently, a dot plot was created to show the level of CD127 and CD25 expression by CD4⁺ cells (Figure 2.11f). To identify the Tregs expressing low/negative levels of CD127 a gate was applied below the larger population of cells positive for the expression of the IL-7 receptor. The Tregs were then divided into two populations separated by CD25 expression (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) using the boundaries determined in the previous plot (Figure 2.11e and Figure 2.11f). Placing a gate above the Treg populations identified an effector T cell population positive for the expression of CD127 and CD25 (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺). Gating CD4⁺ cells negative for the expression of CD25 identified the second effector T cell population (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}).

Following coating with culture medium (Section 2.17) sterile polypropylene 5ml tubes (Sarstedt) containing 0.2ml of the same medium were installed into the sorting collection device. Once it had been selected which tube would collect which gated population the yield and purity masks were chosen; the masks determine whether the interrogated drop is sorted based upon the location of the target cell within the drop or the presence of contaminating cells. The sweet spot was then activated which automatically adjusts the amplitude to ensure that the drop 1 and gap values are kept approximately the same so as not to alter the drop delay. Finally the prepared PBMC or TIL were loaded and sorted to isolate the identified effector T cell and Treg populations, which could take up to 6 hours depending on the cell concentration.



Figure 2.11 Gating strategy used to identify and isolate effector T cell and Treg populations

A PBMC or TIL sample was labelled with a Treg sorting cocktail and the lymphocyte population was gated using FSC-A vs. SSC-A parameters (a). Following doublet discrimination using FSC-W (b) and SSC-W (c) parameters, the resulting single cell population (P3) was gated to encompass cells positive for the expression of CD4 (d). The boundary for CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} levels of expression was determined (e) and these boundaries were used to create the gates required to sort Tregs, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} (P6) and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} (P7), and effector T cell populations, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} (P4) and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ (P5; f).

2.17 Culture of peripheral Tregs and effector T cells with conditioned medium

Immediately following isolation by flow sorting (Section 2.16), the concentration and viability of the peripheral effector T cell (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) and Treg (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) populations was determined by trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4).

Approximately 5 x 10^5 effector T cells were cultured in a single well of a flat bottom 24 well tissue culture plate (Sarstedt) in 750µl of culture medium: X-VIVO 20 (Lonza, Slough, UK), supplemented with 5% heat inactivated AB serum (Invitrogen) and penicillin/streptomycin (final concentration, penicillin 0.1U/ml, streptomycin 0.1mg/ml; PAA) along with 100U/ml recombinant human IL-2 (AbD Serotec). Approximately 2 x 10^5 Tregs were cultured in 134µl of the same culture medium and 100U/ml recombinant human IL-2, based on the final culture volume (200µl), in a single well of a round bottom 96 well tissue culture plate (Sarstedt). Tregs and effector T cells were maintained in a humidified incubator at 37°C with an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ (LEEC, Nottingham, UK). After 24 hours half of the wells containing Tregs had 66µl (1:3 dilution) of conditioned medium, collected following either 48 hours of incubation with HNSCC cell lines (Section 2.5) or following overnight incubation with a dissociated tumour specimen (Section 2.14.1), added to the appropriate wells. The remaining half of the Treg cultures had the same volume of culture medium added to provide a control.

Following 48 hours incubation with conditioned or culture medium a CFSE assay was set up (Section 2.18) to analyse whether incubation with cell line or tumour conditioned medium influences the suppressive activity of Tregs.

2.18 Determination of cellular proliferation using a carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE) assay

Immediately following isolation by flow sorting (Section 2.16) or 48 hour incubation with or without HNSCC conditioned medium (Section 2.17), the concentration and viability of the T cell populations were determined using trypan blue exclusion

Effector cells (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) were (Section 2.4). centrifuged at 400 x g for 3 minutes, supernatant discarded and the cell pellet re-suspended in 1ml of pre-warmed (37°C) sterile PBS/0.1% BSA; throughout the protocol each centrifugation took place under these conditions. An aliquot of effector cells (5 x 10^4) not to be stained with CFSE was transferred to a clean tube and along with the remaining effector cells to be labelled with the dye, centrifuged and re-suspended again in 1ml of prewarmed PBS/0.1% BSA. Following a further centrifugation the effector cells to be stained with CFSE were re-suspended in pre-warmed PBS/0.1% BSA at a concentration of 1×10^6 CFSE (Sigma) was added to the effector T cells to be stained at a final cells/ml. concentration of 5µM before all cell suspensions, labelled and unlabelled, were incubated for 10 minutes at 37°C. The staining was quenched by the addition of 2.5ml of ice cold culture medium (Section 2.17). All cell suspensions were incubated on ice for 5 minutes and following centrifugation the supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet washed three times with pre-warmed culture medium before being re-suspended at a concentration of 5 x 10^4 cells/100µl.

The Treg populations (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) were centrifuged and following removal of the supernatant re-suspended in pre-warmed culture medium (5 x 10⁴ cells/100µl) and co-cultured with the CFSE labelled effector T cell populations, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺, at various ratios [Treg:effector, 1:1 (5x10⁴ : 5x10⁴), 1:2 ($2.5x10^4$: $5x10^4$), 1:5 ($1x10^4$: $5x10^4$) and 1:10 ($5x10^3$: $5x10^4$)] in a single well of a round bottom 96 well tissue culture plate (Sarstedt) in 200µl of culture medium. Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads (Invitrogen) were added to the culture at a cell:beads ratio of 1:3 along with 100U/ml recombinant human IL-2 (AbD Serotec). The single well of unlabelled effector T cells was cultured under the same stimulatory conditions. To determine the maximal level of CFSE retained by cells without cellular proliferation, one well containing labelled effector T cells received no stimulation. Table 2.1 illustrates all the culture combinations required to set up a CFSE assay in order to assess the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells.

Following four days of co-culture cells were transferred to 5ml polystyrene tubes (BD Biosciences) and recovered by centrifugation. The supernatant was collected and stored in appropriately labelled micro tubes at -80°C. The cell pellets were re-suspended in

250μl of PBS/BSA/sodium azide before being analysed for CFSE content using the FACSAriaTM II with FACSDiva software (Section 2.7). The control well, containing cells without CFSE staining, was used to set up forward scatter and side scatter voltages to provide a clear dot plot of the cell population (Figure 2.3a). The population was gated and the voltage of the channel detecting the CFSE dye emitting at 517nm was altered to ensure that the histogram peak was within the first segment of the grid, as described in Section 2.9. Following set up using the control tube, 10, 000 events of the cell suspensions incubated with CFSE were acquired.

Table 2.1Combinations of cells cultured during the CFSE assay to determine thesuppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells

Number	Culture combinations				
1	Non-labelled effector T cells				
2	CFSE labelled effector T cells (no stimulation)				
3	CFSE labelled effector T cells				
4	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)			
5	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:2)	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:2)			
6	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:5)	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:5)			
7	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:10)	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:10)			

All wells, except number 2, were stimulated with Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads and 100U/ml IL-2.

2.19 Analysis of CFSE proliferation to determine the suppressive activity of Tregs

All CFSE experimental data were analysed using ModFit LTTM software (Verity Software House, Topsham, USA). The percentages of suppression were calculated based

on the proliferation index (PI) for effector cells cultured alone (100% proliferation, 0% suppression) compared to the PI of effector cells co-cultured with Tregs.

Initially the lymphocyte population was gated based on characteristic forward and side scatter parameters (Figure 2.3a). The fluorescent intensity of the CFSE labelled effector T cells that had been cultured without stimulation was then determined (Figure 2.12a); this represents the parent population i.e., cells that have not undergone cellular proliferation. The CFSE assay is based on the assumption that a single CFSE labelled parent cell will divide into two daughter cells, thereby causing the level of fluorescence intensity to be reduced by half. Each division (generation) can be visualised on a histogram plot as a 'peak', with the number of peaks representing the number of rounds of division that have taken place in the culture (Figure 2.12b).





The lymphocyte population was gated by forward and side scatter properties and the level of fluorescence intensity of CFSE labelled effector T cells cultured without stimulation was determined; this represents the parent population (a). The rounds of division undergone by stimulated CFSE labelled effector T cells are visualised as individual peaks on a histogram plot (b). In this plot seven generations are observed indicating that 6 rounds of division have taken place.

Applying this concept, the PI, a measure of the increase in cell number over the duration of culture, is determined by dividing the total number of cells in each generation by the original number of calculated parent cells present at the beginning of culture (Section 3.2.3). The PI for effector T cells cultured alone represents 100% proliferation and 0% suppression, comparing this to the subsequent PI calculated from the co-culture of effector T cells and Tregs at varying ratios enabled the percentage of proliferation, and consequently the percentage of suppression induced by Tregs to be determined (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2Calculating the percentage of suppression induced by Tregs using
proliferation indexes

Treg : Effector T cell ratios	Proliferation index (ModFit)	Percentage of proliferation	Percentage of suppression
Effectors alone	5.64	100	0
1:1	3.47	61.3	38.7
1:2	4.27	75.8	24.2
1:5	5.07	90.1	9.9
1:10	5.29	93.5	6.5

Chapter 3.

Optimisation of methods for the functional characterisation of Tregs in HNSCC

3.1 Isolation of Tregs

The ability to isolate and study specific cell types has become an important goal in the clinical setting as cell based therapies are explored and developed. In order to investigate the possible benefits of Treg based immunotherapy in a clinical situation and obtain a greater biological understanding of the role of Tregs, a reproducible method first needs to be created to isolate an enriched population of this suppressive T cell subtype. The aim was to identify a robust method that would enable the maximal isolation and functional characterisation of Tregs from head and neck cancer patients which would improve the understanding of their role in HNSCC during subsequent chapters. The two main methods used in the literature to isolate Tregs are magnetic activated cell sorting (MACS) and fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS).

MACS technology is a magnetic separation method that separates cells in suspension by the expression of cell surface antigens. (Miltenyi Biotec, 2010). Cells of interest are specifically labelled with super-paramagnetic MACS Microbeads and when the labelled cells are passed through a MACS column, which is placed in a strong magnet, the magnetically labelled cells are retained in the column and separated from the unlabelled cells which pass through. By removing the column from the magnet the retained cells can then be eluted enabling both fractions, labelled and unlabelled cells, to be recovered. This allows target cells to be recovered by two strategies: positive selection and depletion. Positive selection specifically labels the target cells, enabling the unlabelled target cells to pass through the column and remain "untouched" (Miltenyi Biotec, 2010). To isolate Tregs from HNSCC patient PBMC samples both strategies were used, depletion followed by positive selection.

FACS is a flow cytometric method that can also separate viable cells of interest from a heterogeneous population according to the expression of cell surface antigens. A broad cell population containing the target cells is identified ('gated') by forward and side scatter parameters and the target population within this gate is identified by the expression of specific cell surface molecules which are detected using fluorescently conjugated monoclonal antibodies. A stream of liquid, containing the labelled cell sample, is flowed through a cytometer so that particles are formed containing single cells. When a stream particle, containing a single cell, is interrogated by the laser and determined to contain a cell of interest an electrical charge is applied to the stream just as the particle containing the target cell breaks off (BD Biosciences, 2009). The charged particle passes through two strongly charged deflection plates causing deflection of the particle into a sorting collection device. Uncharged particles, containing non-target cells, are not affected by the deflection plates and enter the waste container (BD Biosciences, 2009).

Although both MACS and FACS have successfully been used to isolate Tregs previously (Chi *et al.*, 2010; Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a), both techniques were used by the current study to isolate Tregs from PBMC samples to determine the method that would enable the maximal isolation of Tregs from HNSCC patients for their subsequent functional characterisation.

3.1.1 Isolation of Tregs by MACS

The final protocol used to isolate Tregs using the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Regulatory T Cell Isolation Kit II is outlined in Section 2.15; however several experiments were conducted to optimise the isolation of Tregs using MACS technology.

Firstly, a trial kit which isolates $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs was purchased from Miltenyi Biotec to determine whether Tregs could be isolated from stored head and neck cancer patient PBMC samples (Section 2.13) using the MACS principle and following the two step procedure provided by the manufacturer. The trial kit included a $CD4^+$ T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail (biotin-conjugated monoclonal anti-human antibodies against CD8, CD14, CD16, CD19, CD36, CD56, CD123, TCR γ/δ and CD235a) and Anti-Biotin Microbeads which retained non-CD4⁺ cells in the LD column, thereby removing them from the cell suspension (negative depletion; Figure 2.5). However, analysis of the cells retained in the LD column by flow cytometry following labelling with CD4-PerCP (Section 2.10; clone SK3 ;BD Biosciences) showed that a number of CD4⁺ cells were also being retained. To try and reduce the number of CD4⁺ cells being retained in the column, the number of washes of the LD column during a single experiment was increased from two up to eight and the number of CD4^{+/-} cells passing through the column was determined by flow cytometry as mentioned previously. The majority of CD4⁺ cells were found to have passed through the column after two washes however, even after three washes there were still a number of CD4⁺ cells coming through the column which decreased following subsequent washes (Table 3.1). After eight washes a few CD4⁺ cells were still present in the column effluent however, increasing the number of washes also increased the number of CD4⁻ cells passing through the column. Three washes of the LD column was chosen for subsequent isolations as this enabled CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg isolation with minimal CD4⁻ cell contamination in a reasonable time frame. Furthermore, it was also shown that LD columns are naturally 'sticky'; following the addition of 1 x 10⁷ unlabelled PBMC to an LD column 2,272 lymphocytes were retained in the column even though the cells had not been incubated with the T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail or Anti-Biotin Microbeads; of the lymphocytes retained 26.6% were CD4⁺.

Table 3.1 The number of $CD4^+$ and $CD4^-$ cells passing through the LD column as the number of washes increases starting with 1×10^7 PBMC

Number of LD column washes	Number of CD4 ⁺ cells passing through LD column	Number of CD4 ⁻ cells passing through LD column
2	7477	2523
3	170	138
4	58	75
5	34	59
6	18	51
7	34	83
8	26	88

Results from one experiment

Having shown that Tregs could be isolated from stored HNSCC patient PBMC $CD4^+CD25^+$ Regulatory T Cell samples using trial Isolation the Kit a CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Regulatory T Cell Isolation Kit II was purchased (Miltenyi Biotec). This kit not only allows isolation of Tregs based on the expression of CD4 and CD25 markers but also by the more recently discovered low/negative surface expression of CD127, which is inversely correlated to Foxp3 (Section 1.12). The final optimised protocol is outlined in detail in Section 2.15; briefly, the PBMC sample was labelled with a T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II and Anti-Biotin Microbeads before being applied to a LD column which depleted the sample of non-target cells. The unlabelled cell fraction, containing the Tregs, was subsequently incubated with CD25 labelled Microbeads II and

applied to an MS column, positively selecting the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Treg population.

The protocol was optimised by analysing the cells either retained in the columns or coming through in the effluent at each of the stages using flow cytometry with the Treg marker antibodies CD4-FITC (clone M-T466), CD25-APC (clone 4E3) and CD127-PE (clone MB15-18C9; Section 2.10; Miltenyi Biotec) and the appropriate isotype controls (BD Biosciences). These antibodies had been titrated (Section 2.9) and due to the use of several fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies compensation values had been calculated too (Section 2.8). From the previous results the LD column was washed 3 times, however a number of CD4⁺ cells were still being retained in the column (Figure 3.1a). It was concluded that this was because some of the cells retained in the column due to their expression of the markers included in the T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II (biotin-conjugated monoclonal anti-human antibodies against CD8, CD19, CD123 and CD127), to remove the non-target cells, may also express CD4. Figure 3.1b demonstrates this by showing that the CD4⁺ cells which have been retained in the column have done so because the majority of them are positive for CD127.



Figure 3.1 Expression of CD4 and CD127 by cells retained in the LD column PBMC labelled with the T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II and Anti-Biotin Microbeads were passed through a LD column and washed 3 times. The cells retained in the column were removed and labelled with CD4-FITC and CD127-PE mouse anti-human antibodies. a) Following gating of the lymphocyte population by forward and side scatter properties, a dot plot was created to show that 36.5% of lymphocytes were CD4⁺. b) Histogram plotted using the CD4⁺ population, the majority of the CD4⁺ cells were also positive for the expression of CD127 (94.9%).

Although an antibody against CD127 is included in the Biotin-Antibody Cocktail, it was observed that a number of CD127⁺ cells were being eluted through the LD column instead of being retained, decreasing the purity of the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Treg population. To reduce this, an extra incubation with the T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail II and Anti-Biotin Microbeads was included in the protocol before the sample was applied to a new LD column in attempt to remove the remaining CD127⁺ cells. From four separate experiments using different PBMC samples the extra step was shown to retain CD127⁺ cells in the new LD column; on average 69.7% of the retained lymphocytes were positive for the expression of CD127. This showed the importance of the extra step to remove contaminating CD127⁺ cells that had not been retained by the first LD columns.

The protocol provided by the manufacturer started with $1 \ge 10^7$ PBMC however the average number of Tregs isolated from three separate experiments was only 135 (range 49-233 Tregs isolated). The starting number of PBMC was therefore increased to $3 \ge 10^7$ to try and increase the yield of Tregs isolated (Figure 3.2); along with an increase in the volume of CD25 labelled Microbeads II from 10μ l to 15μ l to account for the elevated number of cells needing to be stained before addition of the cell suspension to the MS column. From six experiments using different HNSCC patient PBMC samples, the average number of Tregs isolated starting with $3 \ge 10^7$ PBMC was 1,660 (range 381-4,070), an increase of more than twelve fold compared with Tregs isolated from a starting number of $1 \ge 10^7$ PBMC. The range of Tregs isolated from $3 \ge 10^7$ PBMC also demonstrated that the number of Tregs obtained was dependent on the HNSCC patient sample.

The final optimised protocol (Section 2.15) was conducted four times; enabling the yield of Tregs isolated from PBMC which had been stored under different conditions to be compared. Table 3.2 shows the percentages of expression of CD4, CD25 and CD127 on cells isolated from fresh PBMC, overnight cryopreservation at -80°C, 2 weeks and 1 month liquid nitrogen storage, as well as the total Treg yield. No differences were seen in the expression of the different Treg markers with the different storage methods however, the absolute yield of Tregs isolated was much higher from fresh PBMC (4, 220 Tregs isolated) compared with cryopreserved cells which decreased from 2,839 (-80°C overnight) to 671 (1 month liquid nitrogen) Tregs isolated with increased length of storage. The isolation of Tregs from fresh PBMC was from a healthy volunteer however, the samples stored under the different conditions were all from the same HNSCC patient PBMC sample.



Figure 3.2 Comparison of the number of Tregs isolated by MACS with different starting numbers of PBMC

Tregs retained in the MS column were removed and labelled with the Treg marker antibodies CD4-FITC, CD25-APC and CD127-PE. The lymphocyte population was gated and the isolated CD4⁺CD25⁺ population (blue; a) was used to create a dot plot showing their dim/negative expression of CD127 and the number of Tregs (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-}) isolated, starting with b) 1 x 10⁷ PBMC (n=123) and c) 3 x 10⁷ PBMC (n=1,074). Representative of 3 and 6 experiments, respectively.

Table 3.2 Isolation of Tregs by MACS using PBMC samples stored under different conditions from a starting number of 3×10^7 PBMC

Isolation	Storage of PBMC sample	Percentage of isolated lymphocytes expressing CD4	Percentage of isolated CD4 ⁺ cells expressing CD25	Percentage of isolated CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ cells expressing CD127 ^{dim/-}	Absolute number of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{dim/-} Tregs isolated
1	Fresh ^a	99.5	99.6	99.9	4, 220
2	Cryo freezing container ^b (-80°C overnight)	96.8	98.7	98.9	2,839
3	Liquid nitrogen ^b (2 weeks)	98.5	98.7	99.9	1, 074
4	Liquid nitrogen ^b (1 month)	98.3	98.1	99.3	671

^a PBMC from one healthy control

^b PBMC from the same HNSCC patient

Representative of one Treg isolation at each different storage condition

3.1.2 Isolation of Tregs using FACS

Tregs were isolated from cryopreserved PBMC samples using the Human Regulatory T Cell Sorting Kit (BD Biosciences) following the manufacturer's instructions as outlined in Section 2.16. To compare Treg isolation by MACS with FACS, four isolations were conducted on cryopreserved head and neck cancer patient (n=2) and healthy control (n=2) PBMC samples using the flow cytometric method. The number of $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs sorted from a starting PBMC population of approximately 3 x 10^7 cells, in all cases was over 100,000 and in one experiment this increased to over 300,000 (Table 3.3). Apart from the first isolation, the $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$ population was divided into those having intermediate and high expression of the IL-2 receptor so that these two Treg populations could be investigated separately and compared in subsequent

chapters for their frequency and suppressive activity. From two of the isolations there were more cells expressing CD25 at a high level compared with intermediate expression.

Independent isolation	Starting PBMC	Percentage of isolated lymphocytes expressing	Number of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-} cells isolated	Number of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-} cells isolated	Number of CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-} cells isolated
1 ^a	2.69×10^7	99.9	199, 541	Not	Not
2^{a}	2.27×10^7	99.8	119, 778	determined 100, 642	determined 19, 136
3 ^b	3.42×10^7	98.9	336, 956	123, 261	213, 695
4 ^b	3.1 x 10 ⁷	99.9	252, 222	99, 420	152, 802

Table 3.3 Isolation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs by FACS

^a HNSCC patients
^b Healthy controls
Four different PBMC samples

To assess the suppressive activity of isolated Tregs on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells the effector population also had to be isolated. The original FACS gating strategy used to isolate effector T cells was set with the phenotype of $CD4^+CD25^{-/+}CD127^+$ however, this method excluded a population of cells that were negative for the expression of CD25 (Figure 3.3a). A further gate was therefore added to divide the effector T cell population based on CD25 expression; this included $CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+}$ cells, frequently used by research groups to assess the suppressive activity of Tregs on effector T cells (Shen *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a; Yokokawa *et al.*, 2008), and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector cells (Figure 3.3b). This enabled further investigation into the functional activity of Tregs and whether their ability to suppress the proliferation of effector T cells is effected by the expression of CD25 on the effector T cell population (Section 4.3.3.5 and Section 5.3.4.2).



Figure 3.3 Gating strategy used to identify and isolate effector T cell populations The gating strategy used to isolate effector T cells was altered based on the expression of CD25. A PBMC sample was labelled with a Treg sorting cocktail and following gating of the lymphocyte population and doublet discrimination CD4⁺ cells were gated. Effector and Treg populations were identified based on the expression of CD25 and CD127 by CD4⁺ cells. a) Effector T cells were originally isolated with the phenotype CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127⁺ but a population of cells that were CD4⁺CD25⁻ were excluded. The gates shown by dot plot b) were used to separate the isolation of effector T cells based on their CD25 expression, P4 (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}) and P5 (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺).

Following isolation using the above strategy, the individually sorted populations were put back through the flow cytometer to check that what had been sorted was correct. Figure 3.4 shows the sorted populations, which were acquired by the FACSAriaTM II with FACSDiva software (BD Biosciences). The dot plots clearly demonstrate that the sorted

populations are what were expected however, it should be noted that the sorted populations do not always exactly 'fit' in their specific gate post-sort. This could be due to contamination with other cell populations but is more than likely to be due to the loss of bound fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies during the sort process, resulting in a lower level of fluorescence, or because this is the second time the fluorochromes have been excited by the lasers of the FACSAriaTM II, resulting in quenching of the fluorescence.



Figure 3.4 Populations following the sorting of PBMC for effector T cells and Tregs The sort gates (P4, P5, P6 and P7) were used to isolate $CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+}$ and $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$ effector T cell populations and $CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$ and $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$ Treg populations, respectively. The resulting isolated populations obtained from sort were reanalysed on the flow cytometer to show the purity of the resulting populations; producing dot plots a), b), c) and d) respectively.

3.1.3 Assessing MACS and FACS for the isolation of Tregs

In the current study two methods of Treg isolation from PBMC samples, MACS and FACS, which have been used by other research groups, were compared to determine which method would optimally isolate Tregs from HNSCC patients to enable the assessment of the regulatory population's functional activity.

3.1.3.1 Assessment of MACS

Using both MACS and FACS optimised methods, CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs were successfully isolated with the majority of isolated lymphocytes (98-99%) expressing CD4. Although the purity of the isolated Treg populations from both methods was similar the absolute yields differed greatly. It was found that the yield of Tregs isolated by MACS could be successfully increased over twelve fold by increasing the starting number of PBMC. However this also increased the length of the isolation considerably as well as the cost of the procedure by using more isolating columns, T Cell Biotin-Antibody Cocktail and Anti-Biotin Microbeads. In addition, although PBMC samples were readily available and therefore the starting number of cells could be used to isolate Tregs from the tumour, where Tregs are much less abundant and the tissue less readily available. Furthermore due to the low number of Tregs isolated the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells could not be immediately assessed following isolation.

Several research groups have successfully utilised MACS technology to analyse Tregs present in the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment of cancer patients. For example, Gasparoto *et al.* (2010) used the CD4⁺CD25⁺ regulatory T cell isolation kit to isolate Tregs from the PBMC and TIL of patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma and demonstrated that CD4⁺CD25⁺ T cells were able to significantly inhibit the proliferation of allogenic PBMC. However, due to the low yield of Tregs isolated via this method the suppressive T cell population was expanded for 15 days before being used in the proliferation assay. The current study attempted to expand the Treg population isolated by MACS but due to the low yield of Tregs isolated the population did not proliferate or expand. The same CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg isolation kit and similar results to Gasparoto and

colleagues have been reported in the peripheral circulation of hepatocellular carcinoma (Shen *et al.*, 2010), gastric cancer (Ichihara *et al.*, 2003) and HNSCC (Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009) patients, additionally Yokokawa and colleagues (2008) used the same kit to isolate CD4⁺CD25^{high} Tregs in prostate cancer patients; although unlike Gasparoto *et al.* the authors from these four studies did not expand the isolated regulatory population before use in functional assays.

To the author's knowledge the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Regulatory T Cell Isolation Kit II, optimised by the current study, has not previously been used by cancer research groups but has been used in other research areas, including investigation into the effects of glucocorticosteroids on Langerhans cells/Tregs interactions during cutaneous inflammation (Stary *et al.*, 2011), the frequency and suppressive activity of Tregs in unexplained recurrent spontaneous miscarriage (Bao *et al.*, 2011) and the altered expression of miRNA in Tregs in multiple sclerosis (De Santis *et al.*, 2010). These three studies did not comment on the number of Tregs isolated, and whilst De Santis and colleagues did not assess the isolated CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{dim/-} Tregs for suppressive activity, the remaining two studies did assess Treg function without expanding the population and demonstrated the Tregs to be suppressive on the proliferation of effector T cells.

3.1.3.2 Assessment of FACS

The number of $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs isolated using FACS was over 50 times greater (per 1 x 10⁷ starting cells) than from the fresh PBMC sample using MACS. This may be attributed to the loss of Tregs during each step of the MACS process which includes the retention of $CD4^+$ by the LD columns as well as the loss of Tregs by the use of two MS columns which increase the purity of the isolated population. Consequently Tregs isolated by FACS could be immediately set up in a co-culture CFSE proliferation assay with isolated effector T cells to assess their suppressive activity without the need to expand the population (Section 2.18). Additionally, FACS is a more straight forward procedure taking half the time of MACS.

In cancer studies several research groups have used FACS to isolate peripheral CD4⁺CD25^{+/high} Tregs for assessment of their suppressive activity including investigations into HNSCC (Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a) and bladder carcinoma (Chi

et al., 2010), additionally Shen and colleagues (2009) have examined the functional capacity of FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs from gastric cancer patients. Outside cancer investigations, CD4⁺CD25^{+/high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs have been isolated by FACS and shown to be suppressive on the proliferation of effector T cells in numerous settings including healthy controls (Hartigan-O'Connor *et al.*, 2007; Seddiki *et al.*, 2006), patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (Venigalla *et al.*, 2008) and patients with type 1 diabetes (Putnam *et al.*, 2009).

3.1.3.3 MACS vs. FACS

A number of research groups have also compared the advantages and disadvantages of the MACS and FACS isolation methods. Hoffmann *et al.* (2006a) and Yan *et al.* (2009) compared the techniques for the isolation of Tregs from human leukapheresis product and murine spleen lymphocytes, respectively. Both studies reported that there was no significant difference in the ability of the isolated Tregs from either of the two different isolation methods to inhibit the proliferation of CD4⁺ CD25⁻ effector T cells. However, Yan and colleagues showed that the use of MACS was a far lengthier process. This is in accordance with the current study; it took 6-7 hours to isolate Tregs from 3 x 10⁷ PMBC using the MACS technique whereas it took only 2-3 hours using FACS. In addition, Yan *et al.*, (2009) reported that the MACS isolated CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg population was of a lower purity and with a greater percentage of cell death than that of FACS.

In contrast to the two previous investigations discussed above one study has reported that $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs isolated via the use of magnetic beads were unable to suppress responder $CD4^+CD25^-$ T cells after α CD3 stimulation, unlike the $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs isolated by FACS (Baecher-Allan *et al.*, 2005). However, a number of other studies have used magnetic bead isolated $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs to perform assays that show the suppressive activity of this T cell population (Bonelli *et al.*, 2008; Dieckmann *et al.*, 2001; Elkord *et al.*, 2006; Jonuleit *et al.*, 2001). Baecher-Allan and colleagues (2005) reported that the yield of $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs isolated by MACS was more than 20 fold greater than $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ cells isolated by FACS; suggesting that cells expressing all levels of CD25 are isolated by the magnetic bead sorting protocol and therefore the isolated population may contain both $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs and activated $CD4^+CD25^{intermediate}$ effector T cells.

Assessing the Treg phenotype CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}, the work conducted in this thesis found a greater number of Tregs to be isolated by FACS compared with MACS.

A number of studies exploring the relationship between Tregs and HNSCC have isolated the regulatory population from the peripheral circulation of patients. As already mentioned, Whiteside and colleagues used FACS to isolate CD4⁺CD25^{high} Tregs (Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a; Strauss *et al.*, 2007b) whilst Gasparoto *et al.* (2010) chose to isolate CD4⁺CD25⁺ Tregs with magnetic beads using a regulatory T cell isolation kit and an autoMACS separator. Both research groups observed that the suppressive activity of Tregs, isolated by either method, from the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients was greater compared with healthy controls thereby suggesting that both methods can work and it is up to individual laboratories to establish a method which works best in their hands.

From the optimisation of the two isolation methods and the points discussed above it was decided that for the studies conducted in this thesis the CD127^{low/-} Treg population would be isolated by FACS from the peripheral circulation and tumour specimens of HNSCC patients.

3.2 Assessing cellular proliferation using a CFSE assay

During the last 30 years a range of fluorescent dyes have been employed to analyse the role of lymphocytes in adaptive immunity, this includes following their migration into tissues, their positioning within tissues as well as tracking their proliferative history (Parish, 1999). One of the most versatile dyes to be exploited for its ability to follow lymphocyte migration long term and cell division both *in vitro* and *in vivo* is carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester (CFDASE).

CFDASE is a non-fluorescent compound that due to the presence of two acetate side chains is highly membrane permeant (Figure 3.5). Once within the cell, intracellular esterases are able to cleave the acetate groups resulting in a fluorescent molecule (carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester; CFSE) with reduced lipophilicity. This prolongs the time available for CFSE to covalently couple to intracellular molecules via a stable amine bond forming conjugates that are either rapidly degraded and able to exit the cell, or conjugates that are stable and unable to escape the cell; it is these long lived compounds that enable the stable labelling and assessment of cells with CFSE (Figure 3.5; Parish 1999). Although the compound used to label the cells is CFDASE the first publication reporting use of this dye used the acronym CFSE, to maintain consistency and avoid confusion subsequent publications have continued to use the term CFSE (Parish, 1999; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a) and therefore this study has also adopted the same acronym.



Figure 3.5 Schematic representation of the stages involved during the labelling of a cell with CFDASE

The size of the arrows represents the permeability of the molecule through the cell membrane. The acetate side chains of CFDASE make the compound highly membrane permeant, readily passing in and out of the cell. However, once in the cell, intracellular esterases cleave the two acetate groups yielding the fluorescent molecule CFSE which has reduced cell membrane permeability. The succinimidyl moiety of CFSE enables covalent binding with intracellular molecules forming conjugates that are either rapidly degraded and able to escape the cell (CFR1) or conjugates that are long living and do not exit from the cell (CFR2), thereby achieving the stable fluorescent cell labelling. Parish, 1999.

CFSE was initially developed to be used in the long term tracking of lymphocyte migration, however in 1994 Lyons and Parish presented data illustrating a further

advantageous use of the fluorescent dye for the monitoring of lymphocyte proliferation. The flow cytometric method was shown to be based on the sequential halving of fluorescence intensity with each cycle of division (Lyons and Parish, 1994); as each labelled cell divides it shares its CFSE equally between the two daughter cells resulting in each cell having half the level of CFSE labelling and consequently half the fluorescence intensity (Figure 2.12b). This is visualised as a series of peaks by the flow cytometer which detects the level fluorescence of the CFSE dye emitting at 517nm. Approximately 8–10 cycles of division can be detected before the level of fluorescence becomes equal to the autofluorescence level of unlabelled cells (Hasbold *et al.*, 1999).

The ability of CFSE to follow cycles of division accurately provided an important tool for the current study to investigate the suppressive activity of Tregs, isolated from head and neck cancer patients, on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells. In order to optimise the CFSE assay HNSCC cell lines were initially used to establish the method before the technique was transferred for use with isolated effector T cells.

3.2.1 CFSE assay with HNSCC cell lines

The head and neck cancer cell line SIHN-011A was incubated with a range of concentrations of CFSE (1.25μ M, 2.5μ M, 5μ M and 10μ M) to establish whether there was an optimal concentration for following cellular proliferation. SIHN-011A was kindly supplied by Dr. S. Eccles (The Institute of Cancer Research) and was derived from a base of tongue tumour, however, the full clinical details of the tumour specimen were not supplied in initial work (O-Charoenrat *et al.*, 2000).

SIHN-011A (1 x 10^6 cells/ml) were labelled with an appropriate concentration of CFSE and cultured for 2 days before the level of CFSE fluorescence was measured for a total of 10 days. The histograms obtained for each day of culture showed that the level of CFSE fluorescence within the cells (mean fluorescence intensity) was higher with increasing starting concentrations of CFSE (Figure 3.6; representative plots acquired at day four of culture).

The histograms recorded over the 10 day culture period, following incubation of SIHN-011A with $10\mu M$ of CFSE, are illustrated in Figure 3.7; similar histograms were observed for all the different starting concentrations of CFSE used and showed that any of

the concentrations were able to monitor the proliferation of SIHN-011A. The mean fluorescence intensity decreased every day as the CFSE halved in each cell after division. This assay was repeated and the same trend recorded, it was also found that aliquots of the prepared CFSE stock could be stored at -20°C and used in assays months later.

Although the mean fluorescence intensity decreased over the 10 days of culture showing that SIHN-011A was proliferating, the characteristic 'peaks' associated with the CFSE assay and cycles of division were not observed. The HNSCC cell lines represent a single cell population and therefore after continuous culture their proliferation may be synchronised; cells dividing at the same time would cause the level of CFSE to reduce at the same rate and consequently a single peak of fluorescence would be observed to 'shift', decreasing in fluorescence intensity, during the subsequent cycles of division. A similar progressive 'shift' in fluorescence during a proliferation time course (24-96 hours) was also demonstrated by Matera and colleagues (2004) using an ovarian carcinoma cell line (IGROV1).



Mean fluorescence intensity: 95



Figure 3.6 SIHN-011A incubated with a range of CFSE concentrations

SIHN-011A (1 x 10^6 cells) was cultured with a range of CFSE concentrations for four days before CFSE content was measured by flow cytometry. Histogram plots from SIHN-011A labelled with a) no CFSE b) 10µM c) 5µM d) 2.5µM and 1.25µM. Representative e) of two experiments





Mean fluorescence intensity: 984





Histograms showing the fluorescence of 10,000 acquired cells following incubation with 10μ M CFSE for between 2 and 10 days of culture. Representative of two experiments.
Two further HNSCC lines UMSCC-11b and UMSCC-12a (Table 3.4; kindly supplied by Dr. T. Carey, University of Michigan) were incubated with 10μ M of CFSE to ensure that the method developed with SIHN-011A could be transferred for use with other head and neck cancer cell lines. UMSCC-11b and UMSCC-12a proliferated at similar rates with the mean fluorescence intensity of cells labelled with CFSE decreasing at similar levels over the first 4 days of culture.

Table 3.4	UMSCC	cell lines	11b	and	12a

HNSCC cell	Gender of	Age of	TNM	Anatomic site	Specimen site
line name	patient	patient		of origin	
UMSCC-11b	Male	65	T2N2aM0	Larynx	Larynx
UMSCC-12a	Male	71	T2N1M0	Larynx	Larynx

3.2.1.1 Blocking cellular proliferation

To mimic the suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells, the growth of SIHN-011A was reduced by incubating the head and neck cancer cell line with serum free (FBS) medium. SIHN-011A was labelled with CFSE and on the fourth day of culture the cell line was divided into two flasks, one flask contained complete growth medium and the other flask contained serum free medium. The removal of serum from the cells resulted in a decrease in proliferation as indicated by the higher mean fluorescence intensity of the peak compared with the cells incubated in the presence of serum; the effect was most marked three days post serum removal (Day 7; Figure 3.8). This experiment showed that alterations in the proliferation of cells could be measured using a CFSE assay.



Figure 3.8 SIHN-011A proliferation with and without serum containing medium Histograms comparing the proliferation of SIHN-011A in medium with and without serum. 1×10^6 SHIN-011A cells were labelled with 10µM of CFSE and cultured for 4 days before being split into two separate cultures, incubated with either complete growth medium (a, b) or growth medium without serum (c, d), the fluorescence intensity of the cells was measured on days 6 (a, c) and 7 (b, d) of culture using flow cytometry.

3.2.2 CFSE assay with effector T cells

The CFSE assay established on the head and neck cancer cell lines was transferred to isolated effector T cells. Cancer research groups using the CFSE assay to assess the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells have labelled the effector population with a range of CFSE concentrations (1-5 μ M; Ju *et al.*, 2009; Lin *et al.*, 2012; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Shenghui *et al.*, 2011; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a). Due to the use of 5 μ M by Lyons and Parish (2004) in the initial study to determine

lymphocyte division by CFSE and the same concentration successfully following the proliferation of HNSCC cells lines, $5\mu M$ CFSE was chosen to label isolated effector T cells and monitor their proliferation.

The effector T cells (n=4) were incubated with 5μ M CFSE immediately following isolation by FACS (Section 2.18) and the level of CFSE fluorescence in the cells was measured over a nine day culture period (Figure 3.9). Between day 2 and 7 several peaks with various levels of fluorescence, representing the different daughter populations, were evident and the mean fluorescence intensity of the peaks decreased consistently during the culture period. Following 7 days of culture only a single major peak with minimal fluorescence was evident, indicating that the effector T cells had lost most of their CFSE labelling presumably due to the number of cycles of division the cells had undergone (Figure 3.9). Serum starvation of effector T cells, as described for the HNSCC cell line SIHN-011A, also showed that proliferation could be reduced since three days post serum removal the mean fluorescence intensity for cells maintained in growth medium without serum was 623 whereas cells cultured in complete growth medium had a mean fluorescence intensity of 345.

The CFSE assay was subsequently adapted to include Tregs to enable their suppressive activity on the proliferation of effector T cells to be examined (Section 2.18). It was important to determine the optimum length of incubation for the co-culture of CFSE labelled effector T cells and Tregs as this has varied between research groups with some choosing five (Hartigan-O'Connor et al., 2007; Strauss et al., 2007a; Venken et al., 2007), four (Parish et al., 2009; Putnam et al., 2009) or three (Ju et al., 2009; Seddiki et al., 2006) days. Three different co-culture CFSE assays were prepared for both of the effector T cell populations isolated, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ (Section 2.18), and were incubated for either three, four or five days before the results were acquired by flow cytometry. Figure 3.10 illustrates the plots obtained for these three different days of incubation showing the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cell population cultured alone and with Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) at a ratio of 1:1; similar plots were recorded for the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ population. Day three and four show distinct CFSE peaks, with cells on day three having undergone four cycles of division and those on day four, six cycles of division (Figure 3.10). Following five days of culture the peaks are less defined making it difficult to determine how many cycles of division the effector T cells have gone through.



Figure 3.9 Effector T cell CFSE proliferation assay

Histograms showing the level of fluorescence generated from 1×10^6 CFSE labelled (5µM) effector T cells isolated by FACS from PBMC over a nine day period of culture. Representative of 4 experiments.



Figure 3.10 Co-culture of CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells with CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs at different days of culture

Effector T cells were immediately labelled with 5μ M CFSE following isolation by FACS and either cultured alone (a, c, e) or with autologous Tregs at a 1:1 ratio (b, d, f). Following three (a, b), four (c, d) or five (e, f) days of culture the level of fluorescence generated from the proliferating effector T cells was measured. Representative of 3 experiments.

From the results illustrated by Figure 3.10 four days of co-culture of the effector T cells and Tregs appeared to be optimal for analysing the suppressive activity of Tregs, as this produced the most defined CFSE peaks showing the greatest number of cycles of division. However, upon repeating the assay with a different patient sample, the proliferation peaks were not as well defined highlighting variability between patient samples. Consequently two further CFSE assays were prepared with one patient sample and analysed following three and four days of co-culture; the results were similar to those shown by Figure 3.10 and therefore the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation effector T cells was subsequently analysed on day four of co-culture.

3.2.3 Calculation of the proliferation index

To establish the proliferation of a CFSE labelled effector T cell population the proliferation index (PI) was calculated. The PI is a measure of the increase in cell number over the duration of culture and is determined by dividing the total number of cells in each generation by the original number of calculated parent cells present at the beginning of culture. The PI assumes the cell number doubles as cells proliferate through each successive daughter generation (ModFit, Proliferation Index).

Initially the PI was determined manually; as the CFSE assay is based on the assumption that a single CFSE labelled parent cell will divide into two daughter cells, each division (generation) can be visualised on a histogram plot as a 'peak' and by applying a gate to each 'peak' the number of cells in each generation is determined (Figure 3.11; 6 cycles of division). The peak with the greatest fluorescent intensity represents the parent peak i.e., the CFSE labelled effector T cells that have not undergone cellular proliferation (Figure 3.11).



Figure 3.11 Gated peaks identifying cycles of division by proliferating CFSE labelled effector T cells

Effector T cells were immediately labelled with $5\mu M$ CFSE following isolation by FACS and cultured for four days before the cells were harvested and their CFSE content measured by flow cytometry. On the histogram gates were applied to encompass each peak to visualise the cycles of division. This enables the number of cells within each generation to be determined.

To calculate the PI for a CFSE labelled effector T cell population the following equation was used: PI = sum of cells in all generations / number of original parent cells (ModFit, Proliferation Index).

The sum of cells in all generations is easily calculated by adding together the number of cells in each 'peak' (division; Table 3.5). To determine the number of original parent cells it must be calculated how many parent cells the cells in each generation originated from. For example, if after one round of division there are 200 cells the number of parent cells will have been 100 due to each parent cell dividing to give two daughter cells. If there are 200 cells after two rounds of division then they were derived from 50 original parent cells. To calculate the original number of parent cells, the number of cells the each generation (n) is divided by 2 raised to the power n, e.g. $200 / 2^2 = 50$.

Generation	Number of cells in	Divide by 2 ⁿ	Parent cell number
(n)	each generation		
Parent (0)	291	1	291
1	298	2	149
2	652	4	163
3	1,822	8	228
4	3,056	16	191
5	2,643	32	83
6	995	62	16
Sum	9,757	-	1,121

 Table 3.5
 Calculations to determine the PI

From the values calculated in Table 3.5 the PI for the CFSE labelled effector T cell population analysed in Figure 3.11 can be determined:

PI = sum of cells in all generations (9,757) / number of original parent cells $(1,121) = \underline{8.7}$

The PI for effector T cells cultured alone represents 100% proliferation and 0% suppression, comparing this value to the PI for the co-culture of effector T cells and Tregs the percentage of proliferation and subsequently percentage of suppression can be determined as outlined in Table 2.2.

Determining the peaks of division manually is arbitrary and dependent on the researcher's interpretation of the flow cytometric data. To remove human analysis many research publications that use the CFSE dye to assess the proliferation of effector T cells use ModFit LTTM software (Verity Software House; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Putnam *et al.*, 2009; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a). The ModFit LTTM software also works on the assumption that the daughter cells will have half the fluorescence of the parent generation. By establishing the fluorescence of the parent population each generation (peak) is subsequently determined based on a 50% decrease in fluorescent intensity (Figure 2.12). The applied peaks determine the number of cells present within each generation and the software calculates the PI by the same equation used in the manual method.

The ModFit LT^{TM} software (Verity Software House) was used throughout the studies conducted in this thesis to assess the suppressive activity of Tregs, isolated from the peripheral circulation (Chapter 4), tumour microenvironment (Chapter 5) as well as the influence of HNSCC secretions (Chapter 6), on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells.

Chapter 4.

Phenotype, frequency and suppressive activity of T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

4.1 Introduction

Tregs are a suppressive population of T lymphocytes that help preserve immune homeostasis by maintaining peripheral tolerance through the suppression of auto reactive T cells (Section 1.9). Based on origin and development, the CD4⁺ Treg population has been divided into two main groups: nTregs and iTregs (Section 1.11). nTregs (normally referred to as "Tregs") are the most well defined regulatory population and because of the relative ease of identification, through CD25 and Foxp3 positivity, their role in cancer has been widely studied. It has been shown in a number of different cancer types, including HNSCC, that Tregs are elevated in the peripheral circulation of patients compared with healthy controls (Table 1.8). The work in this thesis has identified and isolated Tregs from newly-presenting HNSCC patients and healthy controls using the inverse relationship between CD127 and that of Foxp3 (Section 1.12); however it is known that Foxp3 can be expressed by a proportion of iTregs (Section 1.11.2) and also by activated CD4⁺ helper cells (Section 1.12).

Relationships between Tregs and clinical parameters have been investigated previously in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients, with the majority of studies focusing on the percentage of Tregs. In gastric, oesophageal and renal cancer, significant differences were observed between early and advanced stage tumours, with the latter showing increased levels of Tregs (Kono *et al.*, 2006; Liotta *et al.*, 2010; Mizukami *et al.*, 2008b; Shen *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, no significant differences in the frequency of Tregs were observed in HNSCC patients presenting with early or advanced stage tumours (Schott *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a). When groups have studied the relationship with survival disparate results have been presented, for example Kono *et al.* (2006) and Sasada *et al.* (2003) reported that gastric cancer patients with a high prevalence of peripheral Tregs had significantly poorer survival rates than those with low Treg levels; whereas the opposite trend was found in renal cancer patients (Liotta *et al.*, 2010). To date, although several research groups have attempted to understand the prevalence of Tregs and their association with prognosis (Section 1.13), the lack of agreement between studies means the use of Tregs as a prognostic marker remains controversial.

One of the reasons for the discrepancies between studies is likely to be due to the absence of a single definitive marker to identify this suppressive T cell subset. Initially, the

murine CD4⁺CD25⁺ Treg phenotype was translated into the human setting (Section 1.12) and CD4⁺CD25⁺ was the first phenotype employed by research groups to demonstrate the increased frequency of Tregs in human cancer (Section 1.13). Although CD25 is one of the most common markers for the regulatory T cell subset, it is also expressed by activated effector T cells, resulting in a heterogeneous mix of Treg and effector T cell populations. Functional studies subsequently identified the CD4⁺CD25^{high} phenotype as being the major suppressive population (Section 1.12) and this remains one of the most commonly investigated phenotypes in cancer studies to date.

Further research for a specific Treg marker led to the discovery that the transcription factor, Foxp3, plays an important role in the development and function of Tregs and consequently Foxp3 remains one of the commonest Treg markers used. Unfortunately, due to the intracellular location of Foxp3, this marker cannot be used to isolate Tregs for functional studies and in the quest to find additional markers, more recent studies have demonstrated an inverse relationship between the surface expression of the interleukin 7 receptor (CD127) and Foxp3, allowing the use of this marker to assess both the level and functional capacity of Tregs.

In addition to frequency it is also important to investigate the suppressive capacity of Tregs as it is their functional activity, not just their presence, which will determine how effective a host's anti-tumour immune response will be in combating the growth and progression of a tumour. In cancer patients it has been reported that, not only are Tregs elevated in frequency, but they are also more suppressive in comparison to those from healthy controls (Table 4.1). However, the results from studies investigating the suppressive function of Tregs in cancer patients in relation to tumour stage did not show any statistically significant differences associated with progression (Shen *et al.*, 2009; Shen *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a).

Treg phenotype	Cancer type	Research group
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺	Nasopharyngeal HNSCC Oral SCC	Lau <i>et al.</i> (2007) Mandapathil <i>et al.</i> (2009) Gasparoto <i>et al.</i> (2010)
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high}	Acute myeloid leukemia HNSCC Prostate HNSCC	Shenghui <i>et al.</i> (2011) Strauss <i>et al.</i> (2007a and b) Yokokawa <i>et al.</i> (2008) Mandapathil <i>et al.</i> (2009)
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	Gastric	Shen <i>et al.</i> (2009)

Table 4.1Treg phenotypes demonstrating increased suppressive activity of Tregsin the peripheral circulation of cancer patients in comparison with healthy controls

In order to try and clarify the role of Tregs in HNSCC, the current study used the CD127^{low/-} phenotype to identify and isolate Tregs from the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls. Previous studies have used the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} phenotype to isolate Tregs, however, for this investigation two Treg populations, separated by the expression of CD25, were also identified and isolated: CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs. This allowed an assessment into whether the level of CD25 expression would influence the suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs which, to the author's knowledge, has not before been investigated in Two distinct effector T cell populations: the classic CD4⁺CD25⁻ cancer patients. population, frequently used by research groups to assess the suppressive activity of Tregs (Shen et al., 2010; Strauss et al., 2007a; Yokokawa et al., 2008) and a population of activated T cells expressing the IL-7 receptor α chain, CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ were also identified and isolated. To the author's knowledge this is the first study to assess the suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs in HNSCC patients. The clinical objective of the study was to assess Treg frequency and function in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients in relation to tumour stage [early (T1 and T2) and advanced (T3 and T4)], nodal status [no nodal involvement (N0) and nodal involvement (N^+)], head and neck tumour subsites, principally the larynx and oropharynx, and healthy controls.

4.2 Materials and methods

4.2.1 HNSCC patients and healthy controls

Following ethical (Yorkshire and the Humber research ethics committee; REC reference 10/H1304/7 and 05/Q1105/55) and NHS Trust R and D (R0988 and R0220) approval, and having obtained written informed consent, 51 newly-presenting HNSCC patients and 14 healthy controls [undergoing non cancer related surgery (n=11) and healthy subjects (n=3); Section 2.12] were recruited on to the study. Of these, 12 HNSCC samples had poor viability and/or low cell number and were therefore not used for flow cytometry or cell sorting. Due to the low number of cells sorted and limitations of the CFSE assay, it was only possible to study 28 HNSCC patients and 10 healthy controls for the suppressive activity of Tregs (Figure 4.1).

4.2.2 Assessing the phenotype and prevalence of T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

Following retrieval from cryopreservation, approximately 3 x 10⁷ PBMC isolated by density gradient centrifugation from HNSCC patient and healthy control venous blood samples (Section 2.13), were stained with a Treg sorting cocktail (BD Biosciences) containing antibodies against CD4, CD25 and CD127, to enable the isolation of Treg and effector T cell populations by FACS (Section 2.16). During this process the gating strategy employed during FACS (Figure 2.11) enabled the prevalence of $CD4^+$ cells (Figure 4.2a), CD4⁺CD25⁺, CD4⁺CD25^{inter} and CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells (Figure 4.2b), Tregs and effector T cells (Figure 4.2c) in the HNSCC patient cohort and healthy controls to be examined. CD4⁺ cells expressing high and intermediate levels of the IL-2 receptor were gated based on the expression of CD25 by the CD4⁻ population (Section 1.12) and it was the combination of these two gates that gave the percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25 By the same method, combining the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and (Figure 4.2b). CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell populations gave the total percentage of CD4⁺ cells CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} expressing and the combination of the Treg populations CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} provided the percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} (Figure 4.2c).





HNSCC patients (n=51) and healthy controls (n=14) were recruited for analysis of the phenotype of specific T cell subsets and assess Treg function in the peripheral circulation. However, due to viability, cell number and the limitations of the CFSE assay not all samples yielded data.



CD4+ CD25+ CD127^{low/-}



A PBMC sample was labelled with antibodies against CD4, CD25 and CD127 and, following doublet discrimination, a) the lymphocyte population positive for the expression of CD4 was gated. b) A dot plot showing the expression of CD4 and CD25 was created and a quadrant was set encompassing the CD4⁻CD25⁻ cells in the lower left quadrant. CD4⁺ cells expressing high and intermediate levels of CD25 were gated using the expression of CD4⁺ population as a guide. Combining the high and intermediate gates gave the percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25. c) The CD4⁺ population was used to create a dot plot of CD25 and CD127 expression and two Treg populations were identified, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}, which when combined gave the percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}. In addition, two effector T cell populations were identified, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺, combining to show the percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+}.

4.2.3 Assessment of Foxp3 expression by T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

T cell subsets identified within PBMC samples (Figure 4.2) from healthy controls, oropharyngeal and laryngeal cancer patients (one early stage and one advanced stage from each HNSCC subsite) were assessed for the expression of the transcription factor Foxp3. PBMC samples were stained with a Treg sorting cocktail (BD Biosciences; Section 2.16) before being fixed, permeabilised and incubated with a fluorescently conjugated monoclonal mouse anti-human antibody specific for the intracellular marker Foxp3 (AF488, clone 259D/C7; BD Biosciences) or its corresponding isotype control (Section 2.10). The same gating strategy employed to isolate Treg and effector T cells by FACS (Figure 2.11) was applied during the acquisition of the samples. From the dot plots generated, histograms were created for both positive and negative samples. Markers were set on the isotype controls to encompass $\leq 1\%$ of cells (Figure 2.3b), and the percentage of Foxp3 expression by different T cell subsets, including the T cell populations isolated to assess the function of Tregs (Figure 4.3), was determined.



Figure 4.3 Histograms used to assess the expression of Foxp3 by different T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation

A PBMC sample was stained with antibodies against CD4, CD25 and CD127 followed by intracellular labelling with an anti-Foxp3 antibody. Following doublet discrimination, lymphocytes positive for the expression of CD4 were gated and used to identify CD4⁺ T cell populations expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127; CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}, CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺. Histograms plotted specifically with these T cell populations determined their percentage of Foxp3 expression.

4.2.4 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls using a CFSE assay

Immediately following isolation by FACS (Section 2.16) Tregs from 34 HNSCC patients and 13 healthy controls were assessed for their suppressive activity on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells via a CFSE assay (Section 2.18).

The concentration and cell viability of each isolated population was determined using trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4) to establish whether sufficient viable cells had

been obtained to set up a CFSE assay. In the majority of cases the CFSE assay was run with 5 x 10^4 effector T cells cultured in each well of a 96 well plate (Section 2.18), however, when insufficient cells were isolated the number of effector cells plated was successfully scaled down to 1×10^4 . Effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) were incubated with 5µM of CFSE (Sigma) before being washed and co-cultured with Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) at various ratios (Treg:effector, 1:1, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10) depending on the number of cells available. The 1:1 ratio was always prepared and other ratios were set up where possible. Lymphocyte stimulation was provided by Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads (Invitrogen) and 100U/ml recombinant human IL-2 (AbD Serotec). On day four of co-culture, cells were analysed for their CFSE content using the FACSAriaTM II with FACSDiva software (Section 2.18) and the results analysed using ModFit LTTM software (Verity Software House). The percentages of suppression were calculated based on the proliferation index for effector cells cultured alone (100% proliferation, 0% suppression) compared with the proliferation index of effector cells co-cultured with Tregs (Section 2.19).

4.2.5 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 19. The normality of data was assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Differences between independent data sets, with normal distribution, were analysed using the Student's unpaired T test with the assumption of equal variance assessed by the Levene's test. The Mann-Whitney U test was used for independent data sets that did not follow a normal distribution. Differences between dependent data sets that were normally distributed were analysed using the Student's paired T test. The Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used for dependent data sets that were not of normal distribution. Values were considered significant when p<0.05.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls

The PBMC from 39 HNSCC patients and 14 healthy controls (Table 4.2) were characterised phenotypically using flow cytometry following staining with a Treg sorting cocktail. The frequency of various T cell subsets amongst healthy controls and HNSCC patients was assessed and related to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status.

 Table 4.2 Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

 whose PBMC were phenotypically characterised

Characteristics	Number			
HNSCC patients sex and age				
Male	35			
Female	4			
Total	39			
Mean age (years)	62			
Age range (years)	40-87			
Healthy controls sex and age				
Male	12			
Female	1			
Total	14*			
Mean age (years)	45			
Age range (years)	23-63			
Tumour stage				
Early (T1 and T2)	19			
Advanced (T3 and T4)	20			
Tumour site				
Laryngeal	23			
Oropharyngeal	16			
Tumour stage and site				
Early larvngeal	10			
Advanced laryngeal	13			
Early oropharyngeal	9			
Advanced oropharyngeal	7			
Nodal status				
NO	14			
\mathbf{N}^+	25			

* The sex and age of one healthy control was not recorded.

4.3.1.1 Percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4

The HNSCC patients, as a whole cohort, showed significantly elevated levels of $CD4^+$ T cells in comparison with healthy controls (Table 4.3). This significance arose principally from patients with no nodal involvement (N0) who had significantly higher levels of $CD4^+$ cells compared with those having nodal involvement (N⁺) and from the laryngeal cohort who had a significantly higher proportion of $CD4^+$ cells compared with the oropharyngeal cohort (Table 4.3). These two subgroups were also observed to have significantly increased levels of $CD4^+$ T cells compared with healthy controls, *p*=0.003 and *p*=0.01, respectively.

pressing
CD25 ^{high}
4.27 ± 1.77
2.59 ± 0.98
0.43
0.49 ± 1.10 4.59 ± 1.49 0.06
1.76 ± 1.24
3.79 ± 1.57
0.31
9.82 ± 1.45 3.25 ± 1.84 0.18
1.24 ± 1.72
7.07 ± 2.41
0.06
$\begin{array}{c} 0.16 \ \pm 1.40 \\ 3.96 \ \pm 1.24 \\ 0.06 \end{array}$
1 3 9. 3 1 7 0 3

Table 4.3 Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in healthy controls and HNSCC patients in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status

Values mean percentage \pm SEM Unpaired student's t test or Mann-Whitney U test. Results in bold considered significant when p < 0.05CD25⁺ is the sum of CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high}

For the laryngeal cohort it was patients with early stage tumours that had the highest level of CD4⁺ cells, furthermore early stage laryngeal patients had significantly higher levels than patients with early stage cancer of the oropharynx (Figure 4.4).



Figure 4.4 Percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 from healthy controls and HNSCC patients separated by tumour stage and subsite

Following labelling with CD4, CD25 and CD127 antibodies, the lymphocyte population was analysed by flow cytometry and following doublet discrimination the percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 was determined. Values are mean percentage \pm SEM. Unpaired student's T test; only significant values are shown * p=0.008 **p=0.03

4.3.1.2 Percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25

The percentage of $CD4^+$ cells expressing CD25 ($CD4^+CD25^+$) and the subpopulation expressing the IL-2 receptor at intermediate levels ($CD4^+CD25^{inter}$) were slightly elevated in HNSCC patients, as a whole, in comparison with healthy controls however, this difference was not significant (Table 4.3). The proportion of $CD4^+$ cells expressing high levels of CD25 was similar between the whole patient cohort and healthy controls (Table 4.3). When comparing different head and neck subsites, although significance was not observed, patients with cancer of the oropharynx were seen to have a slightly increased level of $CD4^+CD25^+$ cells compared with laryngeal cancer patients

(Table 4.3). When HNSCC patients were separated with respect to nodal status and tumour stage, patients with nodal involvement and advanced stage tumours had increased levels of $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ cells in comparison with those without lymph node involvement and early stage tumours respectively, which approached significance (Table 4.3). Examining individual subsites revealed that the differences observed between tumour stages arose principally from patients with advanced stage oropharyngeal cancer who had elevated levels of $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ cells compared with the early stage oropharyngeal cohort, which tended towards significance. The same trend was seen to occur in the laryngeal cohort however, this difference did not reach significance (Table 4.3).

4.3.1.3 Percentage of Tregs expressing low levels of CD127

The percentage of CD4⁺CD127^{low/-} cells, for all levels of CD25 expression, was similar in the whole HNSCC patient cohort compared with the healthy controls (Table 4.4). On comparing tumour stages, patients with early stage tumours had a slightly lower but non-significant level of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} cells in comparison with patients having advanced stage tumours; this difference predominately arose from the laryngeal cohort where patients with advanced stage tumours had higher levels of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} cells in comparison with patients with early stage tumours, a different which approached significance (Table 4.4). Separating the CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} population by CD25 expression, showed that advanced stage patients had a significantly elevated level of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} cells compared with early stage patients. This significance arose from patients with advanced stage cancer of the larynx and oropharynx having a higher proportion of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} cells in comparison to patients with early stage laryngeal and oropharyngeal cancer however, these differences did not reach significance (Table 4.4). Examining nodal status, patients with tumours that had spread to the lymph nodes had significantly elevated levels of CD25⁺ and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} cells compared with patients who had no nodal involvement (Table 4.4).

	Percentage of CD4 ⁺ cells expressing					
Cohort	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{-/+} CD127 ^{-/+}	CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺
Healthy controls (n=14)	14.58 ± 1.27	8.77 ± 0.85	5.81 ± 0.66	85.15 ± 1.59	43.34 ± 4.31	41.81 ± 3.37
HNSCC patients (n=39)	15.25 ± 0.58	8.59 ± 0.41	6.67 ± 0.45	85.29 ± 0.55	39.21 ± 2.37	46.08 ± 2.13
<i>p</i> value	0.59	0.83	0.31	0.94	0.39	0.30
Early stage (n=19)	14.30 ± 0.78	8.61 ± 0.70	5.69 ± 0.48	86.36 ± 0.72	40.75 ± 3.56	45.61 ± 3.23
Advanced stage (n=20)	16.16 ± 0.82	8.57 ± 0.46	7.59 ± 0.69	84.28 ± 0.78	37.74 ± 3.20	46.54 ± 2.89
<i>p</i> value	0.10	0.97	0.03	0.06	0.53	0.83
Laryngeal (n=23)	14.87 ± 0.80	8.22 ± 0.44	6.65 ± 0.64	85.83 ± 0.76	41.12 ± 3.35	44.71 ± 3.02
Oropharyngeal (n=16)	15.81 ± 0.84	9.11 ± 0.76	6.69 ± 0.60	84.51 ± 0.76	36.45 ± 3.18	48.06 ± 2.91
<i>p</i> value	0.45	0.29	0.96	0.24	0.34	0.45
Early Laryngeal (n=10)	13.23 ± 1.06	7.83 ± 0.91	5.40 ± 0.58	87.48 ± 0.99	43.82 ± 5.43	43.66 ± 5.12
Advanced Laryngeal	16.13 ± 1.05	8.52 ± 0.38	7.61 ± 0.98	84.57 ± 1.01	39.05 ± 4.31	45.52 ± 3.79
(n=13)			0.00		0.40	-
<i>p</i> value	0.06	0.20	0.09	0.047	0.49	0.77
Early Oropharyngeal $(n-9)$	15.49 ± 1.07	9.47 ± 1.06	6.02 ± 0.82	85.11 ± 0.92	37.34 ± 4.55	47.77 ± 3.96
Advanced	16.21 ± 1.42	8.66 ± 1.16	7.56 ± 0.84	83.73 ± 1.27	35.30 ± 4.69	48.43 ± 4.64
Oropharyngeal (n=7)						
<i>p</i> value	0.66	0.62	0.22	0.38	0.76	0.92
N0 (n=14)	13.25 ± 0.76	7.87 ± 0.58	5.37 ± 0.48	87.21 ± 0.72	44.08 ± 4.63	43.14 ± 4.38
N ⁺ (n=25)	16.35 ± 0.71	8.99 ± 0.54	7.39 ± 0.60	84.21 ± 0.68	36.48 ± 2.55	47.74 ± 2.27
<i>p</i> value	0.01	0.10	0.03	0.01	0.13	0.31

Table 4.4 Percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127 in healthy controls and HNSCC patients in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Unpaired student's t test or Mann-Whitney U test. Results in bold considered significant when p<0.05CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} is the sum of CD25^{inter} CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}. CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} is the sum of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD25⁺CD127⁺

4.3.1.4 The percentage of Tregs in the peripheral circulation using different phenotypes

Lymphocytes were labelled with antibodies specific for the extracellular markers, CD4, CD25 and CD127, allowing Tregs to be identified and their level in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients assessed by various different commonly used phenotypes (CD4⁺CD25⁺, CD4⁺CD25^{high} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/}; Table 1.8) and also the CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Treg populations examined by the current study for suppressive activity. Figure 4.5 shows how dramatically the levels of reported Tregs can vary depending upon the phenotype employed to investigate them. The CD4⁺CD25⁺ phenotype identifies the greatest level of Tregs in the peripheral circulation with a much lower percentage of Tregs identified by the CD4⁺CD25^{high} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} phenotypes. The lowest frequency of circulating Tregs in HNSCC CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} stringent patients observed by the most are and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} phenotypes.



Treg phenotype

Figure 4.5 Percentages of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients identified using different phenotypes

Following labelling with CD4, CD25 and CD127 antibodies, lymphocytes positive for the expression of CD4 were gated by their positive expression of CD25 to identify $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs. Within this population, the $CD4^+$ cells which expressed CD25 at levels exceeding that expressed by $CD4^-$ cells identified the $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs. Using these CD25 boundaries, $CD4^+$ cells expressing low levels of CD127 were gated on CD25 expression to identify $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$, $CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$ and $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$ Treg populations. Values are mean percentage \pm SEM.

4.3.1.5 Percentage of CD4⁺ effector T cell populations expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127

The HNSCC patients, as a whole, showed similar levels of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector cells in comparison with healthy controls (Table 4.4). On comparing tumour stage, patients with early stage tumours had elevated levels of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} cells compared with patients with tumours of the advanced stage, a difference approaching significance (Table 4.4). This difference most probably arose due to the significant trend observed in the laryngeal cohort where patients with early stage laryngeal tumours had

increased levels of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} cells compared with patients with advanced stage cancer of the larynx (Table 4.4). On assessing nodal status, patients without nodal involvement had a significantly increased level of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} cells compared to patients with tumours that had spread to the lymph nodes. Dividing the CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector T cell population into the two effector populations (CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) highlighted no significant differences between the various cohorts. With the exception of the patient cohorts with early stage laryngeal cancer and without nodal involvement it was observed that each HNSCC group, regardless of subsite or tumour stage, had a greater proportion of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells in comparison to the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} population. However, upon statistical analysis the difference only reached significance for the HNSCC patients with nodal involvement (p=0.03; Figure 4.6).



Figure 4.6 Percentage of CD4⁺ cells from HNSCC patients expressing CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD25⁺CD127⁺ separated by tumour stage and subsite, and nodal status Following labelling with CD4, CD25 and CD127 antibodies, lymphocytes positive for the expression of CD4 were gated by their negative expression of CD25 to identify the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells (blue) and their positive expression of CD25 and CD127 to identify the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ population (red). Values are mean percentage \pm SEM. Paired student's t test, only significant values are shown, **p*=0.03

4.3.2 Expression of Foxp3 by T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls

A sample cohort of PBMC samples from HNSCC patients and healthy controls were phenotypically assessed using flow cytometry for the expression of Foxp3 in various T cell subsets. This examined the expression of the most specific Treg marker found to date in a number of different phenotypes used by research groups to identify the Treg population, including the CD127^{low/-} phenotype. Due to small numbers statistical analysis was not performed.

4.3.2.1 Percentage of CD4⁺ T cell subsets expressing Foxp3

The CD4⁺ T cells positive for the expression of the IL-2 receptor (CD4⁺CD25⁺) and those expressing intermediate levels of CD25 (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}) expressed Foxp3 at similar levels in HNSCC patients, as a whole, and healthy controls (Table 4.5). In contrast, the expression of the transcription factor by CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells and all three CD127^{low/-} populations was greater in HNSCC patients compared with healthy controls (Table 4.5). The percentage of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells expressing Foxp3 was similar in the whole HNSCC patient cohort and healthy controls (Table 4.5).

		Cohort	
T cell phenotypes		Healthy	HNSCC
		controls (n=2)	patients (n=4)
	$CD4^{+}CD25^{+}$	7.4	7.8
S	$CD4^+CD25^{inter}$	6.1	4.0
cel p3	$CD4^+CD25^{high}$	13.6	34.0
Tox			
i of I g I	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	21.8	26.4
age ssin	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	15.6	21.2
ente	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	59.1	72.7
exp			
Ъ,	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	3.1	3.6
	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺	5.2	2.9

Table 4.5Mean percentage of T cell subsets expressing Foxp3 in HNSCC patientsand healthy controls

For HNSCC patients, as a whole, the $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$ population had the highest percentage of Foxp3 positive cells, over 38% higher than the other Treg phenotypes, whilst the $CD4^+CD25^+$ phenotype has the lowest proportion of the transcription factor. Furthermore, irrespective of the Treg phenotype employed, it was shown that Tregs have a higher proportion of Foxp3 positive cells when compared to the effector T cell populations ($CD4^+CD25^{inter}$, $CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+}$ and $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$).

4.3.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs from HNSCC patients and healthy controls

The PBMC samples of 39 HNSCC patients and 14 healthy controls (Figure 4.1) were stained with a Treg sorting cocktail before being sorted by FACS to assess the activity of two Treg populations (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} suppressive and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) on the two autologous effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺; Figure 2.11) using a CFSE assay. However, despite best efforts, due to insufficient cells isolated to set up the CFSE assay and the failure of the CFSE assay after the four day culture, the suppressive activity of Tregs from 11 HNSCC patients and 4 healthy controls were unable to be determined (Figure 4.1). For one of the healthy control samples analysed abnormally high percentages of suppression were observed when compared to the other 9 healthy controls which may have been due to some underlying illness. The percentage of suppression induced by the CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from this healthy control sample was over four fold and two fold higher, respectively, compared to the mean percentage calculated for the remaining 9 healthy controls; consequently these results were omitted from the analysis. The clinicopathological characteristics of the remaining 28 HNSCC patients and 9 healthy controls analysed for the suppressive activity of Tregs are shown in Table 4.6.

Characteristics	Number
HNSCC patient say and age	
Male	25
Female	2.5
Total	28
Mean age (years)	20 60
Age range (years)	41-84
Healthy controls sex and age	
Male	7
Female	1
Total	9*
Mean age (years)	47
Age range (years)	23-63
Tumour stage	
Early (T1 and T2)	14
Advanced (T3 and T4)	14
Tumour site	
Larynx	14
Oropharynx	14
Tumour stage and site	
Early larynx	6
Advanced larynx	8
Early oropharynx	8
Advanced oropharynx	6
Nodal status	
Negative	8
Positive	20

 Table 4.6 Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

 whose peripheral Tregs were analysed for suppressive activity

* The sex and age of one healthy control was not recorded.

4.3.3.1 Suppressive activity of Tregs at different Treg : effector T cell ratios

In all samples a Treg:effector T cell ratio of 1:1 was established and where cell numbers allowed further ratios of 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 were also investigated to demonstrate that the suppressive activity could be titrated. The varying ratios showed that as the proportion of Tregs was lowered the percentage of suppression also decreased, regardless

of Treg phenotype $(CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} \text{ and } CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-})$ and the effector T cell population $(CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+} \text{ and } CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+)$ being suppressed (Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8).



Treg : Effector T cell ratio

Figure 4.7 Mean percentage of suppression by CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of <u>CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}</u> effector T cells at varying ratios for HNSCC patients

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at ratios of 1:1, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values mean percentage \pm SEM.



Figure 4.8 Mean percentage of suppression by CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of <u>CD25⁺CD127⁺</u> effector T cells at varying ratios for HNSCC patients

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells at ratios of 1:1, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values mean percentage \pm SEM.

The observed dilution of Treg suppressive activity was in agreement with previous studies conducted on Tregs isolated from the peripheral circulation of patients with gastric cancer (Ichihara *et al.*, 2003; Shen *et al.*, 2009) and HNSCC (Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009).

Due to all samples being established at the 1:1 ratio, and the lower number of samples prepared at the ratios 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10, the analysis of subsequent results, to highlight any differences between the suppressive activity of Tregs in different HNSCC patient cohorts and healthy controls, focused on the results from the 1:1 ratio.

4.3.3.2 Suppressive activity of CD4⁺CD25^{inter/high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on CD4⁺CD25⁻ CD127^{-/+} effector T cells

The HNSCC patients, as a whole cohort, had Tregs expressing both intermediate and high levels of CD25 suppressing the proliferation of the CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector population to a greater extent than those from healthy controls, and this difference reached significance for the CD25^{high} Tregs (Table 4.7). The significance observed arose primarily from the oropharyngeal cohort, in particular those with early stage oropharyngeal cancer, where it was observed that both these patient cohorts significantly induced a greater level of suppression compared with healthy controls (p=0.04 and p=0.02, respectively). When both subsite and stage were taken into account, patients with advanced stage cancer of the larynx also had CD25^{high} Tregs with significantly greater suppressive activity than the healthy controls (p=0.04). The suppressive activity observed between HNSCC subsites, tumour stages and nodal status were similar for both CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter} Tregs (Table 4.7). However, CD25^{high} Tregs from patients with nodal involvement were significantly more suppressive compared with healthy controls (p=0.04).

	Treg : Effector T cell				
Cabort	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	
Conort	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	
Healthy controls (n=9)	23.34 ± 7.09	11.43 ± 3.53	27.60 ± 5.97	12.34 ±4.31	
HNSCC patients (n=28)	31.62 ± 3.33	23.73 ± 3.04	28.82 ± 3.16	19.49 ± 2.61	
<i>p</i> value	0.25	0.04	0.85	0.18	
Early stage (n=14)	30.11 ± 4.53	23.51 ± 4.07	27.99 ± 4.92	19.51 ± 4.31	
Advanced stage (n=14)	33.13 ± 5.03	23.95 ± 4.67	29.64 ± 4.16	19.47 ± 3.12	
<i>p</i> value	0.66	0.94	0.80	1	
Laryngeal (n=14)	29.54 ± 4.04	22.05 ± 4.04	28.51 ± 4.77	19.65 ± 4.77	
Oropharyngeal (n=14)	33.70 ± 4.65	25.41 ± 4.65	29.12 ± 4.33	19.33 ± 3.36	
<i>p</i> value	0.54	0.59	0.93	0.95	
Farly Laryngeal (n–6)	21 20 + 6 63	18 30 + 6 95	20.42 + 8.04	14 48 + 8 16	
A dyanced L aryngeal $(n-8)$	21.20 ± 0.05 35.80 + 6.62	24.86 ± 4.96	20.42 ± 0.04 34.50 ± 5.21	14.40 ± 0.10 23.53 ± 3.83	
n value	0.15	24.80 ± 4.90	0.20	23.35 ± 3.85	
<i>p</i> value	0.15	0.44	0.20	0.50	
Early Oropharyngeal (n=8)	36.80 ± 4.79	27.43 ± 4.79	33.68 ± 5.75	23.28 ± 4.46	
Advanced Oropharyngeal	29.57 ± 8.20	22.73 ± 9.27	23.05 ± 6.27	14.07 ± 4.64	
(n=6)					
<i>p</i> value	0.46	0.64	0.24	0.19	
_					
N0 (n=8)	29.89 ± 5.95	22.28 ± 5.54	24.75 ± 5.32	11.21 ± 4.50	
N ⁺ (n=20)	32.31 ± 4.10	24.30 ± 3.72	30.45 ± 3.91	22.80 ± 2.92	
<i>p</i> value	0.75	0.77	0.43	0.04	

Table 4.7Percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio for both healthy
controls and HNSCC patients separated by tumour stage, subsite and nodal status

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Unpaired student's t test or Mann-Whitney U test. Bold results considered significant when p < 0.05

4.3.3.3 Suppressive activity of CD4⁺CD25^{inter/high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells

The mean percentage of suppression induced by CD25^{high} Tregs from the whole HNSCC patient cohort on CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells was slightly greater than that from healthy controls however, this difference did not reach significance (Table 4.7). A similar level of suppression for both HNSCC patients and healthy controls was induced by the CD25^{inter} Tregs (Table 4.7). The suppressive activity of CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter} Tregs was similar between laryngeal and oropharyngeal HNSCC subsites and early and advanced tumour stages whereas CD25^{high} Tregs from patients nodal involvement had significantly greater suppressive activity than patients without nodal involvement (Table 4.7).

4.3.3.4 Assessing the phenotype and suppressive activity of CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} Tregs

During the identification and isolation of Treg and effector T cell populations for the assessment of Treg suppressive activity, it was observed that when the four T cell populations (2 Treg and 2 effector T cell; Figure 4.9a) were transposed on to a CD4 vs CD25 dot plot, the CD4⁺ cells classified solely by their intermediate level of CD25 expression contained a substantial number of activated T cells (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺, yellow dots) along with relatively few CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (Figure 4.9b; red dots). Furthermore, this plot highlighted that the majority of activated T cells express intermediate levels of CD25 and that Tregs express a lower level of CD4 in comparison to the effector T cell populations (Figure 4.9b).



Figure 4.9 Distribution of isolated Treg and effector T cell populations based on the expression of CD4 and CD25

a) A PBMC sample was labelled with antibodies specific for CD4, CD25 and CD127, and following doublet discrimination the CD4⁺ lymphocytes were gated to identify two Treg (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) and two effector T cell (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) populations based on the expression of CD25 and CD127. b) These four populations were plotted on a CD4 vs CD25 dot plot to show their distribution amongst the CD4⁺CD25^{high} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter} gates transposing the same colours from one plot to the other.

123
The CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Treg population consistently induced a greater level of suppression compared with CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs at the 1:1 ratio (Table 4.7). This trend was also observed at the different Treg:effector T cell ratios however, with increased proportions of effector T cells the level of suppression induced by the two Treg populations became similar (Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8).

Assessing the percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio, Tregs expressing an intermediate level of CD25 consistently induced a higher level of suppression compared with those with higher levels of the IL-2 receptor, regardless of tumour stage, site, nodal status and including healthy controls (Table 4.7). This reached significance for the whole HNSCC patient cohort, healthy controls (Figure 4.10) and patients with advanced stage laryngeal cancer (p=0.04).



Figure 4.10 Mean percentage of suppression by CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter} Tregs on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values mean percentage \pm SEM. Paired student's t test, **p*=0.04 ***p*=0.02 This trend was also observed on the proliferation of $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$ effector T cells with the suppressive activity of $CD25^{inter}$ Tregs being significantly greater compared with $CD25^{high}$ Tregs for the majority of HNSCC patient cohorts, including advanced stage laryngeal cancer patients (*p*=0.02) and healthy controls (Figure 4.11).



Figure 4.11 Mean percentage of suppression by CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter} Tregs on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values mean percentage \pm SEM. Paired student's t test, only significant values are shown **p*=≤0.03

4.3.3.5 Comparison of the suppressive activity of Tregs on CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells

It was observed that both the CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs induced a greater level of suppression on the proliferation of the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared to the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell population for all HNSCC patient cohorts (Table 4.7), however this only reached significance for the

 $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs isolated from patients with cancer of the oropharynx, p=0.03.

4.4 Discussion

Previous studies have reported that, in the peripheral circulation, cancer patients harbour increased levels of Tregs that have greater suppressive activity when compared with healthy controls (Table 1.8 and Table 4.1). However, the markers used to determine the phenotype of the Tregs varies between studies. The aim of the current study was to further understand the influence HNSCC has on the circulating Treg population by examining the different phenotypes, percentages and suppressive activity of Treg subsets in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients using the extracellular markers CD4, CD25 and CD127. To the author's knowledge this is the largest investigation assessing the level of Tregs using the CD127 phenotype in newly-presenting head and neck cancer patients and is the first study to examine the suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs in HNSCC patients, comparing between patients and healthy controls and several clinicopathological features.

4.4.1 Prevalence of CD4⁺ cells in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients

A significantly increased percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 was observed in the HNSCC patient cohort in comparison with healthy controls, in particular in patients with laryngeal cancer, and more specifically early stage laryngeal cancer, and in patients with no nodal involvement. These results are surprising as it is well known that head and neck cancer patients along with the majority of other cancer patients are immunosuppressed due to the immune evasion strategies that are mediated by the tumour (Section 1.8; Duray *et al.*, 2010; Rabinovich *et al.*, 2007) and therefore it would perhaps be expected that the level of CD4⁺ cells would be lower in HNSCC patients compared with healthy controls as reported by Chikamatsu *et al.* (2007) and Lau *et al.* (2007). Current findings are however supported by Boucek *et al.* (2010) who also reported that HNSCC patients have a significantly higher percentage of circulating $CD4^+$ lymphocytes in comparison with healthy controls. In addition, Boucek and colleagues published similar percentages to that of the current study for the level of $CD4^+$ cells in HNSCC patients (45.3% vs. current study mean 44.03%) and healthy controls (38.1% vs. current study mean 38.14%). However, although a higher percentage of $CD4^+$ cells have been reported in HNSCC patients compared with healthy controls, their function may be compromised.

4.4.2 Prevalence of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients

Tregs in the literature come in many different guises however, the frequency of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients in the current study was similar to that in healthy controls, regardless of the phenotype used to investigated them (CD4⁺CD25⁺, CD4⁺CD25^{high}, CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}). The HNSCC patient cohort and healthy controls had a similar sex imbalance with a higher proportion of males recruited compared with females however, the mean age of the healthy controls was lower compared with the HNSCC patients. Thus there may be some changes related to ageing as reviewed by Dejaco et al. (2006). Although a similar frequency of Tregs between HNSCC patients and healthy controls is in contrast to the majority of results reported by other cancer publications and previous HNSCC studies (Table 1.8) not all cancer studies report an elevated trend. Similar levels of Tregs were also reported in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and patients with oral SCC (Gasparoto et al., 2010), biochemically progressive and localised prostate cancer (Yokokawa et al., 2008), renal cell carcinoma (Liotta et al., 2010), gastric cancer (Mizukami et al., 2008a) and metastatic melanoma (Viguier et al., 2004).

4.4.2.1 Methodological issues with Treg identification

As there is no single definitive marker for Tregs it is difficult to compare the level of Tregs directly between different cancer studies. Over recent years three main Treg phenotypes have evolved to identify this suppressive T cell population using the extracellular markers CD4, CD25 and more recently the lack of expression of CD127 ($CD4^+CD25^+$, $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ and $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$). It was demonstrated in the current study that by using these different phenotypes varying levels of Tregs in the peripheral circulation were identified, adding complexity to any comparative analysis. The mean frequency of Tregs identified in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients, as a percentage of $CD4^+$ cells, varies between publications from 1.2 to 21% as different phenotypes are employed (Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Schott *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a; Wild *et al.*, 2010).

The level of Tregs detected in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls for the current study was much higher when compared with other cancer publications. For example the CD4⁺CD25⁺ phenotype observed a four-fold increase, and approximately a two-fold increase was seen for Tregs identified by CD4⁺CD25^{high} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} phenotypes in HNSCC patients, in comparison to the majority of other cancer studies. These differences are most likely to be due to the use of different gating strategies, which can vary greatly between research groups, particularly concerning the expression of CD25 as described below. However, sample variation, the clone of monoclonal antibodies used, the intensity of the fluorochrome conjugated to the antibody and the flow cytometer employed may all contribute to variation in the levels of Tregs being reported.

For the current study the mean percentage of $CD4^+$ cells expressing CD25 by healthy controls was 56.82% and Yokokawa and colleagues (2008), using the same gating strategy, also reported a high percentage of $CD4^+$ cells expressing the IL-2 receptor by a healthy control sample (67.7%). However, it is frequently quoted that 10-15% of $CD4^+$ cells express CD25 (Baecher-Allan *et al.*, 2001; Levings *et al.*, 2001), although published reports do vary with a range of 6-40% of $CD4^+$ cells expressing the IL-2 receptor (Dieckmann *et al.*, 2001; Ng *et al.*, 2001; Wing *et al.*, 2002). These discrepancies are likely to be due to the human $CD25^+$ population not being clearly discernible thereby causing variation in the identification of the $CD25^+$ population (Baecher-Allan *et al.*, 2001). In addition, the definition of high levels of CD25 varies, along with how the different populations of CD25 are classified. For example, Strauss and colleagues use a method specific to their research group, identifying $CD25^{\text{high}}$ Tregs as $CD4^+$ cells expressing the IL-2 receptor with a mean fluorescence ≥ 120 . The reason for this being that they observed that only cells above this cut off point had suppressive activity (Strauss *et al.*, 2007b). The current study separated the CD25⁺ population by negative, intermediate and high levels of expression (Figure 4.12a), determining the high level of CD25 expression based on the CD4⁻ population. This strategy was the same as that of Chi *et al.* (2010) who defined their CD25 populations as negative, low and high (Figure 4.12b); with the low expression of CD25 equivalent to the current study's CD25 intermediate population. However, Baecher-Allan *et al.* (2001) and Wing *et al.* (2002) used the same terminology of negative, low and high or CD25⁻, CD25⁺ and CD25⁺⁺, on populations of CD25 cells which had been gated very differently (Figure 4.12c and d) using gates which left gaps in between them, consequently disregarding some CD25⁺ cells, and not clearly stating how the CD25^{high} gate was even identified.



Figure 4.12 Different gating strategies used to identify CD4⁺ T cells expressing varying levels of CD25

Following labelling of a PBMC sample with CD4 and CD25 antibodies and gating of the lymphocyte population, further gates were positioned to identify populations with different levels of CD25 (a) the current study applied a quadrant encompassing CD4⁻CD25⁻ cells in the lower left quadrant and identified CD4⁺CD25^{high} Tregs as CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25 at levels exceeding that expressed by CD4⁻ cells. Cells expressing intermediate levels of CD25 were above the CD25⁻ quadrant marker but below the CD25^{high} gate. (b) Chi *et al.* (2010) used the same gating strategy as the current study. (c) Baecher-Allan *et al.* (2001) identified the CD4⁺CD25^{low} and CD4⁺CD25^{high} populations using the indicated gates. (d) Wing *et al.* (2002) used a contour plot to identify CD25⁺⁺, CD25⁺ and CD25⁻ T cell populations.

Furthermore, although the lack of expression of CD127 has more recently become an identifier of Tregs, there is no agreed gating method for the identification of these suppressive T cells. Cells positive for CD127 provide a definitive population with many of the research groups using the same gating strategy (Shen *et al.*, 2009; Shenghui *et al.*, 2011; 130 Wild *et al.*, 2010) however, by employing this method some CD127^{low/-} Tregs have the same level of CD127 expression as the CD127⁺ effector T cells (Figure 4.13; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Wild *et al.*, 2010). The gating strategy employed by the current study therefore used box gating to consistently distinguish the CD127^{low/-} and CD127⁺ populations (Figure 4.2c).



Level of CD127 expression

Figure 4.13 Identification and isolation of Tregs using the markers CD4, CD25 and CD127

Shen *et al.* (2009) have labelled a PBMC sample with CD3, CD4, CD25 and CD127 antibodies identifying a CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Treg population and a CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127⁺ effector T cell population by flow cytometry. Some CD127^{low/-} Tregs have the same level of CD127 expression as the CD127⁺ effector T cells.

Regardless of the phenotype chosen to identify the Treg population, for some studies the gating strategy is not even shown or described (Boucek *et al.*, 2010; Liotta *et al.*, 2010; Schott *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2010), which makes it unclear how the Treg population was consistently identified between different PBMC samples. The comparison of Treg percentages in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients between studies, is complicated further by research groups reporting the level of Tregs as a percentage of different parameters, such as lymphocytes (Boucek *et al.*, 2010; Schoefer *et al.*, 2005), CD4⁺ cells (Chi *et al.*, 2010; Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010) or CD4⁺CD25⁺ cells (Schott *et al.*, 2007a). However, despite the methodological differences used to enumerate Tregs in different cancer types it is important that the role of Tregs in cancer and

the influence cancer has on the circulating Treg population is clarified, to determine new therapeutic targets and strategies to dampen the immunosuppressive environment created by the tumour and improve patient prognosis.

4.4.2.2 The frequency of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics

It is not surprising that comparison of results between studies looking at cancers arising from distinct locations in the body which differ in aetiology, prognosis and treatment strategies are not consistent as they are highly likely to vary in their influence on the Treg population. Such differences are exemplified well by Ichihara and colleagues (2003) who demonstrated that patients with cancer of the oesophagus had a significantly greater frequency of Tregs compared to patients with gastric cancer. Head and neck tumours arising from different subsites are frequently grouped together in research, but although united by location and histology the different primary sites vary in presentation, pathogenesis and survival, and may therefore also induce different effects on the Treg population. Few studies have compared the prevalence of Tregs between different HNSCC subsites, which may be due to the low number of patients recruited and/or the composition of the patient cohort; for example approximately 50% of the patients (n=18) recruited by Strauss et al. (2007a) had cancer of the oral cavity with the remaining patients having cancer arising from a further four different head and neck subsites, making reliable comparisons difficult. Chikamatsu and colleagues (2007) examined different HNSCC subsites, including cancer of the oral cavity (n=6), oropharynx (n=5), hypopharynx (n=11), larynx (n=17) and paranasal sinuses (n=3) and reported no association between the frequency of Tregs and tumour sites; the percentages for each subsite were not shown. However, a larger study (n=112) conducted by Boucek and colleagues (2010) did show that, although not significant, patients with oropharyngeal cancer from the tonsillar region (n=41) had slightly increased levels of CD4⁺CD25⁺ Tregs (16.2% of lymphocytes) in comparison to patients with cancer of the larynx (n=19; 15% of lymphocytes). This is in agreement with the current study which also observed a non-significant higher percentage of circulating Tregs (CD4⁺CD25⁺) in patients with oropharyngeal cancer in comparison to patients with malignancies arising in the larynx. Further studies with larger cohorts would be needed to conclusively confirm whether tumours arising from different HNSCC primary locations can influence the levels of circulating Tregs.

In this work, the impact of the stage of the tumour on the prevalence of Tregs was also investigated and showed that HNSCC patients with advanced stage tumours had significantly increased levels of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs in comparison to patients with early stage tumours; a trend shared by the CD4⁺CD25^{high} Treg phenotype with the difference approaching significance. Although investigated previously by studies of varying size (n=35-112), no significant differences have been reported by other head and neck studies for levels of Tregs in association with the stage of the tumour (Boucek et al., 2010; Chikamatsu et al., 2007; Strauss et al., 2007a). However, patients with advanced stage tumours of other cancer types have been reported to harbour an increased frequency of circulating Tregs in comparison to patients with early stage tumours in gastric (Mizukami et al., 2008b; Shen et al., 2009), oesophageal (Kono et al., 2006) and renal cancer (Liotta et al., 2010). Patients with tumours that had spread to the lymph nodes had a significantly elevated level of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs in comparison to patients with no nodal involvement and again the same trend was observed by CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells with the difference approaching significance; this is in agreement with results published for gastric cancer (Mizukami et al., 2008b), colorectal cancer (Lin et al., 2012) and transitional cell carcinoma in the urinary system (Zhu et al., 2009). In contrast, no significant difference was observed between the frequency of Tregs and nodal status in HNSCC (Lau et al., 2007; Strauss et al., 2007a). The methodological differences highlighted previously may account for the observed differences however, the results of the current study suggest that increased tumour burden and metastatic spread may be associated with an increased frequency of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients as the tumour continually promotes an immunosuppressive environment. It is unclear however, whether the presence of the regulatory population promotes the growth and spread of the tumour or whether these aspects cause an elevation in Treg frequency.

Head and neck cancer patients positive for the HPV, the majority of which arise from the oropharynx, are associated with better survival in comparison to patients negative for the expression of HPV (Section 1.5.2). A small recent study (n=12) observed no difference between the level of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients positive or negative for the expression of HPV-16, however the number of patients in each

cohort was not reported (Heusinkveld *et al.*, 2012). In contrast, patients with cervical dysplasia and a persistent HPV-16 infection (n=23) had a significantly increased frequency of circulating Tregs compared with patients negative for the expression of HPV-16 (n=24; (Molling *et al.*, 2007). HNSCC studies that have assessed the frequency of peripheral Tregs have not reported the HPV status of their patient cohort (Boucek *et al.*, 2010; Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Schott *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a), and unfortunately the HPV status of the HNSCC patients recruited by the current study was not known so comparisons could not be made.

Comparing results amongst head and neck cancer studies is also difficult due to the patient recruitment strategies employed by different research groups. The current study only recruited newly-presenting patients that had received no previous diagnosis or treatment for cancer, with no active autoimmune or co-existing infectious disease; thereby enabling the direct influence of the head and neck tumour on the Treg population to be assessed. In contrast, several head and neck cancer studies have recruited patients that had received medical intervention (Strauss et al., 2007b), had a recurrence (Schott et al., 2010; Strauss et al., 2007a) and/or were displaying no evidence of disease after curative therapies (Schaefer et al., 2005; Schott et al., 2010; Strauss et al., 2007a), whilst for other studies it was difficult to determine the exact patient recruitment criteria (Gasparoto et al., 2010). Strauss and colleagues (2007a) reported that HNSCC patients with no evidence of disease (NED; n=20) had a significantly higher percentage of Tregs in comparison to patients with active disease (AD; n=15). Further publications have also presented data illustrating the continued elevation of Tregs in some HNSCC patients after curative interventions (Schott et al., 2010; Schuler et al., 2011). Conversely, Schaefer et al. (2005) showed that patients with AD (n=8) and NED (n=11) had similar frequencies of Tregs, this may be due to the size of the study or that different curative therapies exert different long term effects on the Treg population. These results highlight the fact that, when comparing results with different patient recruitment criteria, it is important to consider possible effects of previous therapies as these may have a long term influence on the immune system (Lissoni et al., 2009).

Although the current study observed no differences in the frequency of circulating Tregs between HNSCC patients and healthy controls or HNSCC subsites, the stage and nodal status of the head and neck tumour was shown to influence the level of the peripheral Tregs. The mechanisms driving the expansion of Tregs in cancer patients are not fully understood, although the cause has been attributed to tumour secretions influencing recruitment of Tregs into the tumour, proliferation, and induction of Tregs from naïve precursors, as shown in both murine and human cancer studies (Colombo and Piconese, 2007; Curti *et al.*, 2007; Knutson *et al.*, 2007). In addition to dampening the action of tumour specific effector T cells, Tregs may also suppress tumour specific immunity by blocking the generation of immune responses where tumour antigens are present, for example in the lymph nodes. Elevated levels of Tregs in the tumour draining lymph nodes of cervical (Fattorossi *et al.*, 2004) and gastric cancer (Kawaida *et al.*, 2005) patients have been observed and it is suggested that an increase in the prevalence of Tregs in the peripheral circulation may be partially attributed to the convergence, and subsequent 'spillover', of lymphatics into blood vessels (Knutson *et al.*, 2007).

4.4.3 Prevalence of other T cell subsets in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients

For the HNSCC patient cohort, as a whole, the frequency of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector cells (combination of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell populations), was similar between healthy controls and HNSCC patients. However, patients without nodal involvement and early laryngeal tumours had a significantly higher level of these cells compared to those with nodal involvement and advanced stage tumours of the larynx, respectively. In addition, separating the CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} cells in to the two effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺), revealed that the HNSCC patient cohorts had a higher percentage of activated CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ T cells compared with the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector cells, although, significance was only reached for the patient cohort with nodal involvement. Other studies have assessed the frequency of Tregs in the peripheral circulation, however, it appears that the level of specific effector T cell populations are not examined but instead more general lymphocyte subpopulations are analysed, such as CD3⁺, CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cells (Boucek *et al.*, 2010; Chikamatsu *et al.*, 2007; Lau *et al.*, 2007). Nevertheless, an increase in the frequency of effector T cells in HNSCC patient subgroups could suggest a T cell population attempting

to combat the growth of the tumour, although effectiveness would be determined by the strength of opposing immunosuppressive mechanisms employed by the tumour, including their susceptibility to the activity of Tregs, discussed below.

4.4.4 Assessing the expression of Foxp3 by T cell subsets in HNSCC patients and healthy controls

The forkheadbox transcription factor Foxp3 has been employed by many research groups to confirm and analyse the prevalence of Tregs (Table 1.8). Although the expression of Foxp3 is not solely restricted to the Treg population, the transcription factor is regarded to be one of the most specific Treg markers identified to date (Section 1.12).

The expression of Foxp3 by the Treg phenotypes, CD4⁺CD25⁺, CD4⁺CD25^{high}, CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}, illustrated that in combination with CD25 expression, the CD127^{low/-} Treg phenotypes expressed some of the highest levels of Foxp3, in particular CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} cells; helping to validate the use of the markers CD4, CD25 and CD127 to identify, isolate and assess the suppressive activity of Tregs. Additionally, as expected, the effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) expressed the lowest levels of the transcription factor. For each Treg phenotype the HNSCC patients consistently expressed a higher percentage of Foxp3 in comparison with healthy controls, which is in accordance with several head and neck cancer publications (Lau *et al.*, 2007; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, similar percentages of Foxp3 expression were observed in gastric cancer patients compared with healthy controls (Shen *et al.*, 2009).

The current study observed a positive association between the expression levels of CD25 and Foxp3 for both healthy controls and HNSCC patients with the expression of the transcription factor being over four-fold lower for cells positive for the expression of CD25 (CD4⁺CD25⁺, mean 7.8%) compared with the subset of cells expressing high levels of the IL-2 receptor (CD4⁺CD25^{high}; mean 34%) in patients. This is in agreement with previous publications for gastric cancer patients (Shen *et al.*, 2009) and healthy controls (Liu *et al.*, 2006; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Yokokawa *et al.*, 2008) which all reported an increase in the

percentage of Foxp3 expression as the level of CD25, expressed by CD4⁺ cells increased, although the percentage of cells expressing Foxp3 does vary between studies.

4.4.5 The suppressive activity of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients and healthy controls

Studies reporting an elevation in the frequency of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients would propose that this increase is partly responsible for the suppression of the host's anti-tumour response. Although this may well be the case, it is as important, if not more so, to assess the functional activity of these Tregs, as it is their suppressive capacity, not just their presence, that will determine how effective the host's anti-tumour attack is in combating the growth and progression of the tumour.

The functional activity of Tregs is commonly measured by the level of suppression induced on the proliferation of effector T cells at different Treg:effector T cell ratios. The current study assessed the level of suppression induced at the ratios 1:1. 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 and in agreement with previous publications (Ichihara *et al.*, 2003; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Shen *et al.*, 2010), the proliferation of effector T cells (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) was inhibited in the presence of Tregs (CD4⁺CD25⁻interCD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) in a ratio dependent manner. Although the choice of ratios varies between studies the 1:1 ratio has always been employed, therefore in accordance with this, all suppression experiments in the current study were performed at the 1:1 ratio, and the results from these experiments were used for comparison.

Although the identification of Tregs by the phenotype $CD4^+CD25^+$ results in contamination with activated effector T cells, research groups continue to use this phenotype to isolate cells before assessing their functional activity (Table 4.1). $CD4^+CD25^+$ Tregs isolated from patients with renal cell carcinoma (Liotta *et al.*, 2010), hepatocellular carcinoma (Shen *et al.*, 2010), gastric cancer (Ichihara *et al.*, 2003) and colorectal cancer (Ling *et al.*, 2007) have all been shown to have the capacity to suppress the proliferation of effector T cells, although the level of suppression was not compared with healthy controls. The current study identified and isolated Tregs using the more specific phenotype of low/negative CD127 expression, which is inversely correlated to the expression of Foxp3, as demonstrated by Liu *et al.* (2006) and Seddiki *et al.* (2006). To the

author's knowledge, this is the first investigation to assess the level of suppression induced by CD127^{low/-} Tregs in newly-presenting HNSCC patients compared with healthy controls and also between tumour stage, subsite and nodal status. Two effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) were identified, isolated and used to examine their susceptibility to Treg induced suppression. It has been reported that, in contrast to murine studies, human activated CD4⁺ effector T cells can gain Foxp3 expression (Section 1.12). However, it was shown by this study that CD4⁺ T cells isolated by the CD127^{low/-} phenotype, regardless of CD25 expression, have the ability to suppress the proliferation of both effector T cell populations, confirming that sorting cells on the basis of low expression of CD127 does isolate a suppressive T cell population, from healthy controls and HNSCC patients.

It was observed that Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}), isolated from HNSCC patients, induced a significantly greater level of suppression compared with healthy controls. This is in agreement with previous cancer studies, including head and neck cancer (Table 4.1), where it has been shown that CD4⁺CD25⁺ (n=9, Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; n=5, Lau et al., 2007; n=3, Mandapathil et al., 2009) and CD4⁺CD25^{high} Tregs (n=3, Mandapathil et al., 2009; n=20, Strauss et al., 2007a; n=10, Strauss et al., 2007b) isolated from HNSCC patients induced a significantly higher level of suppression compared with Tregs isolated from healthy controls. It could be suggested that the increased suppressive activity seen in Tregs from HNSCC patients may be due to their elevated percentage of expression of Foxp3 compared with that in Tregs from healthy controls as described earlier. The results however are in contrast to those reported by Chi et al. (2010) who reported similar percentages of suppression in bladder carcinoma patients (n=10) and healthy controls (n=10). In the current study, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from HNSCC patients and healthy controls also induced similar percentages of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells, suggesting that it depends on the Treg and effector T cell populations being investigated.

Although a similar pattern in suppression is mediated by $CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs in this work, compared to other HNSCC studies the level of suppression observed was approximately three fold lower. For example, the percentage of suppression induced by $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs is reported at over 70% by other HNSCC publications (Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Strauss *et al.*, 2007a) whereas here it was determined to be 19-31%. In

contrast, comparing the mean percentage of suppression observed in healthy controls, suppression induced by CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (11.43%) was similar to that reported by Strauss and colleagues (2007) by CD4⁺CD25^{high} Tregs (12%). In prostate cancer, for the same Treg (CD4⁺CD25^{high}) and effector T cell (CD4⁺CD25⁻) phenotypes the percentage of suppression varied from 42 to 65% depending on the type of malignancy (biochemically progressive, localised or metastatic), and healthy controls induced a mean suppression of 31% (Yokokawa et al., 2008). The difference in suppression levels between studies may again be attributed to different tumour sites investigated, but is also likely to be due methodological differences discussed previously, along with the methods employed to determine the percentage of suppression. The methods and analysis used to determine the percentage of suppression does vary greatly between studies, for example the level of proliferation of effector T cells can be determined either through the CFSE assay (Shen et al., 2009; Shenghui et al., 2011; Strauss et al., 2007a) or ^{[3}H] thymidine incorporation (Liotta et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2010; Yokokawa et al., 2008). The length of Treg and effector T cell co-culture incubation varies from 3 (Shen et al., 2010) to 7 days (Shen et al., 2009) and some studies add IL-2 to the co-culture (Shen et al., 2009; Strauss et al., 2007a) whilst others do not (Shenghui et al., 2011; Yokokawa et al., 2008). In addition, although the majority of studies provide stimulation through the use of CD3 and CD28 antibodies these can either be plate bound (Chi et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2009) or soluble (Strauss et al., 2007a). For analysis, some research groups, like the current study, calculate the percentage of suppression (Mandapathil et al., 2009; Strauss et al., 2007a; Yokokawa et al., 2008) whilst others examine the levels of proliferation instead (Lau *et al.*, 2007; Shen *et al.*, 2009; Shen et al., 2010).

4.4.5.1 The suppressive activity of Tregs with regard to clinicopathological characteristics

Few studies have examined the degree of suppression in relation to different clinicopathological parameters in the peripheral circulation of cancer patients; mainly due to their limited cohort size, $n \le 10$ (Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Ichihara *et al.*, 2003; Lau *et al.*, 2007; Liotta *et al.*, 2010; Mandapathil *et al.*, 2009; Shenghui *et al.*, 2011; Strauss *et al.*, 2007b). The current study is one of the largest investigations to assess the suppressive

activity of Tregs in cancer patients (n=28), consequently, it was possible to examine the influence of tumour subsite, stage and nodal status on the suppressive activity of Tregs. No significant differences in the level of suppression between laryngeal and oropharyngeal HNSCC subsites or between early and advanced tumour stages for both CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} Tregs were observed, irrespective of the effector T cell population being suppressed. Although no statistical differences were observed, trends were shown where patients with early stage oropharyngeal cancer may be more suppressive than those with advanced stage cancer of the oropharynx whereas the opposite was noted for the laryngeal cohort; the contradictory nature of these differences would nullify any HNSCC subsite and tumour stage effects. Supporting this idea, CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs isolated from patients with early stage oropharyngeal and advanced stage laryngeal cancer exerted significantly higher levels of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with healthy controls. It may therefore be suggested that the role of Tregs is important at different stages of tumour development depending on the HNSCC subsite.

The results of the current study are in agreement with Strauss *et al.* (2007a) who also observed no significant association between the level of suppression and the stage of the head and neck tumour (n=20). In hepatocellular carcinoma Shen *et al.* (2010) also found no significant differences in the level of suppression between patients with early (n=8) or advanced (n=6) stage tumours. In contrast, Treg suppression was reported to be enhanced in advanced stage gastric cancer patients, but no statistics were presented and the number of patients assessed for suppressive Treg activity was unclear (Shen *et al.*, 2009). Yokokawa *et al.* (2008) showed similar results in prostate cancer.

A significant association between the level of suppression and nodal status was observed; CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs isolated from patients with tumours that had spread to the lymph nodes suppressed the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector cells to a greater degree compared to patients without nodal involvement. It may therefore be suggested that an elevated level of suppression in the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients is associated with metastatic spread and establishment of the tumour in the lymph nodes. It is unclear however, whether the presence of the regulatory population promotes the growth and spread of the tumour or whether nodal involvement causes an increase in Treg functional activity. It should be noted, that a large proportion of the HNSCC patient

cohort had tumours that had spread to the lymph nodes and increasing the number of patients without nodal involvement would help strengthen the association between nodal status and the level of suppression induced. These results are in contrast to the report by Strauss *et al.* (2007a) who showed no significant association between nodal status and the level of suppression in HNSCC, however the number and composition of the patient cohort analysed was unclear.

4.4.5.2 Comparison of the phenotype and suppressive activities of Tregs with intermediate and high expression of CD25

In attempts to refine the identification of a Treg population in humans it has been demonstrated that cells expressing high levels of the IL-2 receptor ($CD4^+CD25^{high}$) have the capacity to inhibit the proliferation of effector T cells, whereas cells expressing intermediate/low levels of CD25 did not possess this suppressive activity (Baecher-Allan *et al.*, 2001; Cesana *et al.*, 2006). It was therefore of interest whether the level of CD25 expression on more precisely-defined CD127^{low/-} Tregs would influence the percentage of suppression induced by Tregs from healthy controls and HNSCC patients. To the author's knowledge assessing suppressive activity by level of CD25 expression on CD127^{low/-} Tregs has not been previously examined in cancer patients.

Transposing, by colour, the T cells identified and isolated by the current study on to a CD4 vs CD25 dot plot, it became apparent that the cells classified solely by their intermediate level of expression of the IL-2 receptor have a substantial contamination of activated T cells (CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) with relatively few CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs; therefore studies which have assessed CD4⁺CD25^{inter} cells for Treg function would be unlikely to have demonstrated suppressive activity (Baecher-Allan *et al.*, 2001; Cesana *et al.*, 2006), this has also been suggested by Seddiki *et al.* (2006). Furthermore, this plot highlighted that Tregs express a lower level of CD4 in comparison to the effector T cell populations, an observation also made by Hoffmann and colleagues (2006b).

The CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Treg population consistently induced a greater level of suppression compared to CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs, reaching significance for healthy controls and a number of different HNSCC patient cohorts on both CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells at the 1:1 ratio. Although

not previously assessed in cancer patients, the level of suppression induced by CD127^{low/-} Tregs separated by CD25 expression has been examined in healthy controls. Even though it was not stated how the levels of CD25 expression were determined and some CD127^{low} T cells have been excluded due to gaps in the gating (Figure 4.14a), Seddiki *et al.* (2006) demonstrated that CD127^{low} T cells expressing high and intermediate/low levels of CD25 both had the capacity to suppress the proliferation of effector T cells to a similar extent, as analysed by ³H thymidine incorporation (Figure 4.14b). Although this is in contrast to the current study's finding, the trend reported by Seddiki and colleagues has also been supported in healthy controls by Lui *et al.* (2006; n=9) and Hartigan-O'Connor *et al.* (2007; n=4).



Figure 4.14 Level of suppression induced by CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter/low} CD127^{low} Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells

(a) Sorting strategy employed by Seddiki *et al.* (2006) to isolate different $CD4^+$ T cell subsets based on the expression of CD25 and CD127^{low}. (b) Following isolation of the populations and co-culture with effector T cells ($CD4^+CD25^-$) at a 1:1 ratio, ³H-thymidine was added to the co-cultures before harvesting 16 hours later to determine ³H-thymidine incorporation.

The current study has highlighted how distinct populations of cells, identified on the basis of expression levels of surface markers, show significantly different biological

effects, however, these cell populations should not be considered as static entities. For instance Hartigan-O'Connor and colleagues (2007) suggested that the CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} cells may contain precursors to fully activated CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs, and demonstrated during 64 hours of stimulation that the CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} cells up regulated the expression of CD25 and Foxp3, coupled with down regulation of CD127; unfortunately the same procedure was not conducted on the CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} population. Thus it is conceivable that the Treg populations could develop during assay incubation periods and acquire or lose functional capabilities.

The percentage of Foxp3 expression by CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs was found to be lower than in the CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} population, however, it would be of interest to determine whether over the 96 hours of co-culture, during the CFSE assay, the CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs up regulate their expression of CD25 and Foxp3 and whether the level of Foxp3 expression exceeds that in the CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} cells, thereby correlating to the higher level of suppression observed. Unfortunately time restraints did not allow for these experiments to be conducted. If the CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} phenotype identifies a population of cells with the potential to become highly suppressive in HNSCC patients, the prevalence of this population would provide a useful prognostic marker. A higher frequency of CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs could lead to elevated suppression of the host's anti tumour response and would allow continued growth and progression of the tumour. In contrast increased levels of Tregs have been associated with increased survival for some cancer types (Section 1.13); conducting a retrospective study would indicate whether the CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Treg population has the potential to become a prognostic marker in predicting the chance of recurrence and overall survival in HNSCC.

4.4.5.3 Comparison of effector T cells susceptibility to Treg induced suppression

The level of suppression induced by Tregs on the two different effector T cell populations isolated was investigated. In the HNSCC patient cohorts, CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells were found to be more susceptible to the suppressive activity of both CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} Tregs in comparison to the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ population, however this only reached significance for patients with oropharyngeal cancer. It would therefore be interesting to assess, in particular for oropharyngeal cancer patients, whether a

higher proportion of activated CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ cells, that are attempting to combat the growth of the tumour and are less susceptible to the suppressive actions of Tregs, are associated with improved patient prognosis.

4.4.6 Conclusion

The difficulties in directly comparing the frequency and level of suppression induced by Tregs between cancer studies due to methodological differences have been highlighted. However, despite these differences, it is still important that within studies comparisons are made between cancer patients and healthy controls and different clinicopathological features to clarify the role of Tregs in specific cancer types. This will help to find new therapeutic targets and establish whether circulating Tregs can be used to determine patient prognosis. The current study has investigated and compared the differences surrounding the frequency and suppressive function of Tregs in the peripheral circulation of healthy controls and HNSCC patients and the influence of tumour stage, subsite and nodal status.

The level of Tregs was similar between HNSCC patients and healthy controls however, CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from HNSCC patients exerted a significantly greater level of suppression in comparison with the healthy controls. In contrast, tumour stage was not observed to influence the suppressive activity of Tregs however, a higher level of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs was demonstrated in patients with advanced stage tumours; this suggests that although similar in functional capacity, a greater level of suppression may have been induced in patients with advanced stage tumours compared with early stage tumours due to the increased frequency of the suppressive T cell No significant differences were observed for frequency or levels of population. suppression between tumour subsites, whilst patients with nodal involvement were shown to harbour an increased prevalence of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs that also had greater suppressive activity, compared to patients with no nodal involvement. The current study has therefore highlighted the importance of assessing both the frequency and functional capacity of Tregs in HNSCC patients which need to be precisely defined in terms of their clinicopathology. At present, either or both of these parameters could be used to provide an indication of patient prognosis.

Chapter 5.

Phenotype, frequency and suppressive activity of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients

5.1 Introduction

Whilst investigations in to the peripheral circulation of cancer patients offer an indication of the effects the tumour is exerting upon the host, direct examination of the tumour microenvironment provides a detailed insight into the localised anti-tumour immune responses mediated by the host and the immune evasion strategies influenced by the tumour. The tumour microenvironment consists of a complex network of epithelial cells, stroma, chemical secretions, vascular and lymphatic vessels, and a plethora of infiltrating immune cells (Fridman *et al.*, 2012), whose actions range from promotion to inhibition of tumour growth and progression. It is thought to be the balance of the types of immune cells present which contribute to the overall immune response and thus patient outcome (Simonson and Allison, 2011). To further understand the head and neck tumour microenvironment, this study has investigated the prevalence of different $CD4^+$ T cell populations and the suppressive activity of Tregs infiltrating HNSCC in relation to the peripheral circulation and tumour subsite.

To suppress tumour growth and development the host's anti-tumour attack is driven predominantly by two T lymphocyte subsets, IFN- γ producing CD4⁺ helper cells and cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells, with the role of inhibiting and eradicating tumour cells thus promoting tumour reduction (Zamarron and Chen, 2011). Publications have reported the presence of tumour specific T cells in several cancer types (Andersen *et al.*, 2005; Junker *et al.*, 2012; Nagorsen *et al.*, 2005; Novellino *et al.*, 2005), particularly in melanoma patients where research is focusing on their use in adoptive T cell therapy (Besser *et al.*, 2010; Dudley *et al.*, 2008; Restifo *et al.*, 2012). However, these anti-tumour lymphocyte subsets are challenged with numerous evasion strategies thought to be orchestrated at least in part by the tumour itself. For example in HNSCC both circulating and tumour infiltrating T cells have been shown to be functionally impaired and more susceptible to apoptosis, consequently compromising the host's anti-tumour response (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2004; Reichert *et al.*, 2002).

CD4⁺ effector T cells secreting IFN- γ and tumour necrosis factor (TNF) are regarded as T-helper 1 cells (Th1) that favour the host by promoting the actions of cellmediated immunity [CD8⁺ T cells, NK cells, antigen presenting cells] and consequently tumour destruction. However, depending upon the conditions, CD4⁺ effector T cells can

also differentiate into T-helper 2 cells (Th2) which favour a more humoral antibody mediated immune response and are characterised by the secretion of IL-4, IL-6 and IL-10. These cytokines have been associated with immune suppression and inhibition of tumour cell apoptosis (Pries and Wollenberg, 2006; Simonson and Allison, 2011) and a partial bias towards a Th2 cytokine profile has been reported in the plasma of HNSCC patients (Lathers and Young, 2004), which would logically favour tumour growth. In addition, the infiltration of CD4⁺ Tregs into the tumour is also thought to promote an immunosuppressive environment, with the ability to suppress T cell activation, proliferation and function (Shevach, 2009). In numerous cancer types, including HNSCC, the proportion of Tregs in the infiltrating lymphocyte population has been shown to be increased compared with non-malignant tissue and the peripheral circulation of patients (see below), however their relationship to patient prognosis is not entirely clear. A further CD4⁺ effector T cell subset secreting the cytokine IL-17 has recently been discovered, Thelper 17 cells (Th17). However, their role in cancer is currently not fully understood as Th17 cells have been shown to reduce tumour cell proliferation but also up regulate angiogenesis-promoting factors in HNSCC (Kesselring et al., 2010); which effect will predominate is unclear.

T lymphocytes are not the only immune cells that infiltrate the tumour microenvironment, NK cells also aid the anti-tumour immune response by targeting tumour cells that have down regulated the expression of MHC class I molecules in attempts to prevent host immune recognition (Simonson and Allison, 2011). Macrophages too are recruited to the cancerous mass by the secretion of a number of chemokines by tumour cells. Similar to the CD4⁺ Th1/Th2 division, macrophages can also be divided by their functional characteristics with M1 macrophages assisting the host's anti-tumour response and M2 macrophages promoting tumour growth and the creation of an immunosuppressive environment (Duray *et al.*, 2010).

The tumour is also thought to suppress anti-tumour immune responses by directly secreting immunosuppressive factors such as TGF- β and IL-10, which act to inhibit antitumour immune actions, encourage tumour cell survival and assist in the generation of Tregs (Zamarron and Chen, 2011). The secretion of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and TGF- β can also stimulate MDSC which possess a wide range of actions that promote tumour cell invasion and angiogenesis as well as influencing the actions of immune cells by driving $CD4^+$ Th2 and Treg differentiation, suppressing T cell proliferation, function and inducing T cell apoptosis (Tong *et al.*, 2012). It is therefore the balance of all these immune cells and their secretions, immune attack and suppression, that influence the success or failure of an anti-tumour response.

The infiltration of lymphocytes into the tumour microenvironment has been assessed by many research groups in several different cancer types, including HNSCC, in attempts to predict patient prognosis (Distel *et al.*, 2009; Grabenbauer *et al.*, 2006; Pretscher *et al.*, 2009; Sato *et al.*, 2005; Zingg *et al.*, 2010), however there are conflicting reports over whether the presence of tumour infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL) are associated with positive or negative prognosis, or of no relevance at all. Additionally, dividing and assessing the infiltrating lymphocyte population by subset still results in conflicting reports for different cancer types, with the presence of Tregs found to be both positively and negatively prognostic in various cancer types (Table 1.9).

The majority of studies assessing the infiltration of Tregs into the tumour use immunohistochemical detection of the most specific Treg marker found to date, Foxp3 (Kobayashi *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Salama *et al.*, 2009). The same method was used to confirm the presence of infiltrating Tregs in the HNSCC samples investigated in the current study. However, as discussed in Chapter 4, identification of Tregs confirms the presence of a suppressive T cell subset but does not assess their functional activity.

Studies identifying Tregs in isolated TIL have shown that the proportion of Tregs in the lymphocyte population is elevated compared with non-malignant tissue (Table 5.1) and the peripheral circulation (Table 5.2).

Table 5.1Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of Tregsinfiltrating malignant tissue compared with non-malignant tissue from cancer patients

Cancer Type	Treg phenotype	Mean percentage of Tregs in malignant	Mean percentage of Tregs in non- malignant	Reference
		tissue	tissue	
Colorectal	CD4 ⁺ Foxp3 ⁺	10.4	4.7	Lin <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Oesophageal	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ Foxp3 ⁺	24.6	7.1	Maruyama <i>et al.</i> (2010a)
Hepatocellular	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high}	8.5	5.5	Shen <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Hepatocellular	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ Foxp3 ⁺	14.2	5.3	Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Gastric	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ Foxp3 ⁺	12.4	4.1	Mizukami <i>et al.</i> (2008a)
Colorectal	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺	15.2	4.8	Ling <i>et al.</i> (2007)

Table 5.2Representative studies demonstrating increased prevalence of Tregsinfiltrating malignant tissue compared with the peripheral circulation of cancerpatients

Cancer Type	Treg phenotype	Mean	Mean percentage of	Reference
		of Tregs in	Tregs in the	
		malignant	peripheral	
		tissue	circulation	
Hepatocellular	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} Foxp3 ⁺	2.6	2.0	Feng et al.
Bladder	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high}	15.4	8.7	(2011) Chi <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Renal	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ Foxp3 ⁺	6.5	3.5	Liotta <i>et al</i> .
Renal	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} Foxp3 ⁺	2.6	0.4	(2010) Attig <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Breast	$CD4^+CD25^{high}$	27.9	6.12	Gobert et al.
Gastric	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	21.08	7.77	(2009) Shen <i>et al.</i> (2009)
HNSCC	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁺	13	3	Strauss et al.
HNSCC	$CD4^+CD25^{high}$	3	1	(2007b) Strauss <i>et al.</i> (2007b)

For the studies that have proceeded to isolate the infiltrating regulatory population, it has been reported that these Tregs are functionally suppressive in HNSCC, (Strauss *et al.*, 2007b), bladder (Chi et al., 2010), ovarian (Curiel et al., 2004), breast (Gobert et al., 2009), colon (Kryczek et al., 2009), renal (Liotta et al., 2010), lung (Woo et al., 2002), colorectal (Ling et al., 2007) and hepatocellular (Zhou et al., 2009) cancer. However, there are only limited investigations which have determined whether the presence of tumour both elevates the percentage of Tregs infiltrating the cancerous mass and influences Treg suppressive capacity, by comparing the suppressive activity of the circulating Treg population and that of the infiltrating population (Chi et al., 2010; Strauss et al., 2007b). In addition, when comparisons have been made between the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment, for either phenotype or functional activity of Tregs, the two sample cohorts have not always consisted of the same patients (Gobert et al., 2009; Strauss et al., 2007b; Woo et al., 2001). Therefore, to further elucidate the role of tumour Tregs in head and neck cancer, the current investigation first identified the presence of Tregs within HNSCC from different tumour subsites using Foxp3 immunohistochemistry. The frequency and suppressive activity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs from the tumour microenvironment were subsequently examined and compared with Tregs from the patient's corresponding PBMC samples; ensuring that clinicopathological parameters that could influence the Treg population, such as tumour stage, subsite and nodal status, remained constant. However, it was considered that the microenvironment of the tumour may influence the infiltrating effector T cells susceptibility to be suppressed in vitro due to having already been suppressed by Tregs or numerous other immunosuppressive mechanisms in vivo, consequently masking the full functional capacity of tumour infiltrating Tregs. To assess this, tumour infiltrating Tregs were co-cultured with autologous effector T cells from both the tumour and peripheral circulation.

To the author's knowledge, tumour infiltrating Tregs with the CD127^{low/-} phenotype have not previously been identified, isolated or assessed for functional activity in newly-presenting HNSCC patients. It was hypothesised that there would be a higher percentage of Tregs in the tumour compared with the peripheral circulation, and that the infiltrating Treg population would possess greater functional capacity due to the local influence of the tumour microenvironment and the tumour's requirement to continually promote an immunosuppressive environment.

5.2 Materials and methods

5.2.1 HNSCC patients

Following ethical (Yorkshire and the Humber research ethics committee; REC reference 10/H1304/7 and 10/H1304/8) and NHS Trust R and D (R0988 and R0986) approval, and obtaining written informed consent, newly-presenting HNSCC patients were recruited on to the study. HNSCC tumour sections (n=67) were used to examine the infiltration of Foxp3⁺ cells by immunohistochemistry, whilst a separate cohort of HNSCC patients provided 38 tumour specimens. Of these, 6 samples were used for the optimisation of TIL isolation. Due to the low number of cells isolated from dissociation and cell sorting, and poor staining of TIL by flow cytometry, 17 tumour samples were assessed for the suppressive activity of infiltrating Tregs (Figure 5.1).



Figure 5.1 CONSORT diagram to illustrate the tumour samples that were analysed for phenotype and assessed for Treg function

Tumour samples (n=38) were obtained to analyse the phenotype of specific T cell subsets and assess Treg function in the tumour microenvironment. However, due to optimisation, the number of TIL isolated by dissociation and cell sorting, poor staining of the TIL and the success of the CFSE assay not all tumour samples could be examined for these parameters.

5.2.2 Staining of HNSCC sections for infiltrating Foxp3⁺ cells by immunohistochemistry

Formalin fixed, paraffin embedded HNSCC specimens were immunostained with a mouse monoclonal Foxp3 primary antibody (1:200 dilution; Clone 236A/E7, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) using the method described in detail in Section 2.11. Following staining, the sections were mounted with a coverslip using Histomount (National Diagnostics) and prepared for analysis to assess the presence of Foxp3⁺ cells within the head and neck tumour microenvironment.

5.2.3 Quantification of HNSCC sections stained for Foxp3⁺ cells

As outlined in Section 2.11.1, positive immunostaining was identified and photographed in 5 high powered fields from both the tumour-associated stroma and the tumour nests of HNSCC specimens using a light microscope (400x magnification) and Image J software. An overall mean score from two independent assessors for each compartment and HNSCC specimen was determined.

5.2.4 Isolation of TIL from HNSCC specimens

Infiltrating tumour lymphocytes were isolated from HNSCC specimens as outlined in Section 2.14. Briefly following removal of fat, blood or necrotic areas, freshly isolated tumour specimens were weighed, cut into small pieces using scalpels and following an antibiotic wash were dissociated for 2-4 hours at 37°C in medium containing 0.02% (w/v) DNase (Roche Diagnostics) and 0.02% (w/v) collagenase (Sigma) whilst under constant rotation. Dissociated tumour fragments were subsequently washed in medium and plated overnight to enable the majority of fibroblasts, epithelial cells and monocytes to adhere to the plastic (Section 2.14). The medium, containing TIL that had not adhered overnight, was collected the following morning and cells were isolated by centrifugation for immediate use in FACS to isolate and assess the suppressive function of Tregs, or frozen down for use at a later date (Section 2.14.1).

5.2.5 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in TIL and the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

Thawed or freshly isolated TIL (Section 2.14) and thawed PBMC samples (Section 2.13), donated by HNSCC patients, were labelled with a Treg sorting cocktail (anti-CD4, anti-CD25 and anti-CD127; BD Biosciences) to enable the isolation of regulatory and effector T cell populations by FACS for use in subsequent assessment of Treg function (Section 2.16). As outlined in Chapter 4 (Section 4.2.2), the gating strategy used by FACS made it possible to examine the prevalence of CD4⁺ cells (Figure 4.2a), CD4⁺CD25⁺, CD4⁺CD25^{inter} and CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells (Figure 4.2b), Tregs and effector T cells (Figure 4.2c) in the TIL and where available the patient's corresponding PBMC sample.

5.2.6 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients using a CFSE assay

Immediately following isolation by FACS (Section 2.16) Tregs from 17 tumour specimens were examined for suppressive activity on the proliferation of autologous tumour effector T cells via a CFSE assay (Section 2.18). Of these, 15 tumour samples had corresponding PBMC samples and the suppressive activity of Tregs from the periphery and tumour were simultaneously assessed for suppressive function on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells via various co-culture combinations (Figure 5.2).



Figure 5.2 Diagram to illustrate the co-culture combinations of tumour infiltrating and peripheral Tregs and effector T cells

The concentration and cell viability of each isolated population was determined using trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4) to establish whether sufficient cells had been obtained to set up the CFSE assays. In the majority of cases the CFSE assay was run with 5 x 10^4 effector T cells cultured in each well of a 96 well plate (Section 2.18). However, when insufficient cells were isolated the number of effector cells plated was successfully scaled down to 1.5 x 10^4 /well. The CFSE assay was set up and analysed as outlined in Section 4.2.4 with the 1:1 ratio always prepared and the remaining ratios (Treg:effector T cell, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10) set up where possible. Percentages of suppression were calculated based on the proliferation indexes determined by ModFit LTTM software (Verity Software House, Section 2.19).

5.2.7 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 19; the normality of the data was assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Statistical tests were performed as outlined in

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from the tumour or peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients were co-cultured with CFSE labelled autologous effector T cells (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) from either the periphery or tumour microenvironment at a 1:1 ratio for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs.

Section 4.2.5, depending on the distribution of data and whether independent or dependent data sets were being analysed. Values were considered significant when p<0.05.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Identification of Foxp3⁺ cells infiltrating the tumours of head and neck cancer patients

Paraffin embedded sections of HNSCC specimens (n=67; Table 5.3) were immunostained for Foxp3 to confirm the infiltration Tregs in both the tumour-associated stroma and the tumour nests. The infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells, in both compartments, was assessed and related to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status.

Characteristics	Number	
HNSCC patients sex and age		
Male	56	
Female	11	
Total	67	
Mean age (years)	63	
Age range (years)	30-92	
Tumour stage		
Early (T1 and T2)	36*	
Advanced (T3 and T4)	30*	
Tumour site		
Laryngeal	42	
Oropharyngeal	25	
Tumour stage and site		
Early laryngeal	21	
Advanced laryngeal	21	
Early oropharyngeal	15*	
Advanced oropharyngeal	9*	
Nodal status		
Negative (N0)	33	
Positive (N ⁺)	34	

Table 5.3Clinicopathological features of HNSCC patients whose tumour specimenswere assessed for Foxp3⁺ cell infiltration

* One oropharyngeal tumour was of unknown T stage

In the whole HNSCC patient cohort, significantly more Foxp3 staining was observed in the tumour-associated stroma compared with that in the tumour nests (p<0.001; Figure 5.3); dividing the patient group by tumour stage, subsite and nodal status maintained this significant trend (p≤0.001).



Figure 5.3 Immunohistochemical staining for Foxp3 in HNSCC specimens Formalin fixed and paraffin embedded sections of HNSCC specimens were immunostained with a monoclonal mouse anti-human Foxp3 antibody (clone 236A/E7) at a 1:200 dilution and the infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells was assessed in five fields of stroma and five fields of tumour nests. Brown staining indicates cells positive for Foxp3 and the blue is haematoxylin counterstain (x400 magnification).

The infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells into both the stroma and tumour was similar between tumour stages and nodal involvement (Table 5.4). However, when comparing different head and neck subsites, patients with cancer of the oropharynx had a significantly greater infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells compared to patients with laryngeal cancer in both the stroma and tumour (Table 5.4).

	Foxp3 positive staining	
Cohort	Stroma	Tumour
HNSCC patients (n=67)	55.27 ± 5.17	5.58 ± 0.95
Early stage (n=36) Advanced stage (n=30) <i>p</i> value	59.25 ± 7.43 51.12 ± 7.36 0.48	5.43 ± 1.24 5.64 ± 1.53 0.47
Laryngeal (n=42) Oropharyngeal (n=25) <i>p</i> value	$\begin{array}{c} 43.80 \pm 6.15 \\ 74.52 \pm 7.99 \\ \textbf{0.002} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.25 \pm 0.59 \\ 9.51 \pm 2.16 \\ \textbf{0.002} \end{array}$
Early laryngeal (n=21) Advanced laryngeal (n=21) <i>p</i> value	$\begin{array}{c} 48.23 \pm 9.74 \\ 39.38 \pm 7.62 \\ 0.82 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.07 \pm 0.75 \\ 3.42 \pm 0.93 \\ 0.95 \end{array}$
Early oropharyngeal (n=15)* Advanced oropharyngeal (n=9)* <i>p</i> value	$74.68 \pm 10.61 \\78.51 \pm 13.48 \\0.39$	8.73 ± 2.61 10.80 ± 4.31 0.88
N0 (n=33) N ⁺ (n=34) p value	$\begin{array}{c} 49.31 \pm 7.03 \\ 61.04 \pm 7.54 \\ 0.30 \end{array}$	5.30 ± 1.56 5.86 ± 1.13 0.40

Table 5.4 Mean score of Foxp3⁺ cells infiltrating the stroma and tumour of HNSCC sections in relation to tumour stage, subsite and nodal status

Values mean score \pm SEM

Mann-Whitney U test. Results in bold considered significant when p < 0.05* One oropharyngeal tumour was of unknown T stage

5.3.2 Optimising the isolation of TIL from HNSCC

To assess the frequency and function of Tregs infiltrating the tumours of head and neck cancer patients the method of isolating TIL from the tumour specimens firstly had to be established.

Work had previously been carried out on HNSCC tissue by another PhD student in the research group assessing the expression of integrins on tumour cells in relation to metastasis, which required the disaggregation of head and neck tumour specimens (Woods *et al.*, 2011). The optimal concentration of enzymes required to dissociate tumour samples and preserve integrin expression had been determined, including using the enzymes collagenase type IV (0.02%; w/v) and DNase type I (0.02%; w/v); these concentrations

were used in order to preserve the expression of lymphocyte markers, CD4, CD25 and CD127.

The limiting factor in assessing the suppressive activity of Tregs infiltrating the tumour microenvironment was cell number, therefore it was important to do everything possible to maximise this. It was shown that trying to identify the lymphocyte population by flow cytometry immediately following dissociation was very difficult due to the presence of numerous cell types including epithelial cells and fibroblasts (Figure 5.4a). Therefore to provide a more defined lymphocyte population, the dissociated tumour fragments were cultured overnight to enable the epithelial cells, fibroblasts and monocytes to adhere to the culture flask leaving non-adherent cells, including TIL, remaining in suspension. As illustrated by Figure 5.4b this provided a more clearly defined lymphocyte population. Although the comparison between immediate use and overnight culture was assessed for only one HNSCC specimen, employing the overnight method consistently generated a population of TIL that could be more clearly identified throughout the study (Figure 5.4c).


Figure 5.4 Identifying the TIL population by flow cytometry

Immediately following dissociation of a HNSCC specimen $1 \ge 10^6$ cells were acquired using the FACSAria II to identify the TIL population (a). The remaining cell suspension was cultured overnight and the following day the medium, containing TIL, was collected and $1 \ge 10^6$ cells were acquired again by flow cytometry to identify a clearer lymphocyte population (b). The same overnight procedure was used for subsequent specimens throughout the study, a representative of which is shown in the last plot (c).

To maximise the number of TIL that could be isolated, tumour specimens (primary tumour site; n=1, tumour infiltrated lymph node samples; n=3) were initially dissociated overnight, as this length of time visibly reduced the size of the tumour fragments, indicating continued disaggregation of the tissue samples. However, although overnight dissociation isolated a good number of TIL, it also resulted in the reduced expression of the lymphocyte markers CD4, CD25 and CD127, which are required to assess the prevalence of specific T cell populations and for the isolation of Tregs and effector T cells by FACS.

It was therefore essential to establish a length of dissociation that would isolate a good number of TIL whilst also maintaining the expression of lymphocyte markers. The dissociation time was determined by dividing one HNSCC specimen into three and disaggregating for two hours, four hours and overnight before phenotypically analysing for the expression of lymphocyte markers by labelling the cells with the Treg sorting cocktail. Using both two and four hours of dissociation (Figure 5.5a and b, respectively) the level of CD4 expression was similar, both clearly showing a population of lymphocytes that could be identified by their positive expression of CD4. However, following the overnight dissociation there was a loss in CD4 expression that made it very difficult to distinguish a CD4⁺ lymphocyte population (Figure 5.5c); this experiment demonstrated that an appropriate length of dissociation for a HNSCC specimen was 2-4 hours. Although the time course experiment was only performed on one HNSCC sample, dissociating the head and neck tumour samples for 2-4 hours consistently produced TIL populations that could be gated by CD4, CD25 and CD127 expression.



Figure 5.5 Dot plots showing an appropriate length of dissociation for HNSCC specimens in terms of CD4 expression

An HNSCC specimen was divided into three and dissociated for 2 hours (a), 4 hours (b) and overnight (c) before being labelled with an anti-CD4 PerCP-Cy5.5 antibody. The isolated TIL populations were gated and following doublet discrimination the resulting single cell lymphocyte populations from the three different dissociation time points were assessed for the expression of CD4.

During the optimisation of the dissociation protocol it was observed that, although dissociating head and neck tumour samples for 2-4 hours generated a clear lymphocyte population positive for the expression of CD4, the level of expression varied more in TIL (Figure 5.6a) compared with that in the lymphocyte population isolated from the peripheral circulation (Figure 5.6b). Additionally the level of expression of CD4 by the peripheral lymphocyte population tended to be much higher.



Figure 5.6 Expression of CD4 by TIL isolated from HNSCC tissue and HNSCC patient peripheral blood

(a) TIL and (b) PBMC samples from the same HNSCC patient were labelled with an anti-CD4-PerCP.Cy5.5 antibody and following gating of the lymphocyte population and doublet discrimination the resulting single cell lymphocyte populations were assessed for CD4 expression.

5.3.3 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment

Lymphocytes isolated from 27 tumour samples were labelled with a Treg sorting cocktail to be characterised phenotypically using flow cytometry (Figure 5.1). However, due to the poor staining of the lymphocyte population in some instances 6 samples were unable to be analysed and upon subsequent examination of clinical information it was found that 2 of the patients recruited on to the study had previously received therapy for HNSCC, these patients were removed from the analysis as they did not meet the recruitment criteria (Section 2.12). The remaining 19 tumour specimens consisted of 4 samples from the primary tumour site and 15 nodal samples that had SCC involvement

(Table 5.5), due to this the samples were initially analysed as two separate groups (primary tumour and tumour infiltrated nodes) to account for the influences the different microenvironments may have had on the frequency of various T cell subsets.

Characteristics	Primary tumour	Tumour infiltrated
	samples	lymph node samples
HNSCC patient sex and age		
Male	4	12
Famala		3
Total	0	15
	4	
Mean age (years)	JO.J 41 70	
Age range (years)	41-78	41-84
Tumour stage		
Early (T1 and T2)	0	4
Advanced (T3 and T4)	4	8
Unknown	0	3
-		
Tumour site		
Larynx	3	6
Oropharynx	0	6
Hypopharynx	1	1
Unknown	0	2
Tumour stage and site		
Early larvnx	0	0*
Advanced larvnx	3	5*
Early oropharynx	0	4
Advanced oropharynx	0	2
Other/Unknown	1	4
Nodal status		
Negative	0	0
Positive	4	15

Table 5.5Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients whose TIL were
phenotypically characterised from primary tumours and tumour infiltrated nodes

* The tumour stage of one of the laryngeal samples was not recorded

5.3.3.1 Assessing the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and primary tumour microenvironment

The frequency of T cell subsets in the lymphocyte population isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes was analysed with regard to tumour subsite (larynx and oropharynx). Lymphocytes isolated from resected lymph nodes taken from patients with cancer of the larynx had a slightly higher proportion of lymphocytes expressing CD4 and CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25⁺CD127^{low/-}, together with a lower frequency of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector T cells, compared to patients with oropharyngeal cancer, however these differences did not reach significance (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in tumour infiltratedlymph nodes in relation to tumour subsite

		Col	Cohort		
т	cell phenotypes	Laryngeal	Oropharyngeal	<i>p</i> value	
1	cen phenotypes	(n=6)	(n=6)		
	Percentage of				
	lymphocytes	46.55 ± 5.35	40.47 ± 4.07	0.39	
	expressing CD4				
	CD25 ⁺	66.95 ± 4.45	64.2 ± 3.12	0.62	
lls	CD25 ^{inter}	46.58 ± 6.45	45.78 ± 5.600	0.93	
ce	$\text{CD25}^{\text{high}}$	20.37 ± 3.83	18.42 ± 2.81	0.69	
⁺ 4 ω					
Sin	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	38.00 ± 2.62	31.75 ± 1.63	0.07	
of res	CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	19.22 ± 2.08	15.25 ± 1.68	0.17	
ıge	CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	18.78 ± 3.73	16.50 ± 2.36	0.62	
e e					
rce	CD25 ^{-/+} CD127 ^{-/+}	62.37 ± 2.49	68.43 ± 1.87	0.08	
Pe	CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	33.47 ± 4.48	34.62 ± 2.73	0.83	
	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺	28.90 ± 5.79	33.82 ± 4.21	0.51	

Values mean percentage \pm SEM Unpaired student's t test CD25⁺ is the sum of CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} is the sum of CD25^{inter} CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} is the sum of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD25⁺CD127⁺

exemplified in Figure 4.2

The majority of the primary tumour specimens in this small cohort were from patients with advanced stage cancer that had arisen from the larynx (Table 5.5) and therefore tumour subsite and stage comparisons within the primary tumour cohort could not

be made. However, the frequency of T cell subsets within primary tumour and tumour infiltrated lymph nodes, were compared. The percentage of $CD4^+$ lymphocytes was slightly higher in the lymph nodes compared with the primary tumours however, this difference was again not significant and the prevalence of the other T cell subsets were similar between the two sample groups (Table 5.7).

		Coł		
т	coll phonotypes	Primary tumour	Lymph node	<i>p</i> value
1	cen phenotypes	samples (n=4)	samples (n=15)	
	Percentage of			
	lymphocytes	36.30 ± 7.31	42.51 ± 3.05	0.38
	expressing CD4			
	CD25 ⁺	64.33 ± 8.65	65.21 ± 2.17	0.48
lls	CD25 ^{inter}	41.40 ± 6.61	44.29 ± 3.59	0.71
ce	$\text{CD25}^{\text{high}}$	22.93 ± 6.78	20.93 ± 2.11	0.76
⁺ 4 ω				
Sin	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	39.80 ± 7.84	36.07 ± 6.52	0.75
of res	CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	18.65 ± 1.68	16.93 ± 1.19	0.97
ıge	CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	21.15 ± 7.07	19.14 ± 1.98	0.65
e				
rce	CD25 ^{-/+} CD127 ^{-/+}	61.30 ± 8.20	64.27 ± 1.69	0.67
Pe	CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	34.83 ± 8.59	34.58 ± 2.10	0.50
	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺	26.48 ± 6.67	29.69 ± 3.10	0.80

Table 5.7Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in primary tumourand tumour infiltrated lymph node samples

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Unpaired student's t test or Mann-Whitney U test. $CD25^+$ is the sum of $CD25^{inter}$ and $CD25^{high}$ $CD25^+CD127^{low/-}$ is the sum of $CD25^{inter} CD127^{low/-}$ and $CD25^{high} CD127^{low/-}$ $CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+}$ is the sum of $CD25^-CD127^{-/+}$ and $CD25^+CD127^+$ exemplified in Figure 4.2

5.3.3.2 Comparison of the phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

As there were no statistically significant differences for the frequency of different T cell subsets between the primary tumour and tumour infiltrated lymph node samples, the two cohorts were combined to compare the prevalence of T cell subsets between the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation. The entire primary tumour cohort (n=4) and 11 of the tumour infiltrated lymph node specimens had samples from both the tissue and

the peripheral circulation available for analysis. The T cell subsets from different locations were also compared with regard to tumour subsite, larynx (n=8) and oropharynx (n=5); due to the low number of tumour samples from patients with cancer of the hypopharynx (n=2) this subsite was not statistically assessed.

The percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 and the frequency of CD4⁺ cells expressing CD25 was similar for the tumour and PBMC cohorts, as a whole, and when divided by tumour subsite (Table 5.8). However, the frequency of CD4⁺ cells expressing intermediate levels of the IL-2 receptor (CD25^{inter}) in the peripheral circulation was significantly elevated compared with that in the tumour microenvironment, this trend was also observed in both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal sample cohort however, these differences did not reach significance. In contrast, the prevalence of CD4⁺CD25^{high} cells was significantly increased in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation; this trend was also shown in individual tumour subsites however, significance was again not met (Table 5.8).

The frequency of CD127^{low/-} Tregs, irrespective of the level of CD25 expression, was significantly elevated in the tumour microenvironment compared with the PBMC samples (Table 5.9). This significant trend was also observed in the laryngeal cohort when the HNSCC patients were divided by subsite. For patients with cancer of the oropharynx the same trend was shown but only reached significance for CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (Table 5.9).

The frequency of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector T cells was found to be significantly elevated in the peripheral circulation, as a whole, compared with the tumour microenvironment, irrespective of tumour subsite. Dividing the CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} population into the two effector populations revealed that it was the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ cells which were significantly increased in the peripheral circulation compared with the tumour microenvironment. This was observed for both tumour subsites analysed but only reached significance for the patients whose primary tumour arose from the larynx (Table 5.9).

Table 5.8Percentage of cells expressing specific T cell markers in the tumour microenvironment and corresponding PBMCsamples in relation to tumour subsite

		Percentag	e of CD4 ⁺ cells	expressing
Cohort	Percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4	CD25 ⁺	CD25 ^{inter}	CD25 ^{high}
Tumour samples (n=15)	42.13 ± 3.18	66.09 ± 2.88	47.29 ± 3.16	18.80 ± 2.13
PBMC samples (n=15)	43.77 ± 1.86	69.56 ± 3.41	58.43 ± 3.06	11.13 ± 0.87
<i>p</i> value	0.59	0.45	0.03	0.002
Laryngeal tumour (n=8)	42.49 ± 5.32	66.14 ± 5.01	48.35 ± 4.45	17.79 ± 2.95
Laryngeal PBMC (n=8)	45.65 ± 2.09	70.90 ± 5.18	59.98 ± 4.42	10.93 ± 0.93
<i>p</i> value	0.50	0.49	0.11	0.07
Oropharyngeal tumour (n=5)	42.1 ± 4.57	64.46 ± 3.81	47.20 ± 6.63	17.26 ± 3.14
Oropharyngeal PBMC (n=5)	38.04 ± 3.14	70.32 ± 6.37	59.44 ± 5.88	10.88 ± 2.28
<i>p</i> value	0.35	0.53	0.31	0.09

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Paired student's t test or Wilcoxon Signed Rank test. Results in bold considered significant when p < 0.05CD25⁺ is the sum of CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high}

Percentage of CD4⁺ cells expressing varying levels of CD25 and CD127 in the tumour microenvironment and Table5.9 corresponding PBMC samples in relation to tumour subsite

		Percentage of CD4 ⁺ cells expressing				
Cohort	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD25 ^{-/+} CD127 ^{-/+}	CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	CD25 ⁺ CD127 ⁺
Tumour samples (n=15)	35.13 ± 2.28	18.00 ± 1.12	17.13 ± 2.10	65.31 ± 2.36	33.29 ± 2.75	32.02 ± 2.94
PBMC samples (n=15)	16.51 ± 0.56	9.71 ± 0.55	6.80 ± 0.39	84.27 ± 0.55	31.57 ± 3.36	52.69 ± 3.29
<i>p</i> value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.001	0.69	<0.001
Laryngeal tumour (n=8)	35.58 ± 2.99	19.43 ± 1.35	16.11 ± 3.01	65.04 ± 3.16	33.56 ± 4.90	31.48 ± 4.35
Laryngeal PBMC (n=8)	15.21 ± 0.48	9.13 ± 0.56	6.09 ± 0.42	85.50 ± 0.32	30.56 ± 5.10	54.94 ± 5.05
<i>p</i> value	<0.001	<0.001	0.01	<0.001	0.65	0.01
Oropharyngeal tumour	30.76 ± 1.58	15.44 ± 2.04	15.32 ± 2.51	69.26 ± 2.05	33.94 ± 3.24	35.32 ± 4.81
(n=5)						
Oropharyngeal PBMC	18.94 ± 0.62	11.56 ± 0.89	7.50 ± 0.79	81.72 ± 0.70	30.42 ± 6.32	51.30 ± 6.05
(n=5)						
<i>p</i> value	0.001	0.13	0.04	0.004	0.68	0.14

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Paired student's t test or Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.

Results in bold considered significant when p<0.05CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} is the sum of CD25^{inter} CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} is the sum of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD25⁺CD127⁺

5.3.4 Suppressive activity of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients

Lymphocytes isolated from 21 tumour specimens, including primary tumour and tumour infiltrated lymph nodes, were successfully labelled with a Treg sorting cocktail (Figure 5.1) to allow the suppressive activity of isolated Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$) and on autologous effector Т cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) to be assessed by a CFSE assay. However, due to the low number of cells isolated by this method and limitations of the CFSE assay 5 tumour specimens were unable to be assessed for the suppressive activity of infiltrating Tregs (Figure 5.1). In addition, as mentioned previously, results from 2 tumour specimens were removed from the study due to the realisation that the patients had received treatment for their HNSCC prior to sampling. The clinicopathological characteristics of the remaining 14 HNSCC patients from which tumour specimens were obtained and successfully assessed for Treg function are shown in Table 5.10; these included 2 samples from the primary tumour site and 12 samples from associated tumour infiltrated lymph nodes.

Characteristics	Primary tumour samples	Tumour infiltrated lymph node samples
HNSCC patient sex and age		
Male	2	9
Female	0	3
Total	2	12
Mean age (years)	48.5	59
Age range (years)	41-56	41-78
Tumour stage		
Early (T1 and T2)	0	3
Advanced (T3 and T4)	2	8
Unknown	0	1
Tumour site		
Larynx	1	6
Oropharynx	0	5
Hypopharynx	1	1
Unknown	0	0
Tumour stage and site		
Early larynx	0	0
Advanced larynx	1	5
Early oropharynx	0	3
Advanced oropharynx	0	2
Other/Unknown	1	2
Nodal status		
Negative	0	0
Positive	2	12

Table 5.10Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients whose primary
tumour or nodal infiltrating Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity

5.3.4.1 Suppressive activity of tumour infiltrating Tregs at different Treg : effector T cell ratios

As previously mentioned in Chapter 4, all samples were cultured at a Treg:effector T cell ratio of 1:1 and where cell numbers allowed further ratios were established to show that the level of suppression induced by isolated Tregs could be titrated (Section 4.3.3.1). For the 2 primary tumour specimens there were only sufficient cells to prepare a 1:1 ratio however, with the tumour infiltrated nodal samples it has been demonstrated that,

regardless of Treg or effector T cell phenotype, as the proportion of Tregs $(CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} \text{ and } CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-})$ is reduced the percentage of suppression observed on the proliferation of effector T cells $(CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+} \text{ and } CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+)$ also decreases (Figure 5.7 and Figure 5.8 respectively).



Figure 5.7 Mean percentage of suppression by CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of <u>CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}</u> effector T cells at varying ratios for tumour infiltrated lymph node samples

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at ratios of 1:1, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values are mean percentage \pm SEM.



Figure 5.8 Mean percentage of suppression by $CD25^{high}$ and $CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs on the proliferation of $\underline{CD25^+CD127^+}$ effector T cells at varying ratios for tumour infiltrated lymph node samples

FACS isolated $CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$ and $CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs were cocultured with CFSE labelled $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$ effector T cells at ratios of 1:1, 1:2, 1:5 and 1:10 for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LT^{TM} to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs. Values are mean percentage \pm SEM.

As shown, the mean percentages of suppression induced by both Treg populations (CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) was greater on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells (Figure 5.7) compared with that observed on the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell population (Figure 5.8), regardless of the Treg:effector T cell ratio examined.

The observed dilution of Treg suppressive activity was in agreement with previous studies conducted on Tregs isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes (Kawaida *et al.*, 2005; Liyanage *et al.*, 2002; Viguier *et al.*, 2004) and the primary tumour site (Chi *et al.*, 2010; Gobert *et al.*, 2009; Ling *et al.*, 2007; Zhou *et al.*, 2009) of various cancer types. However, due to the primary tumour samples only being established at the 1:1 ratio and the

low number of tumour infiltrated nodal samples prepared at the remaining ratios, the analysis of subsequent results for the suppressive activity of tumour isolated Tregs focused on the results from the 1:1 ratio.

5.3.4.2 Suppressive activity of Tregs on effector T cells in tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and the primary tumour microenvironment

As mentioned previously, at the 1:1 ratio both CD127^{low/-} Treg populations isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes induced a higher level of suppression on the of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells proliferation compared with the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells (Figure 5.7 and Figure 5.8). This reached significance for the CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (p=0.01), however significance was not met for the $CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$ Tregs (p=0.20). Additionally, although not reaching significance (p=0.19), it was observed that the CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs induced a slightly higher percentage of suppression on the proliferation of the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector population compared with CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (Figure 5.7). However, similar levels of suppression were observed on the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell population (*p*=0.33; Figure 5.8).

When assessing the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes with regard to tumour subsite, no significant differences in the level of suppression were observed between the laryngeal and oropharyngeal cohorts, irrespective (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} analysed of the Treg population being and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) or the effector T cell population being suppressed (CD4⁺CD25⁻ CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺; Table 5.11). At the different HNSCC subsites there were no statistically significant differences between the suppressive activities of CD25^{inter} and CD25^{high} Tregs (data not shown) however, Tregs expressing high levels of the IL-2 receptor tended to induce a slightly higher level of suppression on the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector population in the laryngeal cohort compared with CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs (Table 5.11). In addition, a greater level of suppression was observed on the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector population, regardless of the Treg phenotype, for both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal cohorts.

Table5.11	Percentage	of suppression	induced by	Tregs on	the]	proliferation	of
effector T cell	s for tumour	infiltrated lym	ph nodes sepa	arated by t	umou	r subsite	

	Col		
Treg : Effector T cell	Laryngeal (n=6)	Oropharyngeal (n=5)	p value
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-} : CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	18.60 ± 3.62	20.08 ± 9.19	0.88
CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-} : CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	30.40 ± 4.09	24.34 ± 6.20	0.42
$CD4^{+}CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}:$ $CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	11.56 ± 4.39	14.42 ± 5.91	0.53
$CD4^{+}CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	15.23 ± 5.51	20.14 ± 6.15	0.57

All conducted at a 1:1 ratio

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Unpaired student's t test or Mann Whitney U test.

The primary tumour specimens consisted of a single patient with cancer of the hypopharynx and one with laryngeal cancer (Table 5.10), therefore no statistical analysis was possible. The percentages of suppression induced by Tregs from the tumour infiltrating lymph node samples and those from the primary tumour cohort were compared but no significant differences were observed (data not shown). The patients from which the two primary tumour samples were obtained both simultaneously underwent a neck dissection, therefore the suppressive activity of Tregs from the primary tumour microenvironment were directly compared to those isolated from their corresponding tumour infiltrated lymph nodes. For the hypopharyngeal patient greater levels of suppression were observed in the tumour infiltrating lymph nodes compared with the primary tumour microenvironment. However, for the laryngeal patient the opposite trend was observed with the primary tumour microenvironment demonstrating similar or greater percentages of suppression irrespective of the effector population being suppressed (Figure 5.9; results shown for the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cell population only).



Figure 5.9 Percentages of suppression induced by CD25^{high} and CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs on the proliferation of CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and corresponding primary tumour samples

FACS isolated CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs from either tumour infiltrated lymph nodes or the primary tumour microenvironment were co-cultured with CFSE labelled autologous CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells at a ratio of 1:1 for four days before being acquired by flow cytometry and the data analysed by ModFit LTTM to determine the percentage of suppression induced by the Tregs.

5.3.4.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs on effector T cells in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

Due to the primary tumour and tumour infiltrated lymph node specimens showing different trends the samples were not combined when the levels of suppressive activity induced in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation were compared.

Of the Tregs from tumour infiltrating lymph nodes that were assessed for suppressive activity ten of the specimens had corresponding samples from the peripheral circulation that were also successfully analysed for Treg suppressive function. Both of the primary tumour specimens had corresponding PBMC samples and the mean percentages have been presented, however, due to low numbers, statistical analysis was not performed but the data are presented (Table 5.12).

	Treg : Effector T cell				
Cohort	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	
Conort	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	
Nodal samples (n=10)	24.34 ± 4.99	27.08 ± 4.04	16.10 ± 4.34	19.26 ± 3.95	
Corresponding PBMC	26.79 ± 5.77	18.77 ± 4.50	23.26 ± 5.76	18.06 ± 2.62	
samples (n=10)					
<i>p</i> value	0.67	0.29	0.26	0.84	
Laryngeal nodal (n=5)	19.12 ± 4.38	27.52 ± 3.56	14.45 ± 4.26	18.28 ± 5.62	
Laryngeal PBMC (n=5)	23.52 ± 10.33	19.66 ± 8.34	19.63 ± 10.09	19.74 ± 4.08	
<i>p</i> value	0.65	0.51	0.65	0.88	
Oropharyngeal nodal (n=4)	25.10 ± 9.93	20.68 ± 6.45	12.40 ± 7.17	18.55 ± 7.68	
Oropharyngeal PBMC	28.80 ± 7.77	20.08 ± 5.25	22.75 ± 8.38	16.13 ± 4.63	
(n=4)					
<i>p</i> value	0.71	0.96	0.36	0.83	
Primary tumour samples	37.15 ± 4.75	29.40 ± 5.70	34.40 ± 11.30	19.00 ± 1.00	
(n=2)					
Corresponding PBMC	41.25 ± 6.15	27.10 ± 18.00	44.40 ± 4.60	25.80 ± 8.40	
samples (n=2)					
<i>p</i> value	*	*	*	*	

 Table 5.12 Percentage of suppression induced by Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells in the tumour microenvironment and

peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients separated by tumour subsite

All conducted at a 1:1 ratio

Values mean percentage \pm SEM

Paired student's t test comparing between tissue infiltrating Tregs and peripheral Tregs. * Primary tumour cohort not statistically assessed due to low sample numbers

The data in Table 5.12 show that, regardless of the Treg population (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) examined or the effector T cell population suppressed (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺), Tregs isolated from the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and peripheral circulation induce similar levels of suppression on their autologous effector T cells.

5.3.4.4 Assessing the suppressive activity of tumour Tregs on tumour infiltrating and peripheral effector T cells

To determine whether the tumour influences the effector T cell's susceptibility to Treg induced suppression, Tregs isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes were cocultured with autologous effector T cells isolated from the tumour infiltrated node and peripheral effector T cells to compare the levels of suppression. The same experiments were performed for the primary tumour samples, however due to the sample number being low the results were not statistically compared.

Irrespective of the Treg population analysed (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) or the effector T cell population being suppressed (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺), the co-culture of nodal Tregs with nodal effector T cells observed higher percentages of suppression compared with the incubation of nodal Tregs with peripheral effectors, however these differences did not reach significance (Table 5.13). The cohorts were also divided by tumour subsite but no statistical differences were observed between patients with cancer of the larynx or oropharynx (data not shown). A similar trend was observed for the level of suppression shown by primary tumour Tregs on primary tumour effectors which was greater than that observed for the co-culture of primary tumour Tregs and peripheral effectors from the same patient (Table 5.13).

 Table 5.13
 Percentage of suppression induced by nodal and primary tumour infiltrating Tregs on the proliferation of autologous
 effector T cells

	Treg : Effector T cell					
Cohort	$CD4^+CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}$	$CD4^+CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}$	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}		
Conore	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{-}CD127^{-/+}$: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	$: CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$	$: CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$		
Nodal Tregs and peripheral	17.19 ± 3.96	14.08 ± 4.55	10.57 ± 3.96	10.53 ± 2.45		
effectors (n=10)						
Nodal Tregs and nodal	24.34 ± 4.99	27.08 ± 4.04	16.10 ± 4.34	19.26 ± 3.95		
effectors (n=10)						
<i>p</i> value	0.15	0.09	0.16	0.09		
Primary tumour Tregs and	24.30 ± 12.8	19.85 ± 10.75	29.45 ± 2.95	17.35 ± 0.65		
peripheral effectors (n= 2)						
Primary tumour Tregs and	37.15 ± 4.75	29.40 ± 5.70	34.40 ± 11.30	19.00 ± 1.00		
primary tumour effectors						
(n=2)						
<i>p</i> value	*	*	*	*		

All conducted at a 1:1 ratio

Values mean percentage ± SEM Paired student's t test or Wilcoxon Signed Rank test. * Primary tumour cohort not statistically assessed due to low sample numbers

5.3.4.5 Assessing the suppressive activity of tumour and peripheral Tregs on peripheral effector T cells

To directly analyse the suppressive function of Tregs isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and the peripheral circulation the levels of suppression were compared when the Tregs from the two different environments were both co-cultured with autologous peripheral effector T cells. It was demonstrated that, regardless of CD25 expression by the Tregs, the percentages of suppression induced by peripheral Tregs was always greater than nodal Tregs, irrespective of the effector population being suppressed. This difference reached significance for all of the Treg populations with the exception of those expressing high levels of CD25 when co-cultured with the CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effectors; the same trend was observed for the primary tumour cohort (Table 5.14). Unfortunately there were insufficient cells to assess the suppressive function of nodal and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of tumour infiltrated lymph node effector T cells.

Table 5.14 Percentage of suppression induced by nodal, primary tumour and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of autologous peripheral effector T cells

	Treg : Effector T cell				
Cohort	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{inter} CD127 ^{low/-}	CD4 ⁺ CD25 ^{high} CD127 ^{low/-}	
Conort	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	: CD4 ⁺ CD25 ⁻ CD127 ^{-/+}	$: CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$	$: CD4^{+}CD25^{+}CD127^{+}$	
Nodal Tregs and peripheral	17.19 ± 3.96	14.08 ± 4.55	10.57 ± 3.96	10.53 ± 2.45	
effectors (n=10)					
Peripheral Tregs and	26.79 ± 5.77	18.77 ± 4.50	23.26 ± 5.76	18.06 ± 2.62	
peripheral effectors (n=10)					
<i>p</i> value	0.01	0.25	0.02	0.01	
Primary tumour Tregs and	24.30 ± 12.8	19.85 ± 10.75	29.45 ± 2.95	17.35 ± 0.65	
peripheral effectors (n= 2)					
Peripheral Tregs and	41.25 ± 6.15	27.10 ± 18.00	44.40 ± 4.60	25.80 ± 8.40	
peripheral effectors (n=2)					
<i>p</i> value	*	*	*	*	

All conducted at a 1:1 ratio

Values mean percentage \pm SEM Paired student's t test or Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.

Results in bold considered significant when p < 0.05

* Primary tumour cohort not statistically assessed due to low sample numbers

5.4 Discussion

The composition of the head and neck tumour sample cohort collected throughout this study was influenced by the treatment strategies employed by the Hull ENT department for HNSCC patients. With the improvement of chemotherapy regimens the excision of primary tumours has decreased year on year. In addition, radiotherapy and endoscopic laser surgery are preferred treatment strategies particularly in the management of early stage laryngeal cancer where there is a risk that conventional surgery may affect the function of the larynx (Section 1.7). In oropharyngeal cancer the location of the tumour can also be hard to access by surgery, however undergoing a neck dissection is a favoured method for the treatment of metastatic lymph nodes due to the complication rate being low and larger lymph nodes being unsuccessfully treated by chemo/radiotherapy (Scott-Brown *et al.,* 2008). This resulted in a larger number of lymph node metastases being investigated rather than primary tumour samples in the current study.

Tumour infiltrating Tregs have been identified in numerous cancer types however, their role in tumour immunity and their use as a prognostic determinant remains to be clarified (Table 1.9). The aim of the current study was to further understand the Treg population infiltrating the head and neck tumour microenvironment by assessing their phenotype, frequency and suppressive activity. In addition, the influence of the tumour microenvironment on CD4⁺ effector T cell populations was also examined. To the authors knowledge this is the first study to examine the frequency and function of CD127^{low/-} Tregs infiltrating the tumour microenvironment of newly-presenting HNSCC patients. In addition the suppressive activity of Tregs of any phenotype from tumour associated draining lymph nodes has not previously been assessed in HNSCC.

5.4.1 Foxp3⁺ cells infiltrating the tumours of head and neck cancer patients

The infiltration of $Foxp3^+$ cells (Tregs) was assessed by immunohistochemistry in the tumour associated stroma and tumour nests of HNSCC specimens. In the whole patient cohort there was a significantly greater number of $Foxp3^+$ cells present in the stroma

compared with the tumour, and this significant trend was maintained as the patient group was divided by several clinicopathological features. The preferential accumulation of Foxp3⁺ cells in stromal tissue/surrounding the tumour sites instead of infiltrating into the tumour cells has also been observed in colon, breast, oral SCC and cervical cancer (Lee *et al.*, 2010b; Liu *et al.*, 2011; Watanabe *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2011). From these studies it could be suggested that Tregs primarily accumulate and exert their suppressive activity upon the effector T cell population from within the stromal region.

In both the stroma and tumour nests, a significantly higher number of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ cells were found in oropharyngeal tumours compared with the microenvironment of laryngeal tumours. Treg infiltration in HNSCC patients tends not to be assessed with regard to tumour subsite despite the differences in aetiology, clinical presentation and rates of survival, however, Sun *et al.*, (2012) reported no significant association between head and neck primary tumour site and the number of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ Tregs. Although these results are in contrast to those reported by the current study, Sun and colleagues did not have any oropharyngeal cancer patients within their recruited cohort. An increasing proportion of oropharyngeal tumours are now reported to be HPV positive. The HPV status of the tumour specimens in the current study are unknown, however, it has been reported by Nasman and colleagues (2012) that patients with tonsillar SCC positive for HPV had a significantly higher number of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ cells compared with HPV negative tumours; the HPV status of the tumour specimens may therefore influence subsite specific differences for the infiltration of Foxp3⁺ cells.

No significant differences were observed in the stroma or tumour when the patient cohort was divided by tumour stage or nodal status. The lack of correlation between tumour stage and/or nodal involvement is in agreement with some results published for breast, gastric, colorectal, head and neck and nasopharyngeal cancer patients (Gobert *et al.*, 2009; Mizukami *et al.*, 2008b; Salama *et al.*, 2009; Sun *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2010). However, other studies have reported a significant association between tumour stage and Foxp3⁺ Treg infiltration; in colorectal cancer and nasopharyngeal carcinoma early stage tumours were significantly correlated with a higher number/density of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ Tregs compared with tumours of the advanced stage (Frey *et al.*, 2010; Salama *et al.*, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2010). In contrast patients with advanced stage endometrial cancer had a significantly higher number of Foxp3⁺ cells compared with early stage tumours (de Jong *et al.*, 2010).

al., 2009). In addition, breast and cervical cancer patients with lymph node metastases were demonstrated to have a higher percentage/number of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ Tregs compared to patients without nodal involvement (Bates *et al.*, 2006; Wu *et al.*, 2011), whereas the opposite trend was reported in colorectal cancer patients (Frey *et al.*, 2010). The reasons for these discrepancies may be down to the different types of tumour investigated or the different methods of assessment of the immunostaining.

The main purpose of the immunostaining in this study was to confirm the presence of the tumour infiltrating Tregs so that the study could then go on to isolate and investigate the Tregs further and assess their prevalence and functional activity in HNSCC.

5.4.2 Optimising the isolation of TIL from HNSCC specimens

To assess the frequency and suppressive activity of Tregs infiltrating the tumours of HNSCC patients it was necessary to establish a method to isolate TIL from head and neck tumour specimens.

Previous work in the author's laboratory had determined the optimal concentration of enzymes required to dissociate head and neck tumour samples and preserve integrin expression (Woods *et al.*, 2011). Strauss and colleagues (2007b) had also used the same enzymes to isolate TIL from the head and neck tumour microenvironment. The concentration of DNase employed by the current study matched that used by Strauss and colleagues however, a lower concentration of collagenase was used (0.05%; w/v) in order to preserve the expression of the lymphocyte markers for the isolation of Treg and effector T cell populations by FACS.

The isolation of the maximum number of TIL from HNSCC specimens was imperative as this would be the limiting factor in assessing the functional activity of tumour infiltrating Tregs. Although previous cancer studies have identified Tregs by flow cytometry immediately following dissociation, without the removal of tumour cells (Gobert *et al.*, 2009; Lau *et al.*, 2007; Viguier *et al.*, 2004), it was demonstrated in the current investigation that by using this method the lymphocyte population was very difficult to identify by flow cytometry due to the presence of numerous cell types including epithelial cells and fibroblasts. It was subsequently shown that by culturing the dissociated tumour fragments overnight, to remove adherent epithelial cells, fibroblasts and monocytes, a more

defined lymphocyte population was obtained. This method is slightly different to that used by many other research groups, including Strauss *et al.* (2007b) in HNSCC, which have used a discontinuous Ficoll-Paque gradient to separate lymphocytes from dissociated tissue before proceeding to identify Tregs (Chi *et al.*, 2010; Feng *et al.*, 2011; Lin *et al.*, 2012; Shen *et al.*, 2009). Although a few of these studies went on to isolate and assess the functional activity of the identified Tregs low sample numbers were used ($n \le 5$; Liotta *et al.*, 2010; Woo *et al.*, 2002; Zhou *et al.*, 2009) possibly due to the low number of Tregs isolated. However, Chi and colleagues (2010) and Strauss *et al.* (2007b) did examine the suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from ten specimens of bladder carcinoma and HNSCC, respectively. The reason a discontinuous gradient was not used in the current study was to try and minimise any loss of the lymphocytes during isolation.

It has been demonstrated previously that proteolytic enzymes, such as collagenase and DNase, can reduce the expression of T lymphocyte markers from tonsil samples and peripheral blood (Mulder *et al.*, 1994; Van Damme *et al.*, 2000). In agreement, the current study found that although an increased length of dissociation resulted in improved tissue disaggregation, this had to be weighed up against the detrimental effect that collagenase and DNase had on the expression of lymphocyte markers; with overnight disaggregation resulting in reduced expression of CD4, CD25 and CD127. An appropriate length of dissociation for a HNSCC specimen was determined to be 2-4 hours, which consistently provided a TIL population that could be gated on the basis of CD4, CD25 and CD127 expression to identify and isolate Treg and effector T cell populations.

The intensity of CD4 expression varied more in TIL compared with the same patient's peripheral $CD4^+$ population. The 'spread' of CD4 expression in malignant tissue compared with the peripheral circulation has also been published by Shen *et al.* (2010) in hepatocellular carcinoma. In this instance, the CD4⁺ population in malignant hepatocellular tissue was not as clearly distinguished as in HNSCC. The reason for the variation of CD4 expression in malignant tissue is unknown but it could be suggested that the tumour microenvironment may influence the expression of CD4 on the infiltrating lymphocyte population.

5.4.3 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients

The phenotype and frequency of various T cell subsets in both the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and primary tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients were assessed by flow cytometry. This study was designed to develop our understanding of the tumour infiltrated nodal environment and how it might contribute to the poorer prognosis in those patients with nodal involvement (Section 1.2.3). In the resected lymph nodes, although patients with cancer of the larynx were observed to harbour a slightly higher frequency of CD4⁺ lymphocytes and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs and a lower prevalence of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with oropharyngeal cancer patients these differences did not reach significance and the prevalence of the remaining T cell subsets were similar between the two head and neck subsites. These findings are in contrast with the results observed during the immunohistochemical staining of HNSCC primary tumour specimens where oropharyngeal tumours had a greater infiltration of Foxp3⁺ Tregs compared with laryngeal tumours. These differences may be attributed to the different microenvironments assessed, the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and primary tumour site, or the method of Treg identification. By immunohistochemistry the identification of Tregs relied upon the expression of the single marker Foxp3, whereas in the dissociated tumour samples the regulatory population was identified by flow cytometry using a much more stringent phenotype utilising the markers CD4, CD25 and the lack of CD127 expression. Furthermore, the patients studied by immunohistochemistry were different compared to those used in the dissociated tumour experiments and the HPV status of the patient specimens was unknown. Tumours positive for HPV differ by aetiology and prognosis (Section 1.5.2) and it has been reported that HPV positive tumours had a significantly higher number of infiltrating Foxp3⁺ T cells compared with HPV negative tumours for patients with tonsillar SCC (Nasman et al., 2012), therefore this could influence the results observed.

The infiltration and prevalence of Tregs into tumour draining lymph nodes has been assessed in several other cancer types, including gastric (Kawaida *et al.*, 2005; Maruyama *et al.*, 2010b; Mizukami *et al.*, 2008b; Shen *et al.*, 2009), melanoma (Viguier *et al.*, 2004), pancreatic, breast (Liyanage *et al.*, 2002) and ovarian (Curiel *et al.*, 2004) cancer. These

studies have predominately focused on the differences between tumour infiltrated and tumour free lymph nodes, demonstrating in the majority of cases that metastatic lymph nodes accumulate a significantly higher frequency of Tregs compared with tumour free lymph nodes isolated from the same patient (Kawaida *et al.*, 2005; Maruyama *et al.*, 2010b; Mizukami *et al.*, 2008b; Viguier *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, Curiel *et al.* (2004) reported in ovarian cancer that tumour draining lymph nodes had a lower prevalence of CD4⁺CD25⁺ Tregs compared with lymph nodes from individuals without cancer. These differences could be attributed to the types of cancer analysed, the phenotype employed to identify the Treg population or the source of tumour draining and control lymph nodes. The aim of the current work was to evaluate the prevalence of different CD4⁺ T cell subsets in HNSCC with regard to tumour subsite and therefore ethical approval was not sought to collect tumour free lymph nodes.

Another study to use the CD127^{low/-} phenotype to identify Tregs in tumour draining lymph nodes was Shen and colleagues (2009). In their entire cohort (n=57) the mean percentage of Tregs identified was 18.36% which was almost two fold lower than that observed by the current study (36.07%) however, as discussed in Chapter 4, this could be due to a number of methodological variations including different cancer types and the gating strategies employed to isolate the Tregs.

The HNSCC specimens obtained from primary tumour sites were few in number and consisted mainly of advanced stage cancers (T3 and T4) that had arisen from the larynx, therefore effects of tumour stage and subsite were unable to be determined. Other studies investigating the prevalence of T cell subsets infiltrating head and neck tumours by flow cytometry also had limited patient cohorts and comparisons between tumour subsites and stages were also not assessed (Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Strauss *et al.*, 2007b). For other cancer types it has been reported that tumours of the advanced stage had a significantly elevated frequency of infiltrating Tregs compared with early stage tumours; hepatocellular (Shen *et al.*, 2010), renal (Liotta *et al.*, 2010), gastric (Ichihara *et al.*, 2003; Shen *et al.*, 2009) and ovarian (Curiel *et al.*, 2004) carcinoma. However, in oesophageal cancer there was no significant difference observed in Treg frequency between early and advanced stage tumours (Maruyama *et al.*, 2010a).

On comparison of T cell susbets in the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes and primary tumour microenvironment, the lymph nodes were observed to have a higher proportion of $CD4^+$ lymphocytes compared with the primary tumour microenvironment, although this difference was not significant and the prevalence of the remaining T cell subsets was similar between the two locations. Pretscher *et al.* (2009) have also reported similar frequencies of Foxp3⁺ Tregs infiltrating the primary tumour and metastatic lymph nodes of HNSCC patients using immunohistochemistry, implying that the metastasised tumour recruits T cells in a similar manner to the primary tumour.

5.4.3.1 Phenotype and frequency of T cell subsets in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

To assess the differences between the infiltrating and circulating T cell subsets, proportions of various CD4⁺ populations were compared between the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of head and neck cancer patients.

When examining Treg phenotypes, no significant differences were observed for the prevalence of $CD4^+CD25^+$ cells between the tumour and periphery. This is in agreement with Woo and colleagues (2002) who also reported no significant differences in the prevalence of these cells in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of patients with non-small cell lung cancer. In the current study, there was a significantly higher frequency of $CD4^+$ cells expressing high levels of the IL-2 receptor in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation; although this trend was still evident when the cohort was divided by tumour subsite, significance was not maintained.

In contrast, CD127^{low/-} Tregs, regardless of the level of CD25 expression, were significantly elevated in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation and this trend was maintained in the laryngeal cohort alone but only for the CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} populations in the oropharyngeal cohort. This is in agreement with Shen *et al.* (2009) who also found significantly elevated proportions of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127^{low/-} Tregs in TIL (mean 21.08%) compared with the peripheral circulation (mean 7.77%) of gastric cancer patients; again these percentages are approximately two fold lower than those observed in the current study, TIL (mean 35.13%) and peripheral circulation (mean 16.51%), however, as discussed previously this is likely to be due to the different gating strategies employed to identify CD127^{low/-} Tregs and the different cancer types being assessed.

In head and neck cancer Strauss et al. (2007b) reported a significantly higher level of CD4⁺CD25^{high} and CD4⁺CD25⁺ Tregs in the tumour microenvironment (n=15) compared with the peripheral circulation (n=14) of patients. Although the results published for the CD4⁺CD25⁺ phenotype differ from those observed by the current study, the majority of patients whose tumour infiltrating Tregs were assessed by Strauss and colleagues had oral cancer whilst the patient cohort from the current study consisted mainly of patients with cancer of the larynx and oropharynx, which is likely to contribute to the different findings. Furthermore, in contrast with the work conducted for this thesis, Strauss et al. did not use matched patient samples for the tumour and peripheral cohorts with only five of the fifteen patients providing both tumour and PBMC samples. The remaining nine peripheral blood samples were provided by HNSCC patients with active disease, however, their clinicopathological characteristics were unknown. It was deemed important for the current study that the two sample cohorts originated from the same patients to ensure tumour subsite and stage remained constant and therefore the prevalence of specific T cell subsets, including Tregs, in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation were under the influence of the same clinicopathological features.

The significant elevation of Tregs in TIL, identified using various phenotypic markers, compared with the peripheral circulation has also been reported in several different cancer types (Table 5.2) and could suggest that the tumour is somehow recruiting or expanding the suppressive Treg population. In ovarian, oesophageal and gastric cancer it has been demonstrated that CCL17 and CCL22 have the ability to induce the migration of tumour infiltrating Tregs and it is therefore suggested that these chemokines are involved in the trafficking of the Treg population (Curiel et al., 2004; Maruyama et al., 2010a; Mizukami et al., 2008b). In support of this a significant correlation between the degree of CCL22 and/or CCL17 positive cells and the frequency of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment of breast, oesophageal and gastric cancer patients has been reported (Gobert et al., 2009; Maruyama et al., 2010a; Mizukami et al., 2008b). The mechanisms employed to promote the expansion of Tregs are not fully understood. In both murine and human studies it has been shown that the Treg population can expand either through the proliferation of recruited Tregs or by the induction of Tregs from naïve precursors (Colombo and Piconese, 2007; Curti et al., 2007; Gobert et al., 2009; Knutson et al., 2007). In particular for tumour infiltrated lymph nodes the elevated frequency of Tregs could arise from the expansion of the regulatory population already residing in the lymph nodes (Viguier *et al.*, 2004).

The prevalence of lymphocytes positive for the expression of CD4 was similar between the tumour microenvironment and periphery. However, in the peripheral circulation a significantly higher frequency of effector T cells, CD4⁺CD25^{inter}, CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺, were observed compared with the tumour microenvironment. This trend was maintained when the cohort was divided by tumour subsite and reached significance for both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal cohorts when the frequency of CD4⁺CD25^{-/+}CD127^{-/+} cells were examined however, significance was only reached for the patients with cancer of the larynx when the prevalence of activated CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells were assessed. This suggests a reciprocal balance between the effector T cell and Treg populations in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients.

Previous studies assessing the prevalence of Tregs infiltrating the tumour microenvironment focus mainly on the regulatory population and do not additionally analyse the frequency of effector populations that can be influenced by the suppressive T cells; however it is interesting to observe that in the peripheral circulation a significantly higher prevalence of activated effector T cells were observed. Nevertheless, the frequency of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells was similar between the periphery and tumour microenvironment. The reduced prevalence of activated effector T cells in the tumour microenvironment is likely to be due to the actions implemented by the tumour to prevent the initiation of the host's anti-tumour attack; this includes the suppressive influence of the elevated level of Tregs (Shevach, 2009) as well as the impairment of antigen presentation and the inhibitory effect of the enzyme indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (Section 1.8).

5.4.4 The suppressive activity of Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients

An elevated level of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients has been demonstrated but it is their suppressive activity which will also influence how effective the host's anti-tumour response is in combating the growth and progression of the tumour.

In keeping with the work performed in the peripheral circulation (Chapter 4) the level of suppression induced by tumour infiltrating lymph node Tregs at the ratios 1:1, 1:2. 1:5 and 1:10 was assessed and in agreement with previous studies (Kawaida et al., 2005; Livanage et al., 2002; Viguier et al., 2004) Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) inhibited the proliferation of effector T cells $(CD4^+CD25^-)$ CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) in a ratio dependent manner; as the proportion of Tregs increased so did the level of suppression. Tregs isolated from the primary tumour of various cancer types have also been shown to suppress the proliferation of autologous effector T cells in a ratio dependent manner (Chi et al., 2010; Gobert et al., 2009; Ling et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2009), however, this was not possible in the current study due to the low number of Tregs isolated from the head and neck primary tumours. In contrast, Strauss et al. (2007b) demonstrated that Tregs isolated from the TIL of head and neck cancer patients induced similar levels of suppression at both a 1:2 and 1:5 ratio (Treg:effector T cell). With the majority of studies using the 1:1 ratio and to maintain consistency, all suppression experiments conducted by the current study were established at the 1:1 ratio and the results from these experiments were used for comparison.

CD127^{low/-} Tregs, with both intermediate and high levels of CD25 expression, isolated from either tumour infiltrated lymph nodes or the primary tumour site of HNSCC patients had the ability to suppress the proliferation of autologous effector T cells (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺).

Tregs, regardless of their CD25 expression, isolated from tumour infiltrated lymph nodes induced a greater level of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells, and this trend was maintained in both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal sample cohorts. This is in agreement with the observations made in the peripheral circulation (Section 4.3.3.5).

For the entire HNSCC patient cohort and for patients with laryngeal cancer Tregs expressing high levels of the IL-2 receptor induced a slightly higher level of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs, however, no statistical differences were observed. This is in contrast to the results shown in the peripheral circulation where CD25^{inter} Tregs

consistently suppressed the proliferation of both effector T cell populations to a greater degree compared with CD25^{high} Tregs, reaching significance for a number of HNSCC patient cohorts and healthy controls (Section 4.3.3.4). This difference between the tumour infiltrating and peripheral Tregs could be attributed to the immunosuppressive conditions of the tumour microenvironment influencing the functional ability of both the CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs. To establish whether the level of CD25 expression does influence the suppressive capacity of CD127^{low/-} Tregs infiltrating head and neck tumours a larger cohort of patients would need to be assessed.

As previously mentioned, suppressive $CD4^+CD25^+$ and $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ Tregs have been isolated from a range of different primary tumour sites (Section 5.1) as well as the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes of patients with pancreatic cancer (Liyanage *et al.*, 2002), gastric carcinoma (Kawaida *et al.*, 2005) and melanoma (Viguier *et al.*, 2004). However, although these studies have shown the presence of a functionally suppressive infiltrating T cell population the level of suppressive activity has not been assessed with regard to clinicopathological features which might be attributed to the low number of patients investigated (n \leq 5; Curiel *et al.*, 2004; Gobert *et al.*, 2009; Kryczek *et al.*, 2009; Ling *et al.*, 2007; Liotta *et al.*, 2010; Liyange *et al.*, 2002; Woo *et al.*, 2002; Zhou *et al.*, 2009).

In the tumour infiltrated lymph nodes similar levels of suppression, regardless of the Treg phenotype analysed (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) or the suppressed (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} Т population being and effector cell CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺), were observed for the laryngeal and oropharyngeal cohorts. Due to the low number of primary tumour samples that were successfully assessed for suppressive activity, differences in the level of suppression between tumour subsites or stages could not be assessed. Strauss et al. (2007b) have also examined the suppressive activity of Tregs infiltrating the tumours of HNSCC patients (n=10) however, due to the majority of their patients having cancer of the oral cavity comparisons between tumour subsites could not be analysed. Greater sample numbers would be required to determine whether subsite and stage influences the level of suppression induced by Tregs. In addition, this would help establish whether Treg suppressive activity varies between tumour infiltrated lymph nodes or the primary tumour site.

5.4.4.1 Comparison of the suppressive activity of Tregs in the tumour microenvironment and peripheral circulation of HNSCC patients

With the tumour microenvironment shown to elevate the proportion of Tregs in the infiltrating lymphocyte population compared with the peripheral circulation it was of interest as to whether the tumour also affected the suppressive capacity of Tregs.

It was hypothesised that Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment would induce a significantly greater level of suppression as the tumour may directly influence these cells in close proximity, promoting actions to thwart the host's anti-tumour response. However, no significant differences were observed between the level of suppression induced by tumour infiltrating Tregs and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of their respective effector T cell populations. These results were shown for Tregs isolated from the tumour infiltrating lymph nodes and by increasing the sample cohort it would be interesting to determine whether the same statistical trend occurs for Tregs infiltrating the primary tumour microenvironment. Chi *et al.* (2010) also reported no significant differences between the regulatory function of Tregs isolated from the PBMC (n=10) and TIL (n=10) of bladder carcinoma patients when co-cultured with their autologous effector T cells at a 1:1 ratio.

5.4.4.2 The suppressive activity of tumour Tregs on tumour infiltrating and peripheral effector T cells

The level of suppression observed during the co-culture of tumour infiltrating Tregs and infiltrating effector T cells may have been influenced by the susceptibility of the effector population to Treg induced suppression. For example, the effector T cells having infiltrated the tumour may have been 'conditioned' by the tumour's immunosuppressive microenvironment causing them to already have been suppressed *in vivo* and therefore be less susceptible to the suppressive activity of Tregs *in vitro*. Consequently the full functional capacity of tumour infiltrating Tregs might have been masked. To assess this, tumour infiltrating nodal Tregs were also co-cultured with their autologous peripheral effector T cells. However, although not significant, a higher level of suppression was observed during the co-culture of nodal Tregs and nodal effectors compared with the coculture of nodal Tregs and peripheral effectors, irrespective of the Treg population (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) analysed or the effector T cell population being suppressed (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺). The same trend was also observed with the primary tumour Tregs. These results imply that the immunosuppressive conditions of the tumour microenvironment may in fact cause the tumour infiltrating effector T cells to become more susceptible to the actions of the tumour Tregs, once again, a larger cohort would be required to confirm this trend.

5.4.4.3 The suppressive activity of tumour and peripheral Tregs on peripheral effector T cells

To directly compare the suppressive capacity of tumour infiltrating and peripheral Tregs, the regulatory populations from the two different environments were both co-cultured with autologous peripheral effector T cells. It was demonstrated that, regardless of the Treg or effector T cell phenotype, the level of suppression induced by peripheral Tregs on peripheral effector T cells was greater than that observed for the co-culture of tumour infiltrated lymph node Tregs and peripheral effectors; this reached significance for the CD25^{inter} Tregs on both effector T cell populations investigated and $CD4^+CD25^+CD127^+$) and $CD25^{high}$ (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} Tregs on the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells. The same trend was also shown for the primary tumour Tregs. It was hypothesised that the Tregs isolated from the tumour may have had a greater suppressive ability than the peripheral Tregs due to the immediate tumour influence, however, the results suggest that Tregs isolated from the primary tumour site or tumour infiltrated lymph nodes are not influenced by the tumour to induce a greater level of suppression on the proliferation of effector T cells compared with peripheral Tregs.

Kryczek *et al.* (2009) have also directly compared the suppressive activity of Tregs from the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment in a small cohort of patients (n=4) with colorectal cancer by co-culturing the suppressive T cells with effector T cells isolated from a healthy donor. It was demonstrated that peripheral and tumour infiltrating Tregs induced similar levels of suppression on effector T cell proliferation however, it was unclear how many patient's peripheral Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity and whether these patients also had colorectal cancer or a range of various cancer types as the study had also recruited patients with melanoma, ovarian, renal, hepatic and pancreatic cancer. In ovarian carcinoma, Curiel *et al.* (2004) assessed the suppressive activity of tumour infiltrating (n=5) and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells isolated from tumour ascites. Similar levels of suppression were observed demonstrating that tumour infiltrating Tregs were as efficient as peripheral Tregs at inhibiting T cell proliferation however, it was unclear whether the peripheral and tumour cohorts consisted of the same patients.

Unfortunately due to insufficient cell numbers it was not possible to co-culture tumour infiltrated nodal and peripheral Tregs with effector T cells isolated from the tumour microenvironment. This would have helped establish whether Tregs optimally suppress the proliferation of effector T cells from the same environment from which they were isolated.

The experiments conducted during this study have assessed the suppressive activity of Tregs based on their ability to suppress the proliferation of effector T cells. However, Tregs also have the ability to suppress the functional actions of effector T cells such as the secretion of cytokines and it may be this which the Tregs are influencing in the tumour microenvironment. As shown by other research groups tumour infiltrating Tregs isolated from melanoma (Viguier et al., 2004), bladder (Chi et al., 2010), breast (Gobert et al., 2009), hepatocellular (Zhou et al., 2009), pancreatic (Liyanage et al., 2002) and renal (Liotta *et al.*, 2010) cancer have the ability to suppress the secretion of IFN- γ by CD4⁺CD25⁻ infiltrating effector T cells. It has been reported in the metastatic lymph nodes of melanoma patients that at low co-culture ratios, 1:8 and 1:10 (Treg:effector T cell), the inhibition of cytokine secretion was still marked, however the inhibition of proliferation was weaker (Viguier et al., 2004). This suggested to Viguier and colleagues that the tumour infiltrating Tregs may be more suppressive on effector T cell function rather than proliferation. To the author's knowledge, the inhibition of IFN- γ secretion induced by Tregs isolated from the tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients has not previously been assessed, or compared to that exerted by peripheral Tregs. Examining this association in the HNSCC microenvironment would possibly elucidate a further mechanism tumour infiltrating Tregs could use to promote an immunosuppressive environment.

It is likely in the tumour microenvironment that the suppressive role of Tregs covers many aspects of effector T cell biology including activation, function and proliferation in
attempts to inhibit the actions of the host's anti-tumour response and promote the growth and progression of the tumour.

5.4.5 Conclusion

The current study has observed a significant increase in the proportion of Tregs in the infiltrating lymphocyte population compared with the peripheral circulation of newly-presenting HNSCC patients, regardless of the Treg phenotype examined. For the first time CD127^{low/-} Tregs have been identified and isolated from the TIL of head and neck cancer patients and it has been demonstrated that the level of suppression induced by tumour infiltrating Tregs and peripheral Tregs on the proliferation of their respective effector T cell populations was similar. However, it is likely that there is an overall greater level of suppression induced by Tregs in the tumour microenvironment compared with the peripheral circulation due to the elevation of the proportion of Tregs infiltrating the tumour microenvironment.

With similar levels of suppression induced by tumour infiltrating and peripheral Tregs it could be suggested that a number of different suppressive mechanisms are employed by Tregs to promote an overall immunosuppressive environment favourable to the growth and progression of HNSCC, including the suppression of proliferation, activation or function of immune cells. By investigating different methods of Treg suppression, such as the secretion of cytokines by effector T cells, and assessing them with respect to clinicopathological features, the role of infiltrating Tregs in HNSCC would be further elucidated. This would help establish whether the presence or function of Tregs could be confidently utilised as a reliable prognostic determinant as well as assisting with the development of new therapeutic strategies and targets.

Chapter 6.

The secretion of TGF-β and IL-10 by HNSCC and the influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity

6.1 Introduction

Tumour growth, development and survival is dependent on the creation of a favourable microenvironment, this is driven by a number of factors including the accumulation of genetically altered cells (Section 1.3), infiltration of immune cells which can enhance the survival of the cancer cells (Section 5.1), the supportive role of the stroma and the cytokine network. Chapter 5 studied the infiltration of Tregs into the HNSCC microenvironment and this chapter will continue investigations into the head and neck tumour microenvironment by focusing on the presence of the immunosuppressive cytokines TGF- β and IL-10. These cytokines are known to have a role in the induction of Tregs (Section 1.11.2) and the suppressive activity exerted by the regulatory population (Shevach, 2009), as well as being involved in numerous other mechanisms to promote tumour progression (see below).

The tumour microenvironment has a plethora of soluble mediators, that can have pro-inflammatory (IL-1, IL-2, IL-6, IFN-γ, TNF-α), anti-inflammatory (IL-4, IL-10, TGF- β , VEGF) and immunosuppressive activity [IL-10, TGF- β , prostaglandin E2 (PGE2)], to assist with the promotion of tissue growth, angiogenesis and inhibition of anti-tumour immune responses (Pries and Wollenberg, 2006; Wang et al., 2009). As previously mentioned (Section 5.1), HNSCC patients have been shown to have a circulating cytokine profile which is more reflective of a Th2-like response (IL-4, IL-6 and IL-10) that is thought to be tumour promoting, as opposed to a Th1-like profile (IFN- γ and TNF- α) that assists the host's anti-tumour immune responses; this trend has been supported by a number of HNSCC studies assessing the cytokines secreted by PBMC and the circulating level of cytokines in the plasma and serum of patients (Bose et al., 2008; Jebreel et al., 2007; Lathers and Young, 2004). A wide range of cytokines have been found to be secreted from HNSCC tumour specimens and cell lines including IL-1, IL-4, IL-6, IL-8, granulocyte macrophage-colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF), TGF-β and VEGF (Chen et al., 1999; Korampalli et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2004; Pries and Wollenberg, 2006; Woods et al., 1998), however, the exact role of these cytokines is unknown. The main aim of the work conducted in this thesis was to assess the frequency, function and role of Tregs in HNSCC, therefore to continue to assess the suppression of the host's anti-tumour response the study has also examined the secretion of immunosuppressive cytokines TGF- β and IL-10 that are known to have a role in both Treg development and function as well as promoting a microenvironment that favours tumour progression.

The role of TGF- β in the growth and development of tumours is complex, including the initial actions to inhibit epithelial growth, however, during tumour progression the cancerous cells become partly or completely resistant to TGF- β growth inhibition due to disruptions in the TGF- β signalling pathways (Bierie and Moses, 2006; Pasche, 2001). In HNSCC this includes the mutation and down regulation of TGF- β receptors (Pasche, 2001; Wang *et al.*, 1997). Disruption in the TGF- β pathway means that the tumour can hijack the cytokine for its own use as a promoter of tumour progression. TGF- β is a pluripotent cytokine with the ability to disrupt the function and proliferation of TIL, including the antitumour actions of cytotoxic $CD8^+$ T cells. In addition, the cytokine can stimulate the migration of monocytes, neutrophils and fibroblasts, decrease the expression MHC class I and II genes and reduce NK cell activation (Bierie and Moses, 2006; Zamarron and Chen, 2011). Furthermore, TGF- β has been shown to promote the generation of Tregs from CD4⁺CD25⁻ T cells (Section 1.11.2; Chen et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2007,). Whilst these actions likely favour tumour growth, TGF- β can also functionally inhibit macrophages by decreasing the production of inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1 β , TNF- α and IL-6, which are associated with inflammatory driven tumour progression (Zamarron and Chen, 2011).

The function of IL-10 in tumour growth and development is also not completely understood but it is commonly regarded as an immunosuppressive Th2-like cytokine. With a role in tumour immune evasion and progression, IL-10 can reduce the production of IL-2 and IFN- γ by Th1 lymphocytes, hinder antigen presentation by dendritic cells and promote tumour cell proliferation and survival (Mocellin *et al.*, 2005; Zamarron and Chen, 2011). Furthermore, IL-10 has been shown to be involved in the generation of induced Tregs, Tr1 cells (Section 1.11.2). However, the role of IL-10 is also complex as it displays the ability to inhibit tumour progression by enhancing NK cell cytotoxicity, CD8⁺ anti-tumour activity and promoting antigen uptake by dendritic cells (Mocellin *et al.*, 2005).

To further understand the role of the HNSCC tumour microenvironment in establishing and maintaining tumour growth, the current study examined the secretion of TGF- β and IL-10 by head and neck cancer cell lines and freshly dissociated tumour tissue

which were collected during resection surgery from patients with HNSCC arising from different tumour subsites. In addition, it was also investigated whether the secretions from HNSCC cell lines and/or tumour specimens influenced the functional activity of Tregs, making them more or less suppressive towards the proliferation of autologous effector T cells. This was investigated by isolating Tregs and effector T cells from healthy controls and culturing the Tregs with or without cultured medium from HNSCC cell lines or tumour specimens prior to assessing the suppressive activity of the regulatory population using a CFSE assay. It was important to use Tregs and effector T cells from healthy controls and not HNSCC patients as these peripheral T cell populations would not previously have been influenced by the presence of cancer, therefore the direct effects of HNSCC secretions on the Treg population could be observed.

6.2 Materials and methods

6.2.1 HNSCC cell lines and collection of conditioned medium

The head and neck cancer cells lines UMSCC-11b, UMSCC-12a, UMSCC-4, UMSCC-81b and UMSCC-47 (Table 6.1; kindly supplied by Dr. T. Carey, University of Michigan) were cultured and maintained as outlined in Section 2.1. In preparation for the collection of conditioned medium at specific time points the HNSCC cell lines were cultured as outlined in Section 2.5. Briefly, 1 x 10^6 cells, in 1ml of complete growth medium, were added to each well of a 6 well plate. At 24, 48, 72 and 96hrs conditioned medium was removed from the cultured cells, centrifuged at 300 x *g* for 3 minutes to pellet cell debris, aliquoted (250µl) and stored at -80°C (Section 2.5) for use in cytokine ELISAs and the assessment of conditioned medium on Treg functional activity.

HNSCC cell	Gender	Age of	TNM	Anatomic site	Specimen site
line name	of patient	patient		of origin	
UMSCC-11b	Male	65	T2N2aM0	Larynx	Larynx
UMSCC-12a	Male	71	T2N1M0	Larynx	Larynx
UMSCC-4 ^a	Female	47	T3N2aM0	Tonsil	Back of tongue
				(Oropharynx)	
UMSCC-81b	Male	53	T2N0M0	Tonsil	Tonsillar pillar
				(Oropharynx)	
UMSCC-47 ^b	Male	53	T3N1M0	Lateral tongue	Lateral tongue
				(Oral cavity)	

Table 6.1 HNSCC cell lines

^a HPV negative ^b HPV positive

6.2.2 HNSCC tumour specimens and collection of conditioned medium

Following ethical (Yorkshire and the Humber research ethics committee; REC reference 10/H1304/7) and NHS Trust R and D (R0988) approval, and obtaining written informed consent, tumour infiltrated nodal specimens from newly-presenting head and neck cancer patients with HNSCC arising from the larynx and oropharynx were collected during resection surgery (Table 6.2). As outlined in detail in Section 2.14, tumour specimens were dissociated, washed in dissociation medium and plated overnight in a 25cm³ culture flask. Following overnight incubation, the medium was collected, centrifuged at 400 x *g* for 4 minutes and the supernatant was aliquoted (500µl) and stored at -80°C (Section 2.14.1) for use in the assessment of cytokine secretion and the influence of conditioned medium on Treg functional activity.

Table 6.2Clinicopathological characteristics of HNSCC patients recruited to obtainovernight conditioned medium from dissociated tumour infiltrated nodal specimens

Anatomic site of origin	Gender	Age	Tumour stage	Nodal status
Oropharynx	Male	50	T3	Node (N2c)
Larynx	Male	68	T3	Node (N2c/b)

6.2.3 Assessment of TGF-β and IL-10 in conditioned medium using ELISA

The concentration of TGF- β and IL-10 present in the conditioned medium of head and neck cancer cell lines (Table 6.1) and overnight culture medium from dissociated HNSCC tumour specimens (Table 6.2) were determined using ELISA as described in Section 2.6. Following absorbance measurement at 450nm with wavelength correction at 570nm a standard curve was generated using a four parameter logistic curve-fit and used to determine the level of the cytokine present in the conditioned medium samples. For TGF- β the derived concentrations were multiplied by a dilution factor of 1.4 due to the pretreatment step.

6.2.4 Isolation of Treg and effector T cell populations by FACS

Tregs and effector T cells were isolated from two healthy donor lymphocyte cones which were obtained from the blood donation service. In a class II biological safety cabinet (Airstream, Esco), the cones were securely clamped to a stand and the contents of the cone were allowed to flow into a 50ml polypropylene tube before being flushed out with PBS. The lymphocytes were subsequently isolated and cryopreserved using the same method of PBMC isolation from whole blood samples, as outlined in Section 2.13.

Following retrieval from cryopreservation, approximately 1 x 10⁸ cells were labelled with the appropriate amount of Treg sorting cocktail (BD Biosciences) to enable the isolation of Treg (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) and effector T cell populations (CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} and CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) by FACS, as outlined in Section 2.16.

6.2.5 Culture of peripheral Tregs with conditioned medium

Immediately following the flow sorting of a lymphocyte cone, the concentration and viability of the isolated peripheral effector T cell $(CD4^+CD25^-CD127^{-/+})$ and

CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺) and Treg (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) populations was determined by trypan blue exclusion (Section 2.4).

As outlined in Section 2.17, approximately 5 x 10^5 effector T cells were cultured in a single well of a flat bottom 24 well tissue culture plate in 750µl of culture medium whilst 2 x 10^5 Tregs were cultured in 134µl of the same culture medium in a single well of a round bottom 96 well tissue culture plate. Both Tregs and effector T cells were cultured with a final concentration of 100U/ml recombinant human IL-2. After 24 hours, half of the wells containing Tregs had 66µl of conditioned medium, collected following either 48 hours of incubation with cell lines (UMSCC-4 or UMSCC-12a) or following overnight incubation with a dissociated tumour specimen (laryngeal or oropharyngeal), added to the appropriate wells. The remaining half of the Treg cell cultures had the same volume of culture medium added to provide a control. Following 48 hours incubation with conditioned or culture medium a CFSE assay was performed (Section 6.2.6).

6.2.6 Assessment of the suppressive activity of Tregs cultured with conditioned medium using a CFSE assay

As outlined in Section 2.18, following 48 hour incubation with conditioned or culture medium the concentration and viability of effector T cell and Treg populations were determined by trypan blue exclusion. Due to the low number of Tregs, the majority of CFSE assays were successfully run at a 1:1 ratio using 2 x 10^4 autologous effectors and 2 x 10^4 Tregs cultured in each well of a 96 well plate. The CFSE assay was set up and analysed as outlined in Section 4.2.4 with each effector T cell population co-cultured with Tregs that had been cultured with and without conditioned medium (Table 6.3). Percentages of suppression were calculated based on the proliferation indexes determined by ModFitTM software (Verity Software House, Section 2.19).

Table 6.3 Combination of cultures used in the CFSE assay to determine the influenceof conditioned medium on the suppressive activity of Tregs

Number	Culture combinations
1	Non-labelled effector T cells
2	CFSE labelled effector T cells (no stimulation)
3	CFSE labelled effector T cells
4	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) without conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)
5	Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) with conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)
6	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) without conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)
7	Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) with conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells (1:1)

All wells, except well 2, were stimulated with Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads and 100U/ml IL-2 (Section 2.18).

6.3 Results

6.3.1 Assessment of TGF-β and IL-10 secretion by HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens

The concentration of TGF- β and IL-10, secreted over a 96 hour period by five HNSCC cell lines (Table 6.1) and after overnight incubation from two HNSCC tumour specimens (Table 6.2), was determined using ELISA. For the HNSCC cell lines UMSCC-11b and UMSCC-81b, the ELISAs were repeated by another PhD student (Joanne Smith) in the laboratory, therefore the results from these two cell lines are an average of four concentration values. The lowest standard for both TGF- β and IL10 was 31.25pg/ml, therefore for graphical purposes cytokine levels detected below this concentration were plotted as 0, and considered not detectable.

6.3.1.1 TGF-β and IL-10 secretion by HNSCC cell lines

All five HNSCC cells lines secreted detectable levels of TGF- β over the 96 hour culture period (Figure 6.1). The highest concentrations of the cytokine were observed in the laryngeal cell line, UMSCC-12a (Figure 6.1a), where the highest level of TGF- β (96 hours of culture) was over four fold higher than the other cell lines. The concentration of TGF- β for UMSCC-12a was approximately 690pg/ml, even after only 24 hours of culture, which was higher than the maximum concentrations determined for the remaining four cell lines (Figure 6.1b). To confirm the high concentrations of TGF- β in the conditioned medium of UMSCC-12a, the ELISA was repeated and again similar high levels were obtained. However, the variation between duplicates was poor and therefore these results are not represented in Figure 6.1a. For the remaining four cells lines similar concentrations of TGF- β were measured (range 0-416pg/ml). A similar pattern of secretion was observed for the oropharyngeal cell line UMSCC-4 and the laryngeal cell line UMSCC-11b where the concentration of TGF- β in the conditioned medium was low initially, peaking at 48 hours before declining over the remaining culture period (Figure 6.1b). For the oropharyngeal cell line UMSCC-81b, laryngeal cell line UMSCC-11b and oral cavity cell line UMSCC-47 similar concentrations of TGF- β were measured at 48 hours of culture. (Figure 6.1b). For UMSCC-47 and UMSCC-4 the level of TGF- β measured at 96 hours of culture was also similar (Figure 6.1b).

None of the HNSCC cell lines secreted detectable levels of IL-10 (not above 31.25pg/ml) over the 96 hour culture period (data not shown).

6.3.1.2 TGF-β and IL-10 secretion by dissociated tumour infiltrated nodal specimens

The conditioned medium collected from overnight incubation of the dissociated laryngeal tumour sample demonstrated a low concentration of TGF- β (mean concentration ±SEM; 39.29 ± 6.48pg/ml) whereas no detectable level of TGF- β was found to be secreted from the oropharyngeal tumour sample, not above the lowest standard 31.25pg/ml. Both laryngeal and oropharyngeal tumour samples secreted similar concentrations of IL-10 (Mean concentration: 281.45±21.72pg/ml and 307.93±14.58pg/ml respectively).



Figure 6.1 Concentration of TGF- β in the conditioned medium of five HNSCC cell lines over a 96 hour culture period Following the culture of cells at 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours, conditioned medium was removed and assessed for the concentration of TGF- β (pg/ml) by ELISA (a) UMSCC-12a (laryngeal) (b) UMSCC-4 (oropharyngeal), UMSCC-47 (oral cavity), UMSCC-11b (laryngeal), UMSCC-81b (oropharyngeal; mean ± SEM).

6.3.2 Optimising the culture of effector T cells for the subsequent assessment of Treg suppressive activity

Tregs and effector T cells were sorted at the same time from the same lymphocyte cone, therefore in order to use both in the CFSE proliferation assay it was important to maximally maintain effector T cells during the 72 hours of culture of Tregs with or without conditioned medium.

Initially the sorted effector T cells were cultured immediately after isolation with Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads and 100U/ml IL-2 for the 72 hour period, before being used in the CFSE assay. However, during the analysis of effector T cells for CFSE content by flow cytometry, it was observed that there was no narrow peak of non-dividing effector T cells (parent population) for the cells which had received stimulation with dynabeads and IL-2 during the 72 hour 'waiting' period before being cultured without stimulation during the CFSE assay (Figure 6.2a). The narrow parent peak was always observed in the numerous CFSE assays conducted previously when the effector cells were used immediately after isolation in the assay (Figure 6.2b).

Therefore, to determine the optimum culture conditions for the effector T cell population during the 'waiting' period and for a successful CFSE assay, CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells were cultured for the 72 hour 'waiting' period in three different conditions: CD3/CD28 dynabeads and IL-2, IL-2 only, and no stimulation, before the CFSE assay was performed. In addition, some CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells were also frozen down during the 'waiting' period. The same results for the parent population were obtained for the CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cell population cultured during the 72 hour period with CD3/CD28 dynabeads and IL-2 (Figure 6.2a). However, for the effector population cultured with IL-2 only, no stimulation or those that had been frozen down, a narrow parent peak representing cells that had not undergone proliferation was observed, similar to that shown in Figure 6.2b. The viability of cells was poorer for effector T cells cultured without stimulation or frozen down and therefore for subsequent experiments effector T cells were cultured with IL-2 only during the 72 hour 'waiting' period.



Figure 6.2 CFSE parent populations obtained during the different culture conditions of effector T cells

Effector T cells were isolated by FACS before being immediately cultured with CD3/CD28 dynabeads and IL-2 for 72 hours prior to the set up of the CFSE assay. a) CFSE content for the parent population of effector T cells cultured with stimulation during the 72 hour 'waiting' period but with no stimulation during the assay (representative of two independent experiments) compared with b) the parent population obtained from previous CFSE assays where the effector population was used immediately in the assay.

6.3.3 Assessment of the influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity

Tregs isolated from two lymphocyte cones were pre-treated, during separate experiments, with conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines (laryngeal, UMSCC-12a and oropharyngeal, UMSCC-4) and dissociated tumour infiltrated nodal specimens (1 x laryngeal and 1 x oropharyngeal). The levels of suppression induced by Tregs pre-treated with conditioned medium from each cell line or tumour specimen for both lymphocyte cones were combined to give an average of two results. The percentages of suppression induced by Tregs incubated with unconditioned culture medium provided the control. Due to the low number of lymphocyte cones assessed statistical analysis was not performed. With large error bars for some of the experiments conducted, further repeats with different lymphocyte cones would be needed to confirm the trends observed.

The percentages of suppression induced by Tregs were calculated from the proliferation indices determined by the ModFit software as outlined in Section 2.19 and

Section 3.2.3. To illustrate this further Table 6.4 demonstrates the calculations conducted to determine the percentages of suppression induced by Tregs cultured without conditioned medium (control; green) and with oropharyngeal cell line conditioned medium (UMSCC-4; red) on the proliferation of effector T cells. The use of colour in the table relates to the colours used in the bar charts on the following figures.

Table 6.4	Calculating the percentages of suppression induced by Tregs cultured
without and	with oropharyngeal cell line conditioned medium on the proliferation of
effector T ce	lls

Culture combination	Proliferation	Percentage of	Percentage of
	index (ModFit)	proliferation	suppression
CFSE labelled effector T cells	20.88	100	0
Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) without conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells	16.54	79.4	20.6
Tregs (CD25 ^{inter}) with conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells	17.59	84.0	16.0
Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) without conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells	19.39	92.6	7.4
Tregs (CD25 ^{high}) with conditioned medium pre-treatment and CFSE labelled effector T cells	19.51	93.5	6.5

6.3.3.1 Influence of HNSCC cell line conditioned medium on Treg suppressive activity

Tregs (CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-}) pre-treated with conditioned medium from both the laryngeal (UMSCC-12a) and the oropharyngeal cell line (UMSCC-4) induced similar levels of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with Tregs of the same phenotype with no conditioned medium pre-treatment (control; Figure 6.3). In addition, no obvious differences in the levels of suppression were demonstrated between the oropharyngeal and the laryngeal conditioned medium pre-treatment, regardless of the Treg phenotype (Figure 6.3).



Figure 6.3 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of <u>CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}</u> effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines

Tregs were isolated by FACS from a lymphocyte cone and pre-treated for 48 hours without (control; green) or with conditioned medium collected from the HNSCC cell lines UMSCC-12a (laryngeal; blue) and UMSCC-4 (oropharyngeal; red). Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells using a CFSE proliferation assay.

Equally, irrespective of the conditioned medium used, similar levels of suppression were induced on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells by CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs which had been pre-treated with and without conditioned medium (Figure 6.4). Pre-treatment of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs with conditioned medium from the oropharyngeal cell line (UMSCC-4) however, induced a lower level of suppression compared with Tregs of the same phenotype incubated with UMSCC-12a conditioned medium (Figure 6.4).



Figure 6.4 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of <u>CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺</u> effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines

Tregs were isolated by FACS from a lymphocyte cone and incubated for 48 hours without (control; green) or with conditioned medium collected from the HNSCC cell lines UMSCC-12a (laryngeal; blue) and UMSCC-4 (oropharyngeal; red). Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells using a CFSE proliferation assay.

6.3.3.2 Influence of conditioned medium collected from dissociated HNSCC specimens on Treg suppressive activity

CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs pre-treated with conditioned medium from dissociated tumour had similar suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻ CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with control Tregs of the same phenotype, regardless of the conditioned medium used (Figure 6.5). Pre-treating CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs with conditioned medium from a dissociated laryngeal tumour specimen tended to induce a lower level of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with Tregs of the same phenotype incubated without conditioned medium (control) or with conditioned medium from the oropharyngeal tumour specimen; whereas

the conditioned medium from the oropharyngeal tumour appeared to have no effect on Treg suppressive activity (Figure 6.5).



Figure 6.5 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of <u>CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+}</u> effector T cells by Tregs pre-treated with or without conditioned medium from dissociated tumour specimens

Tregs were isolated by FACS from a lymphocyte cone and incubated for 48 hours without (control; green) or with conditioned medium collected from dissociated laryngeal (blue) or oropharyngeal (red) tumour specimens incubated overnight. Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells using a CFSE proliferation assay.

CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} Tregs incubated with conditioned medium from a dissociated laryngeal tumour specimen appeared to have slightly greater suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells compared with Tregs of the same phenotype which had not been pre-treated with conditioned medium or incubated with conditioned medium from an oropharyngeal tumour specimen (Figure 6.6). In contrast, the CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Treg population had similar suppressive activity pre-treated with or without conditioned medium, irrespective of the tumour subsite from which the conditioned medium was obtained (Figure 6.6).



Figure 6.6 Mean percentage of suppression on the proliferation of <u>CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺</u> effector T cells by Tregs incubated with or without conditioned medium from dissociated tumour specimens

Tregs were isolated by FACS from a lymphocyte cone and incubated for 48 hours without (control; green) or with conditioned medium collected from dissociated laryngeal (blue) or oropharyngeal (red) tumour specimens incubated overnight. Tregs were assessed for suppressive activity on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁺CD127⁺ effector T cells using a CFSE proliferation assay.

6.4 Discussion

Numerous cytokines have been identified in HNSCC patient samples, both in the periphery and the tumour microenvironment, however their precise role in both progression and inhibition of tumour growth is not fully understood. The aim of the current study was to examine the secretion of two immunosuppressive cytokines, TGF- β and IL-10, by HNSCC cell lines and freshly dissociated tumour tissue from different head and neck subsites. In addition, the influence of secretions from cell lines and tumour specimens on the suppressive activity of Tregs was also investigated. To the author's knowledge this is the first study to assess the effect of cancer cell line/tumour specimen secretions on Treg function.

6.4.1 Secretion of TGF-β and IL-10 by HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens

Cancer cell lines provide a snap shot of what might have been occurring in the tumour at the time of resection and present an important starting point in the search for therapies and investigation into tumour biology when clinical samples are less readily available. However, cell lines can alter over time of culture and therefore after initial studies clinical specimens should be used to validate findings (Lansford, 1999; Lin *et al.*, 2007).

6.4.1.1 Secretion of TGF-β

The head and neck cancer cell lines were originally derived from different HNSCC patients with variations in the specimen site, staging and HPV status, even so, all five cell lines were observed to secrete detectable levels of TGF- β over the 96 hour culture period. It was noted that the HPV negative cell line (UMSCC-4) secreted slightly higher levels of TGF- β compared with the HPV positive cell line (UMSCC-47) although the concentration of TGF- β measured following 96 hours of culture was similar. The concentration of TGF- β increased steadily over 96 hours for UMSCC-12a and the oropharyngeal cell line UMSCC-81b whilst UMSCC-4 and UMSCC-11b reached a peak concentration at 48 hour of culture before the levels decreased over the remaining 48 hours; this may have been due to the culture wells becoming confluent and overcrowded, with the death of cells causing the secretion of TGF- β to decrease. The oral cavity cell line UMSCC-47 showed varying concentrations of the cytokine over the culture period and a repeat of the ELISA would confirm the trend of TGF- β secretion over 96 hours of culture. The dissociated laryngeal tumour infiltrated nodal specimen, cultured overnight, secreted low but detectable levels of TGF- β however, the oropharyngeal tumour infiltrated nodal specimen did not secrete any detectable levels of TGF- β which is in contrast to the results shown by the oropharyngeal cell lines UMSCC-4 and UMSCC-81b. The differences in the levels of TGF- β measured in the HNSCC cell lines and freshly dissociated tumour specimens could be attributed to the length of culture, 96 hours compared with overnight. Additionally, the culture conditions were different, with the cell lines cultured in a 6 well plate in 1ml of medium (1×10^6) squamous carcinoma cells) whereas the tumour specimens were cultured in a 25cm³ flask in 5ml of medium (approximately 2 x 10^7 cells); it could therefore be suggested that in 5ml of medium any secreted TGF- β may be too dilute to be measured by ELISA. However, having only assessed one laryngeal and one oropharyngeal tumour sample increasing the number of patient specimens assessed would help establish the secretion of TGF- β by dissociated tumour samples and determine whether there may be subsite differences.

The fact that TGF- β was detected in HNSCC cell line conditioned medium is in contrast to Chen and colleagues (1999) who reported that TGF- β was not detected by ELISA in their head and neck cancer cell line supernatant samples, but does agree with the findings of Young *et al.* (1996) who detected TGF- β in five head and neck cancer cell lines and freshly excised cultured head and neck cancer specimens (primary tumour and metastatic nodal specimens). The differences reported could be due to the use of different HNSCC cell lines, however with Chen and colleagues and the current study both analysing UMSCC-11b, it could also be attributed to the different methods of culture and time of supernatant collection. For example, Chen *et al.* (1993) cultured the cell lines in 12ml of medium and collected supernatant after 48 hours, whereas Young and colleagues and the current study cultured in 1ml of medium and collected supernatant after 24 hours and over a 96 hour period, respectively. In clinical samples, TGF- β has been shown to be secreted by HNSCC tumour samples (Gasparoto *et al.*, 2010; Lu *et al.*, 2004) and the mRNA of the cytokine was also demonstrated to be expressed by oral SCC tumour specimens (Lee *et al.*, 2010a).

6.4.1.2 Secretion of IL-10

None of the HNSCC cell lines investigated secreted detectable levels of IL-10 over the 96 hour culture period. However, both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal dissociated tumour specimens were observed to secrete detectable levels of the cytokine at similar concentrations.

These results are in agreement with Chen *et al.* (1999) who also failed to detect the secretion of IL-10 in the supernatant of HNSCC cell lines. The absence of IL-10 secretion may be due to the squamous carcinoma cells not producing the cytokine or the concentration of the cytokine being too low for detection by ELISA. However, in line with

the current study, IL-10 has previously been detected in freshly excised cultured head and neck cancer specimens (n=12, Gaparoto *et al.*, 2010; n=283, Young *et al.*, 1996). Due to the secretion of the cytokine by freshly dissociated tumour specimens and not in all HNSCC cell lines it is suggested that the cytokine is secreted by infiltrating immune cells or fibroblasts from the stroma instead of the squamous carcinoma cells.

To further understand the immunosuppressive microenvironment created within HNSCC the secretion of TGF- β and IL-10 was investigated. It is well known that a plethora of cytokines are present in the tumour microenvironment which may play a role in influencing both the promotion and inhibition of HNSCC growth. However, it was decided to start assessing the cytokine network by focusing on the secretion of two immunosuppressive cytokines known to be involved in Treg induction (Section 1.11.2) and Treg suppressive activity (Shevach, 2009).

6.4.2 The influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on the functional capacity of Tregs

Subsequent to the assessment of cytokine secretion by HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens it was questioned whether the head and neck cancer secretions, including TGF- β and IL-10, would influence the suppressive activity of Tregs, making them more or less suppressive on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells. This was examined by incubating Tregs with culture medium from HNSCC cell lines or tumour infiltrated nodal specimens before assessing their suppressive activity using a CFSE proliferation assay.

6.4.2.1 Conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens

To continue with the study's aim of examining different HNSCC subsites a laryngeal and an oropharyngeal cell line and tumour specimen were chosen for assessment of their effects on Treg suppressive activity. The laryngeal cell line UMSCC-12a and the oropharyngeal cell line UMSCC-4 were chosen due to TGF- β being detected at high levels in their conditioned medium. UMSCC-4 is a HPV negative cell line and was chosen due to

the HPV status of the tumour specimens in the current study being unknown. In future work it would be interesting to assess whether the HPV status of a tumour influences Treg suppression, however due to time limits this was not able to be investigated.

Tregs were cultured with conditioned medium from the HNSCC cell lines following 48 hours of culture due to this culture period having detectable levels of TGF- β for both cell lines (UMSCC-12a and UMSCC-4), reaching a peak concentration for UMSCC-4. Previous studies in the laboratory, incubating PBMC with head and neck cancer cell line conditioned medium, showed that the greatest level of proliferative activity was at 48 hours of incubation compared with measurements taken at 24, 72 and 96 hours. Consequently, isolated Tregs were incubated with conditioned medium, collected following either 48 hours of culture with HNSCC cell lines or following overnight incubation with a dissociated tumour specimen, for 48 hours before the CFSE assay was performed. The conditioned medium was diluted to prevent any adverse effect from toxic waste products secreted by the cells.

6.4.2.2 Optimisation of effector T cell culture for subsequent assessment of Treg activity

To assess the suppressive activity of Tregs on autologous effector T cell proliferation it was important to maximally maintain the effector populations during the 72 hours that the Treg were pre-incubated with or without conditioned medium. To the author's knowledge this method has not previously been performed by other research groups and therefore with no protocols for comparison the method had to be optimised.

Initially the sorted effector T cells were cultured with Human T-Activator CD3/CD28 dynabeads and 100U/ml IL-2 for the 72 hour 'waiting' period. However, it was observed that there was no narrow parent peak during the CFSE assay for the effector T cells which had received stimulation during the 72 hour 'waiting' period before being cultured without stimulation during the CFSE assay. The parent peak represents the population of cells that have not undergone division and provides the reference peak needed to calculate the proliferation index of dividing effector T cells, and is therefore essential in determining the suppressive activity of Tregs (Section 3.2.3). The absence of a narrow parent peak was possibly due to the effector T cells receiving stimulation during the

'waiting' period and that the residual presence of CD3/CD28 dynabeads caused the effector T cells to continue to divide, even though they were under non-stimulatory conditions in the CFSE assay.

To 'recover' the parent population several different culture conditions for the effector T cells during the 72 hour 'waiting' period were set up: CD3/CD28 dynabeads and IL-2, IL-2 only, no stimulation and freezing down of the effector population. A broad parent peak was again observed for the effector cells stimulated with dynabeads and IL-2 during the 72 hour 'waiting' period whilst the remaining culture conditions provided a narrow parent peak during the CFSE assay. However, for the effector T cell population which had been frozen down a number of cells had died due to the freezing process and the cells cultured with no stimulation did not look as 'healthy' when stained with trypan blue. It was therefore decided that the effector T cells would be cultured with IL-2 only for the 72 hour 'waiting' period prior to the set up of the CFSE assay as this culture condition gave the essential parent peak whilst maintaining the population at a good cell number sufficient for use in the assay. To remain constant, Tregs were also cultured with IL-2 only during the 72 hour incubation period with or without conditioned medium.

6.4.2.3 Suppressive activity of Tregs cultured with HNSCC conditioned medium

IL-10 and TGF- β are known to have a role in the induction of Tregs and the suppressive activity exerted by Tregs on effector populations (Section 1.11.2; Shevach, 2009). It was therefore of interest whether IL-10 and TGF- β , measured in the conditioned medium of dissociated tumour specimens and HNSCC cell lines, along with the plethora of secretions within the tumour microenvironment, would have a direct influence on the functional activity of Tregs. If the secretions in the tumour environment were to affect Treg function it would be hypothesised that their suppressive activity would be enhanced, to continually assist in the suppression of the host's anti-tumour attack.

To investigate this conditioned medium from HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens were incubated with Tregs before assessing their suppressive activity on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells. The regulatory population was isolated from two different lymphocyte cones which had been donated by healthy individuals. It was important to use Tregs and effector T cells from healthy donors, and not HNSCC patients, as these populations would not have previously been influenced by the presence of a tumour and therefore the effect of HNSCC secretions could be fully examined. Additionally, the large number of lymphocytes obtained from the cones meant that the same sample could be used to assess the influence of two HNSCC cell lines and two head and neck tumour specimens on Treg function.

The results obtained from the two lymphocyte cones showed that CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-} and CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs cultured with and without conditioned medium induce similar levels of suppression on the proliferation of autologous effector T cells, irrespective of the effector cell phenotype and the head and neck subsite from which the conditioned medium was collected; thereby suggesting that tumour secretions perhaps do not directly influence Treg suppressive activity. Due to time constraints no further lymphocyte cones could be assessed but continuing the study would assist in determining whether tumour secretions do affect Treg functional activity.

6.4.3 Conclusion

The current study has demonstrated that HNSCC cell lines and tumour specimens secrete TGF- β whereas only the dissociated tumour samples secrete detectable levels of IL-10. The assessment of head and neck cancer cell lines has provided an important starting point investigating the secretion of immunosuppressive cytokines. However, the use of primary tumour specimens is essential and increasing the number of HNSCC specimens would validate current results and provide a greater overview of the secretion of TGF- β and IL-10 in the tumour microenvironment. Furthermore, by separating immune cells, fibroblasts and squamous carcinoma cells from the dissociated tumour specimens, the cells responsible for the secretion of IL-10 in the HNSCC microenvironment could be determined.

In general, the incubation of Tregs with conditioned medium from HNSCC cell line and tumour specimens does not influence the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells. However, due to the effect of HNSCC conditioned medium only being assessed on two normal PBMC samples a larger study would need to be conducted to confirm this trend. As discussed in Chapter 5, Tregs also have the functional capacity to suppress the secretion of cytokines by effector T cells; therefore the influence of pre-treated Tregs on cytokine secretion is another mechanism of suppression that could be investigated by future experiments. Additionally, this pilot study has established a successful experimental set up that will enable the influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on the proliferation and functionality of effector T cells along with their conversion to the regulatory phenotype to be assessed by future work.

Chapter 7.

Discussion

Although an estimated 7.6 million people die from cancer each year (Ferlay *et al.*, 2010) the tumour microenvironment remains poorly understood. In fact, the tumour microenvironment is increasingly regarded to be as complex if not more so than that of normal tissue (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011). A recent review by Hanahan and Weinberg (2011) outlined several hallmarks of cancer that provide the tumour with the capabilities to develop, progress and metastasise including: sustained proliferative signalling, evading growth suppressors, replicative immortality, angiogenesis, invasion, resisting cell death and avoiding immune destruction. Furthering our understanding of the different cancer hallmarks will not only unveil the complex and intricate mechanisms that have remained unclear to scientists for years but will also provide the information necessary to identify novel therapeutic targets, new prognostic markers and the development of treatment strategies that will have the potential to improve cancer survival rates.

The current study focused on one of the mechanisms suggested to be employed by HNSCC to evade the host's anti-tumour immune attack and promote tumour growth and development, the presence of the Treg population. There is a constant and complex interplay between the tumour microenvironment and the immune system, and it is the balance between immune evasion, suppression and attack that influences the success or failure of the host's anti-tumour response.

It was demonstrated that the prevalence of circulating CD127^{low/-} Tregs, regardless of the level of CD25 expression, was similar between HNSCC patients and healthy controls. However, CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs isolated from HNSCC patients induced a significantly greater level of suppression on the proliferation of CD4⁺CD25⁻CD127^{-/+} effector T cells compared with those from healthy individuals, reinforcing the fact that function should always be investigated alongside frequency. Patients with nodal involvement were shown to be associated with an elevated frequency and suppressive activity of peripheral CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs compared to patients with no nodal involvement. Additionally, patients with advanced stage tumours were also found to have an increased level of CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs compared with early stage tumours. It was consistently observed that CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs, for a number of different HNSCC patient cohorts, induced a greater level of suppression compared with CD4⁺CD25^{high}CD127^{low/-} Tregs. However, it remains unclear whether the presence of the

regulatory population promotes the growth and spread of the tumour or whether these aspects cause an elevation in Treg frequency and/or suppressive activity.

The tumour microenvironment was demonstrated to have a significantly higher percentage of Tregs with a corresponding lower frequency of effector T cells compared to that of their matching peripheral blood lymphocytes, suggesting the generation of a localised suppressive environment within the tumour. However, the levels of suppression induced by tumour infiltrating and peripheral Tregs on their autologous effector T cells was similar. Despite this, the elevated frequency of Tregs, in comparison to effector T cells, infiltrating the tumour microenvironment is likely to induce a greater overall level of immune suppression than that observed in the periphery.

The secretion of two immunosuppressive cytokines that are known to assist with tumour immune suppression, TGF- β and IL-10 was also investigated. In the HNSCC microenvironment detectable levels of TGF- β in the laryngeal specimen and IL-10 in both the laryngeal and oropharyngeal samples were measured, however, only TGF- β was secreted by the HNSCC cell lines suggesting that it may be other cells rather than the tumour epithelial cells that are secreting IL-10. It was shown that HNSCC secretions, from both head and neck cancer cell lines and dissociated tumour specimens, do not directly influence the suppressive activity of Tregs on the proliferation of effector T cells, however, due to time constraints, further experiments would need to be conducted to confirm this trend.

The current study has contributed to our understanding of Tregs in HNSCC and it is important that research continues to develop our knowledge of the head and neck tumour microenvironment. This will not only involve confirming the presence of various cell types but also understanding their function and role in the vast number of mechanisms and pathways that are acting to promote as well as suppress tumour growth; thereby providing the opportunity to translate research observations into successful clinical strategies.

It is due to our increased understanding of the different cancer hallmarks that the use of antibody-based therapies, in combination with radio- and chemotherapy regimes, has successfully become established in cancer treatment strategies over the past 15 years; in HNSCC this has included the introduction of cetuximab which targets the EGFR inhibiting the induction of downstream pathways. The receptor has been implicated as one of the mechanisms used by HNSCC to evade controlled cell growth and high expression of the

receptor is associated with poor prognosis (Ang *et al.*, 2002; Chung *et al.*, 2006; Hitt *et al.*, 2005; Laimer *et al.*, 2007; Rubin Grandis *et al.*, 1998). In combination with radio/chemotherapy, cetuximab has been shown to improve the overall survival rate and is relatively well tolerated by HNSCC patients (Bonner *et al.*, 2010; Reeves *et al.*, 2011). However, the precise mechanisms induced by molecule specific drugs remain unclear, including their immunomodulatory effects. For example, the tyrosine kinase inhibitors imatinib and sunitinib, that induce growth arrest or apoptosis, have also been shown to reduce Treg frequency, modulate their suppressive function and limit their infiltration in to the tumour (Larmonier *et al.*, 2008; Xin *et al.*, 2009), consequently impairing the role of Tregs in tumour mediated suppression. Increasing our knowledge of the different pathways and interactions that occur within the tumour microenvironment and the various factors that influence the immune infiltrate will improve our understanding of the molecular mechanisms influenced by current therapies, enabling optimal treatment strategies to be implemented as well as assisting further in the development of new therapeutic agents.

Despite therapeutic advances in the treatment of HNSCC the 5 year survival rate remains poor. Consequently, research into head and neck tumour biology is also focusing on biomarkers which will provide further information on prognosis, treatment response and assist with the selection of treatment regimes. The HPV status of a patient's tumour has over recent years become a widely accepted prognostic marker that identifies a distinct group of head and neck cancers that are associated with improved overall survival. However, the interactions that occur between the virus and other tumour associated pathways remain unclear (Lucs *et al.*, 2013). Emerging biomarkers include proteins such as the excision repair cross-complementation group 1 enzyme (ERCC1) and Ku80, involved in DNA damage repair networks, along with hypoxia-inducible factor 1, that are all showing the potential to predict HNSCC patient outcome following chemotherapy and/or radiotherapy (Aebersold *et al.*, 2001; Jun *et al.*, 2008; Moeller *et al.*, 2011). There is also the possibility of immune components, such as Tregs, to become established as prognostic determinants.

The ultimate aim of HNSCC research is to provide the knowledge necessary to develop and deliver therapies that are tailored towards the patient's individual biological disease state (Calabrese *et al.*, 2012), improving their quality of life, reducing their chance of recurrence and increasing their overall survival.

7.1 Future work

The current study successfully optimised and established a number of techniques that can now be used to expand investigations into other aspects of Treg function and HNSCC biology.

It was of interest to the study whether individual head and neck tumour subsites would have different effects on the Treg population. Using a stringent Treg phenotype, the results observed using flow cytometry in both the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment of HNSCC patients found no subsite differences for either the frequency or the functional activity of Tregs. However, this study focused on only two HNSCC subsites, the larynx and oropharynx, and the HPV status of the patient group was unknown. Therefore broadening the patient cohort in future work to include patients with cancer of the nasopharynx, hypopharynx and oral cavity, as well as determining their HPV status, would determine whether various HNSCC subsites have different influences on Treg frequency or function.

It was important to assess both the frequency and function of Tregs, and it was observed that peripheral and tumour infiltrating Tregs induced similar levels of suppression. If this trend is shown to be maintained through the assessment of further clinical samples, future studies could just investigate peripheral Tregs to give an indication of functional activity. This would reduce both time and cost and would be simpler as the number of lymphocytes isolated from the periphery is not as limited as the tumour microenvironment.

To gain a further insight into the cytokine network within HNSCC, separating immune cells, fibroblasts and squamous carcinoma cells from the freshly dissociated HNSCC specimens would determine which cells are responsible for the secretion of IL-10 in the tumour microenvironment. Additionally, by assessing more clinical samples and increasing the profile of cytokines examined, a greater overview of cytokine secretion in the tumour microenvironment could be determined as well as establishing whether secretions are associated with different clinicopathological features.

To further increase our understanding of the interactions that occur between Tregs and immune cells of the host's anti-tumour response, the suppressive activity of Tregs on $CD8^+$ cytotoxic T cell proliferation could be assessed; to the author's knowledge this has

not previously been assessed with CD127^{low/-} Tregs in cancer studies. Additionally, as outlined in previous chapters, Treg functional activity could also be examined by their ability to suppress the secretion of cytokines by effector T cells, which may be another way by which the Tregs exert their pro-tumour effects. Furthermore, by assessing the influence of HNSCC conditioned medium on Treg functional activity, a method that will enable the influence of head and neck tumour secretions on the effector T cell population has been established, this will enable investigations into their functional activity and their induction to the Treg phenotype, an aspect not known to have been assessed by previous HNSCC studies.

It is currently unclear whether Tregs are associated with a positive or negative prognosis in HNSCC, however, the current study has provided data that could be assessed in retrospective investigations to establish whether the frequency, in particular of CD4⁺CD25^{inter}CD127^{low/-}, or the suppressive activity of Tregs is associated with prognosis. In gastric cancer patients, an elevated frequency of peripheral Tregs was associated with poorer survival compared with patients who had low Treg levels (Kono *et al.*, 2006; Sasada *et al.*, 2003), whereas the opposite trend was reported in renal cancer (Liotta *et al.*, 2010). However, to the author's knowledge these are the only two studies to relate the frequency of Tregs, identified by flow cytometry, from patients with solid tumours to prognosis. It would therefore be of great interest to establish whether Treg frequency or suppressive activity, in both the periphery and tumour microenvironment, has the potential to be used as a prognostic determinant in HNSCC.

7.2 Conclusion

This study has further developed our understanding of the Treg population in HNSCC, highlighting differences between the frequency and suppressive activity of Tregs with respect to tumour stage and nodal involvement and also between the peripheral circulation and tumour microenvironment. By continuing HNSCC research, the cellular pathways, interactions and immunosuppressive strategies implemented by the tumour can be further understood in the hope of generating new therapeutic targets, improving the patient's quality of life and providing better prognostic information.

References

Aebersold, D. M., Burri, P., Beer, K. T., Laissue, J., Djonov, V., Greiner, R. H., and Semenza, G. L. (2001). Expression of hypoxia-inducible factor-1alpha: a novel predictive and prognostic parameter in the radiotherapy of oropharyngeal cancer. Cancer Res *61*, 2911-2916.

Allan, S. E., Crome, S. Q., Crellin, N. K., Passerini, L., Steiner, T. S., Bacchetta, R., Roncarolo, M. G., and Levings, M. K. (2007). Activation-induced FOXP3 in human T effector cells does not suppress proliferation or cytokine production. International Immunology *19*, 345-354.

Almand, B., Resser, J. R., Lindman, B., Nadaf, S., Clark, J. I., Kwon, E. D., Carbone, D. P., and Gabrilovich, D. I. (2000). Clinical significance of defective dendritic cell differentiation in cancer. Clinical Cancer Research *6*, 1755-1766.

American Cancer Society (2011a) Laryngeal and Hypopharyngeal Cancer Detailed Guide http://www.cancer.org/cancer/laryngealandhypopharyngealcancer/detailedguide/index

American Cancer Society (2011b) Oral Cavity and Oropharyngeal Cancer Detailed Guide http://www.cancer.org/cancer/oralcavityandoropharyngealcancer/detailedguide/index

Anantharaman, D., Marron, M., Lagiou, P., Samoli, E., Ahrens, W., Pohlabeln, H., Slamova, A., Schejbalova, M., Merletti, F., Richiardi, L., *et al.* (2011). Population attributable risk of tobacco and alcohol for upper aerodigestive tract cancer. Oral Oncol *47*, 725-731.

Andersen, M. H., Svane, I. M., Kvistborg, P., Nielsen, O. J., Balslev, E., Reker, S., Becker, J. C., and Straten, P. T. (2005). Immunogenicity of Bcl-2 in patients with cancer. Blood *105*, 728-734.

Ang, K. K., Berkey, B. A., Tu, X., Zhang, H. Z., Katz, R., Hammond, E. H., Fu, K. K., and Milas, L. (2002). Impact of epidermal growth factor receptor expression on survival and pattern of relapse in patients with advanced head and neck carcinoma. Cancer Res *62*, 7350-7356.

Ang, K. K., Harris, J., Wheeler, R., Weber, R., Rosenthal, D. I., Nguyen-Tan, P. F., Westra, W. H., Chung, C. H., Jordan, R. C., Lu, C., *et al.* (2010). Human Papillomavirus and Survival of Patients with Oropharyngeal Cancer. New England Journal of Medicine *363*, 24-35.

Argiris, A., Karamouzis, M. V., Raben, D., and Ferris, R. L. (2008). Head and neck cancer. Lancet *371*, 1695-1709.

Attig, S., Hennenlotter, J., Pawelec, G., Klein, G., Koch, S. D., Pircher, H., Feyerabend, S., Wernet, D., Stenzl, A., Rammensee, H. G., and Gouttefangeas, C. (2009). Simultaneous infiltration of polyfunctional effector and suppressor T cells into renal cell carcinomas. Cancer Res *69*, 8412-8419.

Badoual, C., Hans, S., Rodriguez, J., Peyrard, S., Klein, C., Agueznay, N. E., Mosseri, V., Laccourreye, O., Bruneval, P., Fridman, W. H., *et al.* (2006). Prognostic value of tumor-infiltrating CD4(+) T-cell subpopulations in head and neck cancers. Clinical Cancer Research *12*, 465-472.

Baecher-Allan, C., Brown, J. A., Freeman, G. J., and Hafler, D. A. (2001). CD4+CD25(high) regulatory cells in human peripheral blood. Journal of Immunology *167*, 1245-1253.

Baecher-Allan, C., Wolf, E., and Hafler, D. A. (2005). Functional analysis of highly defined, FACS-isolated populations of human regulatory CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells. Clinical Immunology *115*, 10-18.

Baitsch, L., Baumgaertner, P., Devevre, E., Raghav, S. K., Legat, A., Barba, L., Wieckowski, S., Bouzourene, H., Deplancke, B., Romero, P., *et al.* (2011). Exhaustion of tumor-specific CD8(+) T cells in metastases from melanoma patients. J Clin Invest *121*, 2350-2360.

Baitsch, L., Fuertes-Marraco, S. A., Legat, A., Meyer, C., and Speiser, D. E. (2012). The three main stumbling blocks for anticancer T cells. Trends in immunology *33*, 364-372.

Balz, V., Scheckenbach, K., Gotte, K., Bockmuhl, U., Petersen, I., and Bier, H. (2003). Is the p53 inactivation frequency in squamous cell carcinomas of the head and neck underestimated? Analysis of p53 exons 2-11 and human papillomavirus 16/18 E6 transcripts in 123 unselected tumor specimens. Cancer Res *63*, 1188-1191.

Bao, S. H., Wang, X. P., De Lin, Q., Wang, W. J., Yin, G. J., and Qiu, L. H. (2011). Decidual CD4+CD25+CD127dim/- regulatory T cells in patients with unexplained recurrent spontaneous miscarriage. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol *155*, 94-98.

Bates, G. J., Fox, S. B., Han, C., Leek, R. D., Garcia, J. F., Harris, A. L., and Banham, A. H. (2006). Quantification of regulatory T cells enables the identification of high-risk breast cancer patients and those at risk of late relapse. J Clin Oncol *24*, 5373-5380.

Battaglia, M., Gregori, S., Bacchetta, R., and Roncarolo, M. G. (2006). Tr1 cells: From discovery to their clinical application. Seminars in Immunology *18*, 120-127.

BD Biosciences (2009) BD FACSAria II User's Guide http://www.bdbiosciences.com/resources/facsaria/index.jsp#ariausers Bennett, C. L., Christie, J., Ramsdell, F., Brunkow, M. E., Ferguson, P. J., Whitesell, L., Kelly, T. E., Saulsbury, F. T., Chance, P. F., and Ochs, H. D. (2001). The immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked syndrome (IPEX) is caused by mutations of FOXP3. Nature genetics 27, 20-21.

Berendt, M. J., and North, R. J. (1980). T-cell mediated suppression of anti-tumour immunity. An explanation for progressive growth of an immunogenic tumour. Journal of Experimental Medicine *151*, 69-80.

Besser, M. J., Shapira-Frommer, R., Treves, A. J., Zippel, D., Itzhaki, O., Hershkovitz, L., Levy, D., Kubi, A., Hovav, E., Chermoshniuk, N., *et al.* (2010). Clinical responses in a phase II study using adoptive transfer of short-term cultured tumor infiltration lymphocytes in metastatic melanoma patients. Clin Cancer Res *16*, 2646-2655.

Bettini, M. L., and Vignali, D. A. A. (2010). Development of thymically derived natural regulatory T cells. Year in Immunology 2 *1183*, 1-12.

Bierie, B., and Moses, H. L. (2006). Tumour microenvironment: TGFbeta: the molecular Jekyll and Hyde of cancer. Nature reviews Cancer *6*, 506-520.

Birebent, B., Lorho, R., Lechartier, H., de Guibert, S., Alizadeh, M., Vu, N., Beauplet, A., Robillard, N., and Semana, G. (2004). Suppressive properties of human CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells are dependent on CTLA-4 expression. Eur J Immunol *34*, 3485-3496.

Bonelli, M., Savitskaya, A., von Dalwigk, K., Steiner, C. W., Aletaha, D., Smolen, J. S., and Scheinecker, C. (2008). Quantitative and qualitative deficiencies of regulatory T cells in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE). International Immunology *20*, 861-868.

Bonner, J. A., Harari, P. M., Giralt, J., Cohen, R. B., Jones, C. U., Sur, R. K., Raben, D., Baselga, J., Spencer, S. A., Zhu, J., *et al.* (2010). Radiotherapy plus cetuximab for locoregionally advanced head and neck cancer: 5-year survival data from a phase 3 randomised trial, and relation between cetuximab-induced rash and survival. The lancet oncology *11*, 21-28.

Borsellino, G., Kleinewietfeld, M., Di Mitri, D., Sternjak, A., Diamantini, A., Giometto, R., Hopner, S., Centonze, D., Bernardi, G., Dell'Acqua, M. L., *et al.* (2007). Expression of ectonucleotidase CD39 by Foxp3+ Treg cells: hydrolysis of extracellular ATP and immune suppression. Blood *110*, 1225-1232.

Bose, A., Chakraborty, T., Chakraborty, K., Pal, S., and Baral, R. (2008). Dysregulation in immune functions is reflected in tumor cell cytotoxicity by peripheral blood mononuclear cells from head and neck squamous cell carcinoma patients. Cancer Immun *8*, 10.

Bosetti, C., Gallus, S., Peto, R., Negri, E., Talamini, R., Tavani, A., Franceschi, S., and La Vecchia, C. (2008). Tobacco smoking, smoking cessation, and cumulative risk of upper aerodigestive tract cancers. American journal of epidemiology *167*, 468-473.

Boucek, J., Mrkvan, T., Chovanec, M., Kuchar, M., Betka, J., Boucek, V., Hladikova, M., Eckschlager, T., and Rihova, B. (2010). Regulatory T cells and their prognostic value for patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. J Cell Mol Med *14*, 426-433.

Brandacher, G., Perathoner, A., Ladurner, R., Schneeberger, S., Obrist, P., Winkler, C., Werner, E. R., Werner-Felmayer, G., Weiss, H. G., Gobel, G., *et al.* (2006). Prognostic value of indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase expression in colorectal cancer: Effect on tumor-infiltrating T cells. Clinical Cancer Research *12*, 1144-1151.

Brennan, J. A., Boyle, J. O., Koch, W. M., Goodman, S. N., Hruban, R. H., Eby, Y. J., Couch, M. J., Forastiere, A. A., and Sidransky, D. (1995). Association between cigarette smoking and mutation of the p53 gene in squamous-cell carcinoma of the head and neck. N Engl J Med *332*, 712-717.

Calabrese, L., Ostuni, A., Ansarin, M., Giugliano, G., Maffini, F., Alterio, D., Rocca, M. C., Petralia, G., Bruschini, R., and Chiesa, F. (2012). Future challenges in head and neck cancer: from the bench to the bedside? Critical reviews in oncology/hematology *84 Suppl 1*, e90-96.

Cancer Research UK (2013a) CancerStats Key Facts Laryngeal Cancer http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/cancer-info/cancerstats/keyfacts/laryngeal-cancer/

Cancer Research UK (2013b) CancerStats Key Facts Oral Cancer http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/cancer-info/cancerstats/keyfacts/oral-cancer/

Cancer Research UK, Laryngeal cancer statistics http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/cancer-info/cancerstats/types/larynx/

Cancer Research UK, Oral cancer statistics http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/cancer-info/cancerstats/types/oral/

Cantor, H., and Boyse, E. A. (1975). Functional subclasses of T lymphocytes bearing different Ly antigens. II. Cooperation between subclasses of Ly+ cells in the generation of killer activity. Journal of Experimental Medicine *141*, 1390-1399.

Cesana, G. C., DeRaffele, G., Cohen, S., Moroziewicz, D., Mitcham, J., Stoutenburg, J., Cheung, K., Hesdorffer, C., Kim-Schulze, S., and Kaufman, H. L. (2006). Characterization of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in patients treated with high-dose interleukin-2 for metastatic melanoma or renal cell carcinoma. J Clin Oncol *24*, 1169-1177.

Chaput, N., Louafi, S., Bardier, A., Charlotte, F., Vaillant, J. C., Menegaux, F., Rosenzwajg, M., Lemoine, F., Klatzmann, D., and Taieb, J. (2009). Identification of CD8(+)CD25(+)Foxp3(+) suppressive T cells in colorectal cancer tissue. Gut *58*, 520-529.

Chen, W., and Konkel, J. E. (2010). TGF-beta and 'adaptive' Foxp3(+) regulatory T cells. Journal of molecular cell biology 2, 30-36.

Chen, W. J., Jin, W. W., Hardegen, N., Lei, K. J., Li, L., Marinos, N., McGrady, G., and Wahl, S. M. (2003). Conversion of peripheral CD4(+)CD25(-) naive T cells to CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T cells by TGF-beta induction of transcription factor Foxp3. Journal of Experimental Medicine *198*, 1875-1886.

Chen, Z., Malhotra, P. S., Thomas, G. R., Ondrey, P. G., Duffey, D. C., Smith, C. W., Enamorado, N., Yeh, N. T., Kroog, G. S., Rudy, S., *et al.* (1999). Expression of proinflammatory and proangiogenic cytokines in patients with head and neck cancer. Clinical Cancer Research *5*, 1369-1379.

Chi, L. J., Lu, H. T., Li, G. L., Wang, X. M., Su, Y., Xu, W. H., and Shen, B. Z. (2010). Involvement of T helper type 17 and regulatory T cell activity in tumour immunology of bladder carcinoma. Clin Exp Immunol *161*, 480-489.

Chikamatsu, K., Sakakura, K., Whiteside, T. L., and Furuya, N. (2007). Relationships between regulatory T cells and CD8+effector populations in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Head and Neck-Journal for the Sciences and Specialties of the Head and Neck 29, 120-127.

Choong, N., and Vokes, E. (2008). Expanding role of the medical oncologist in the management of head and neck cancer. Ca-a Cancer Journal for Clinicians 58, 32-53.

Chung, C. H., Ely, K., McGavran, L., Varella-Garcia, M., Parker, J., Parker, N., Jarrett, C., Carter, J., Murphy, B. A., Netterville, J., *et al.* (2006). Increased epidermal growth factor receptor gene copy number is associated with poor prognosis in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. J Clin Oncol 24, 4170-4176.

Cohan, D. M., Popat, S., Kaplan, S. E., Rigual, N., Loree, T., and Hicks, W. L., Jr. (2009). Oropharyngeal cancer: current understanding and management. Current opinion in otolaryngology & head and neck surgery *17*, 88-94.

Colombo, M. P., and Piconese, S. (2007). Regulatory-T-cell inhibition versus depletion: the right choice in cancer immunotherapy. Nature reviews Cancer *7*, 880-887.

Curado, M. P., and Hashibe, M. (2009). Recent changes in the epidemiology of head and neck cancer. Current Opinion in Oncology 21, 194-200.

Curiel, T. J., Coukos, G., Zou, L. H., Alvarez, X., Cheng, P., Mottram, P., Evdemon-Hogan, M., Conejo-Garcia, J. R., Zhang, L., Burow, M., *et al.* (2004). Specific recruitment of regulatory T cells in ovarian carcinoma fosters immune privilege and predicts reduced survival. Nature Medicine *10*, 942-949.

Curotto de Lafaille, M. A., and Lafaille, J. J. (2009). Natural and adaptive foxp3+ regulatory T cells: more of the same or a division of labor? Immunity *30*, 626-635.
Curti, A., Pandolfi, S., Valzasina, B., Aluigi, M., Isidori, A., Ferri, E., Salvestrini, V., Bonanno, G., Rutella, S., Durelli, I., *et al.* (2007). Modulation of tryptophan catabolism by human leukemic cells results in the conversion of CD25- into CD25+ T regulatory cells. Blood *109*, 2871-2877.

D'Souza, G., Kreimer, A. R., Viscidi, R., Pawlita, M., Fakhry, C., Koch, W. M., Westra, W. H., and Gillison, M. L. (2007). Case-control study of human papillomavirus and oropharyngeal cancer. N Engl J Med *356*, 1944-1956.

Dayyani, F., Etzel, C. J., Liu, M., Ho, C. H., Lippman, S. M., and Tsao, A. S. (2010). Metaanalysis of the impact of human papillomavirus (HPV) on cancer risk and overall survival in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (HNSCC). Head & neck oncology 2, 15.

de Jong, R. A., Leffers, N., Boezen, H. M., ten Hoor, K. A., van der Zee, A. G., Hollema, H., and Nijman, H. W. (2009). Presence of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes is an independent prognostic factor in type I and II endometrial cancer. Gynecol Oncol *114*, 105-110.

De Santis, G., Ferracin, M., Biondani, A., Caniatti, L., Rosaria Tola, M., Castellazzi, M., Zagatti, B., Battistini, L., Borsellino, G., Fainardi, E., *et al.* (2010). Altered miRNA expression in T regulatory cells in course of multiple sclerosis. J Neuroimmunol 226, 165-171.

de Visser, K. E., Eichten, A., and Coussens, L. M. (2006). Paradoxical roles of the immune system during cancer development. Nature Reviews Cancer *6*, 24-37.

Dejaco, C., Duftner, C., and Schirmer, M. (2006). Are regulatory T-cells linked with aging? Exp Gerontol *41*, 339-345.

Dieckmann, D., Plottner, H., Berchtold, S., Berger, T., and Schuler, G. (2001). Ex vivo isolation and characterization of CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells with regulatory properties from human blood. Journal of Experimental Medicine *193*, 1303-1310.

Distel, L. V., Fickenscher, R., Dietel, K., Hung, A., Iro, H., Zenk, J., Nkenke, E., Buttner, M., Niedobitek, G., and Grabenbauer, G. G. (2009). Tumour infiltrating lymphocytes in squamous cell carcinoma of the oro- and hypopharynx: Prognostic impact may depend on type of treatment and stage of disease. Oral Oncology *45*, E167-E174.

Dudley, M. E., Yang, J. C., Sherry, R., Hughes, M. S., Royal, R., Kammula, U., Robbins, P. F., Huang, J., Citrin, D. E., Leitman, S. F., *et al.* (2008). Adoptive cell therapy for patients with metastatic melanoma: evaluation of intensive myeloablative chemoradiation preparative regimens. J Clin Oncol *26*, 5233-5239.

Dufour, X., Beby-Defaux, A., Agius, G., and Lacau St Guily, J. (2012). HPV and head and neck cancer. European annals of otorhinolaryngology, head and neck diseases *129*, 26-31.

Duray, A., Demoulin, S., Hubert, P., Delvenne, P., and Saussez, S. (2010). Immune Suppression in Head and Neck Cancers: A Review. Clinical & Developmental Immunology.

Elkord, E., Hopcraft, L., Burt, D., and Stern, P. L. (2006). Bead-isolated human CD4(+)CD25(+) T regulatory cells are anergic and significantly suppress proliferation of CD4(+)CD25(-) T responder cells. Clinical Immunology *120*, 232-233.

Fairey, A. S., Courneya, K. S., Field, C. J., and Mackey, J. R. (2002). Physical exercise and immune system function in cancer survivors - A comprehensive review and future directions. Cancer *94*, 539-551.

Fan, C. Y. (2001). Genetic alterations in head and neck cancer: interactions among environmental carcinogens, cell cycle control, and host DNA repair. Current oncology reports *3*, 66-71.

Fantini, M. C., Becker, C., Monteleone, G., Pallone, F., Galle, P. R., and Neurath, M. F. (2004). Cutting edge: TGF-beta induces a regulatory phenotype in CD4+CD25- T cells through Foxp3 induction and down-regulation of Smad7. J Immunol *172*, 5149-5153.

Fattorossi, A., Battaglia, A., Ferrandina, G., Buzzonetti, A., Legge, F., Salutari, V., and Scambia, G. (2004). Lymphocyte composition of tumor draining lymph nodes from cervical and endometrial cancer patients. Gynecol Oncol *92*, 106-115.

Fehervari, Z., and Sakaguchi, S. (2004a). CD4+ Tregs and immune control. J Clin Invest 114, 1209-1217.

Fehervari, Z., and Sakaguchi, S. (2004b). Development and function of CD25(+)CD4(+) regulatory T cells. Current Opinion in Immunology *16*, 203-208.

Feng, X., Li, B., Ye, H., and Long, D. (2011). Increased frequency of CD4+CD25(high)FoxP3+ regulatory T cells in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. Archivum immunologiae et therapiae experimentalis *59*, 309-314.

Ferlay, J., Shin, H. R., Bray, F., Forman, D., Mathers, C., and Parkin, D. M. (2010). Estimates of worldwide burden of cancer in 2008: GLOBOCAN 2008. Int J Cancer *127*, 2893-2917.

Feuerer, M., Hill, J. A., Mathis, D., and Benoist, C. (2009). Foxp3+ regulatory T cells: differentiation, specification, subphenotypes. Nat Immunol *10*, 689-695.

Finn, O. J. (2008). Molecular origins of cancer - Cancer immunology. New England Journal of Medicine *358*, 2704-2715.

Fontenot, J. D., Gavin, M. A., and Rudensky, A. Y. (2003). Foxp3 programs the development and function of CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T cells. Nature Immunology *4*, 330-336.

Fontenot, J. D., Rasmussen, J. P., Williams, L. M., Dooley, J. L., Farr, A. G., and Rudensky, A. Y. (2005). Regulatory T cell lineage specification by the forkhead transcription factor FoxP3. Immunity *22*, 329-341.

Fontenot, J. D., and Rudensky, A. Y. (2004). Molecular aspects of regulatory T cell development. Seminars in Immunology *16*, 73-80.

Franceschi, S., Talamini, R., Barra, S., Baron, A. E., Negri, E., Bidoli, E., Serraino, D., and La Vecchia, C. (1990). Smoking and drinking in relation to cancers of the oral cavity, pharynx, larynx, and esophagus in northern Italy. Cancer Res *50*, 6502-6507.

Frey, D. M., Droeser, R. A., Viehl, C. T., Zlobec, I., Lugli, A., Zingg, U., Oertli, D., Kettelhack, C., Terracciano, L., and Tornillo, L. (2010). High frequency of tumor-infiltrating FOXP3(+) regulatory T cells predicts improved survival in mismatch repair-proficient colorectal cancer patients. Int J Cancer *126*, 2635-2643.

Fridman, W. H., Pages, F., Sautes-Fridman, C., and Galon, J. (2012). The immune contexture in human tumours: impact on clinical outcome. Nature reviews Cancer *12*, 298-306.

Frumento, G., Rotondo, R., Tonetti, M., Damonte, G., Benatti, U., and Ferrara, G. B. (2002). Tryptophan-derived catabolites are responsible for inhibition of T and natural killer cell proliferation induced by indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase. Journal of Experimental Medicine *196*, 459-468.

Gasparoto, T. H., Malaspina, T. S. D., Benevides, L., de Melo, E. J. F., Costa, M., Damante, J. H., Ikoma, M. R. V., Garlet, G. P., Cavassani, K. A., da Silva, J. S., and Campanelli, A. P. (2010). Patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma are characterized by increased frequency of suppressive regulatory T cells in the blood and tumor microenvironment. Cancer Immunol Immunother *59*, 819-828.

Gavin, M. A., Torgerson, T. R., Houston, E., DeRoos, P., Ho, W. Y., Stray-Pedersen, A., Ocheltree, E. L., Greenberg, P. D., Ochs, H. D., and Rudensky, A. Y. (2006). Single-cell analysis of normal and FOXP3-mutant human T cells: FOXP3 expression without regulatory T cell development. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *103*, 6659-6664.

Genden, E. M., Ferlito, A., Bradley, P. J., Rinaldo, A., and Scully, C. (2003). Neck disease and distant metastases. Oral Oncol *39*, 207-212.

Germain, R. N. (2008). Special regulatory T-cell review: A rose by any other name: from suppressor T cells to Tregs, approbation to unbridled enthusiasm. Immunology *123*, 20-27. Gershon, R. K., and Kondo, K. (1971). Infectious Immunological Tolerance. Immunology *21*, 903-912.

Gillison, M. L., Koch, W. M., Capone, R. B., Spafford, M., Westra, W. H., Wu, L., Zahurak, M. L., Daniel, R. W., Viglione, M., Symer, D. E., *et al.* (2000). Evidence for a causal association between human papillomavirus and a subset of head and neck cancers. J Natl Cancer Inst *92*, 709-720.

Gobert, M., Treilleux, I., Bendriss-Vermare, N., Bachelot, T., Goddard-Leon, S., Arfi, V., Biota, C., Doffin, A. C., Durand, I., Olive, D., *et al.* (2009). Regulatory T cells recruited through CCL22/CCR4 are selectively activated in lymphoid infiltrates surrounding primary breast tumors and lead to an adverse clinical outcome. Cancer Res *69*, 2000-2009.

Gonzalez, S. L., Stremlau, M., He, X., Basile, J. R., and Munger, K. (2001). Degradation of the retinoblastoma tumor suppressor by the human papillomavirus type 16 E7 oncoprotein is important for functional inactivation and is separable from proteasomal degradation of E7. J Virol *75*, 7583-7591.

Grabenbauer, G. G., Lahmer, G., Distel, L., and Niedobitek, G. (2006). Tumor-infiltrating cytotoxic T cells but not regulatory T cells predict outcome in anal squamous cell carcinoma. Clin Cancer Res *12*, 3355-3360.

Grandis, J. R., and Tweardy, D. J. (1993). Elevated levels of transforming growth factor alpha and epidermal growth factor receptor messenger RNA are early markers of carcinogenesis in head and neck cancer. Cancer Res *53*, 3579-3584.

Greene, M. I., Perry, L. L., and Benacerraf, B. (1979). Regulation of the immune response to tumor antigen. Am J Pathol 95, 159-169.

Groux, H., Ogarra, A., Bigler, M., Rouleau, M., Antonenko, S., deVries, J. E., and Roncarolo, M. G. (1997). A CD4(+) T-cell subset inhibits antigen-specific T-cell responses and prevents colitis. Nature *389*, 737-742.

Hanahan, D., and Weinberg, R. A. (2011). Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. Cell 144, 646-674.

Harari, P. M., Wheeler, D. L., and Grandis, J. R. (2009). Molecular target approaches in head and neck cancer: epidermal growth factor receptor and beyond. Seminars in radiation oncology *19*, 63-68.

Hartigan-O'Connor, D. J., Poon, C., Sinclair, E., and McCune, J. M. (2007). Human CD4+ regulatory T cells express lower levels of the IL-7 receptor alpha chain (CD127), allowing consistent identification and sorting of live cells. J Immunol Methods *319*, 41-52.

Hasbold, J., Gett, A. V., Rush, J. S., Deenick, E., Avery, D., Jun, J., and Hodgkin, P. D. (1999). Quantitative analysis of lymphocyte differentiation and proliferation in vitro using carboxyfluorescein diacetate succinimidyl ester. Immunol Cell Biol *77*, 516-522.

Hasegawa, Y., Takanashi, S., Kanehira, Y., Tsushima, T., Imai, T., and Okumura, K. (2001). Transforming growth factor-beta 1 level correlates with angiogenesis, tumor progression, and prognosis in patients with nonsmall cell lung carcinoma. Cancer *91*, 964-971.

Hashibe, M., Brennan, P., Benhamou, S., Castellsague, X., Chen, C., Curado, M. P., Dal Maso, L., Daudt, A. W., Fabianova, E., Fernandez, L., *et al.* (2007). Alcohol drinking in never users of tobacco, cigarette smoking in never drinkers, and the risk of head and neck cancer: pooled analysis in the International Head and Neck Cancer Epidemiology Consortium. J Natl Cancer Inst *99*, 777-789.

Hashibe, M., Brennan, P., Chuang, S. C., Boccia, S., Castellsague, X., Chen, C., Curado, M. P., Dal Maso, L., Daudt, A. W., Fabianova, E., *et al.* (2009). Interaction between tobacco and alcohol use and the risk of head and neck cancer: pooled analysis in the International Head and Neck Cancer Epidemiology Consortium. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 18, 541-550.

Heusinkveld, M., Goedemans, R., Briet, R. J., Gelderblom, H., Nortier, J. W., Gorter, A., Smit, V. T., Langeveld, A. P., Jansen, J. C., and van der Burg, S. H. (2012). Systemic and local human papillomavirus 16-specific T-cell immunity in patients with head and neck cancer. Int J Cancer *131*, E74-85.

Hiraoka, N., Onozato, K., Kosuge, T., and Hirohashi, S. (2006). Prevalence of FOXP3+ regulatory T cells increases during the progression of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma and its premalignant lesions. Clin Cancer Res *12*, 5423-5434.

Hitt, R., Ciruelos, E., Amador, M. L., Benito, A., Sanchez, J. J., Ballestin, C., and Cortes-Funes, H. (2005). Prognostic value of the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGRF) and p53 in advanced head and neck squamous cell carcinoma patients treated with induction chemotherapy. Eur J Cancer *41*, 453-460.

Hoffmann, P., Boeld, T. J., Eder, R., Albrecht, J., Doser, K., Pieshka, B., Dada, A., Niemand, C., Assenmacher, M., Orso, E., *et al.* (2006a). Isolation of CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T cells for clinical trials. Biology of Blood and Marrow Transplantation *12*, 267-274.

Hoffmann, P., Eder, R., Boeld, T. J., Doser, K., Piseshka, B., Andreesen, R., and Edinger, M. (2006b). Only naive CD45RA(+)CD4(+)CD25(high) T cells from human peripheral blood give rise to homogeneous regulatory T cell lines. Blood *108*, 3163.

Hoffmann, P., Eder, R., Kunz-Schughart, L. A., Andreesen, R., and Edinger, M. (2004). Large-scale in vitro expansion of polyclonal human CD4(+)CD25(high) regulatory T cells. Blood *104*, 895-903.

Hoffmann, T. K., Dworacki, G., Tsukihiro, T., Meidenbauer, N., Gooding, W., Johnson, J. T., and Whiteside, T. L. (2002). Spontaneous apoptosis of circulating T lymphocytes in patients with head and neck cancer and its clinical importance. Clin Cancer Res *8*, 2553-2562.

Hori, S., Nomura, T., and Sakaguchi, S. (2003). Control of regulatory T cell development by the transcription factor Foxp3. Science 299, 1057-1061.

Ichihara, F., Kono, K., Takahashi, A., Kawaida, H., Sugai, H., and Fujii, H. (2003). Increased populations of regulatory T cells in peripheral blood and tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes in patients with gastric and esophageal cancers. Clin Cancer Res *9*, 4404-4408.

Inaba, T., Ino, K., Kajiyamaa, H., Shibata, K., Yamamoto, E., Kondo, S., Umezu, T., Nawa, A., Takikawa, O., and Kikkawa, F. (2010). Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase expression predicts impaired survival of invasive cervical cancer patients treated with radical hysterectomy. Gynecologic Oncology *117*, 423-428.

Ito, T., Hanabuchi, S., Wang, Y. H., Park, W. R., Arima, K., Bover, L., Qin, F. X., Gilliet, M., and Liu, Y. J. (2008). Two functional subsets of FOXP3+ regulatory T cells in human thymus and periphery. Immunity *28*, 870-880.

Itoh, M., Takahashi, T., Sakaguchi, N., Kuniyasu, Y., Shimizu, J., Otsuka, F., and Sakaguchi, S. (1999). Thymus and autoimmunity: Production of CD25(+)CD4(+) naturally anergic and suppressive T cells as a key function of the thymus in maintaining immunologic self-tolerance. Journal of Immunology *162*, 5317-5326.

Jebreel, A., Mistry, D., Loke, D., Dunn, G., Hough, V., Oliver, K., Stafford, N., and Greenman, J. (2007). Investigation of interleukin 10, 12 and 18 levels in patients with head and neck cancer. The Journal of laryngology and otology *121*, 246-252.

Jonuleit, H., Schmitt, E., Stassen, M., Tuettenberg, A., Knop, J., and Enk, A. H. (2001). Identification and functional characterization of human CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells with regulatory properties isolated from peripheral blood. Journal of Experimental Medicine *193*, 1285-1294.

Jose, J., Coatesworth, A. P., Johnston, C., and MacLennan, K. (2002). Cervical node metastases in oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma: prospective analysis of prevalence and distribution. The Journal of laryngology and otology *116*, 925-928.

Ju, S., Qiu, H., Zhou, X., Zhu, B., Lv, X., Huang, X., Li, J., Zhang, Y., Liu, L., Ge, Y., *et al.* (2009). CD13+CD4+CD25hi regulatory T cells exhibit higher suppressive function and increase with tumor stage in non-small cell lung cancer patients. Cell Cycle *8*, 2578-2585.

Jun, H. J., Ahn, M. J., Kim, H. S., Yi, S. Y., Han, J., Lee, S. K., Ahn, Y. C., Jeong, H. S., Son, Y. I., Baek, J. H., and Park, K. (2008). ERCC1 expression as a predictive marker of squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck treated with cisplatin-based concurrent chemoradiation. Br J Cancer *99*, 167-172.

Junker, N., Kvistborg, P., Kollgaard, T., Straten, P., Andersen, M. H., and Svane, I. M. (2012). Tumor associated antigen specific T-cell populations identified in ex vivo expanded TIL cultures. Cell Immunol *273*, 1-9.

Karim-Kos, H. E., de Vries, E., Soerjomataram, I., Lemmens, V., Siesling, S., and Coebergh, J. W. (2008). Recent trends of cancer in Europe: a combined approach of incidence, survival and mortality for 17 cancer sites since the 1990s. Eur J Cancer 44, 1345-1389.

Kawaida, H., Kono, K., Takahashi, A., Sugai, H., Mimura, K., Miyagawa, N., Omata, H., Ooi, A., and Fujii, H. (2005). Distribution of CD4+CD25high regulatory T-cells in tumordraining lymph nodes in patients with gastric cancer. J Surg Res *124*, 151-157.

Kesselring, R., Thiel, A., Pries, R., Trenkle, T., and Wollenberg, B. (2010). Human Th17 cells can be induced through head and neck cancer and have a functional impact on HNSCC development. Br J Cancer *103*, 1245-1254.

Kim, J. M., and Rudensky, A. (2006). The role of the transcription factor Foxp3 in the development of regulatory T cells. Immunological Reviews 212, 86-98.

Kim, J. W., Tsukishiro, T., Johnson, J. T., and Whiteside, T. L. (2004). Expression of proand antiapoptotic proteins in circulating CD8+ T cells of patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Clin Cancer Res *10*, 5101-5110.

Kim, M. M., and Califano, J. A. (2004). Molecular pathology of head-and-neck cancer. Int J Cancer *112*, 545-553.

Klein, L., Khazaie, K., and von Boehmer, H. (2003). In vivo dynamics of antigen-specific regulatory T cells not predicted from behavior in vitro. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *100*, 8886-8891.

Klein, S., Kretz, C. C., Krammer, P. H., and Kuhn, A. (2010). CD127(low/-) and FoxP3(+) expression levels characterize different regulatory T-cell populations in human peripheral blood. J Invest Dermatol *130*, 492-499.

Knutson, K. L., Disis, M. L., and Salazar, L. G. (2007). CD4 regulatory T cells in human cancer pathogenesis. Cancer Immunol Immunother *56*, 271-285.

Kobayashi, N., Hiraoka, N., Yamagami, W., Ojima, H., Kanai, Y., Kosuge, T., Nakajima, A., and Hirohashi, S. (2007). FOXP3+ regulatory T cells affect the development and progression of hepatocarcinogenesis. Clin Cancer Res *13*, 902-911.

Kono, K., Kawaida, H., Takahashi, A., Sugai, H., Mimura, K., Miyagawa, N., Omata, H., and Fujii, H. (2006). CD4(+)CD25(high) regulatory T cells increase with tumor stage in patients with gastric and esophageal cancers. Cancer Immunol Immunother *55*, 1064-1071.

Korampalli, T. S., Green, V. L., Greenman, J., and Stafford, N. D. (2011). Protein profiling of angiogenesis-related growth factors in laryngeal carcinoma: Pattern of protein expression in relation to tumour progression. Int J Oncol *39*, 1033-1039.

Kreimer, A. R., Clifford, G. M., Boyle, P., and Franceschi, S. (2005). Human papillomavirus types in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas worldwide: a systematic review. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev *14*, 467-475.

Kryczek, I., Liu, R., Wang, G., Wu, K., Shu, X., Szeliga, W., Vatan, L., Finlayson, E., Huang, E., Simeone, D., *et al.* (2009). FOXP3 defines regulatory T cells in human tumor and autoimmune disease. Cancer Res *69*, 3995-4000.

Laimer, K., Spizzo, G., Gastl, G., Obrist, P., Brunhuber, T., Fong, D., Barbieri, V., Jank, S., Doppler, W., Rasse, M., and Norer, B. (2007). High EGFR expression predicts poor prognosis in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the oral cavity and oropharynx: a TMA-based immunohistochemical analysis. Oral Oncol *43*, 193-198.

Lansford, C., Grenman, R, Bier, H, Somers, K, Kim, Y, Whiteside, T, Clayman, G, Welkoborsky, H and Carey, T (1999). Human Cell Culture: Cancer Cell Lines Part 2, Vol II: Kluwer Academic Punblishers).

Larmonier, N., Janikashvili, N., LaCasse, C. J., Larmonier, C. B., Cantrell, J., Situ, E., Lundeen, T., Bonnotte, B., and Katsanis, E. (2008). Imatinib mesylate inhibits CD4+ CD25+ regulatory T cell activity and enhances active immunotherapy against BCR-ABL-tumors. J Immunol *181*, 6955-6963.

Lathers, D. M., and Young, M. R. (2004). Increased aberrance of cytokine expression in plasma of patients with more advanced squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Cytokine 25, 220-228.

Lau, K. M., Cheng, S. H., Lo, K. W., Lee, S. A., Woo, J. K., van Hasselt, C. A., Lee, S. P., Rickinson, A. B., and Ng, M. H. (2007). Increase in circulating Foxp3+CD4+CD25(high) regulatory T cells in nasopharyngeal carcinoma patients. Br J Cancer *96*, 617-622.

Lee, J. J., Chang, Y. L., Lai, W. L., Ko, J. Y., Kuo, M. Y., Chiang, C. P., Azuma, M., Chen, C. W., and Chia, J. S. (2010a). Increased prevalence of interleukin-17-producing CD4(+) tumor infiltrating lymphocytes in human oral squamous cell carcinoma. Head Neck.

Lee, W. S., Park, S., Lee, W. Y., Yun, S. H., and Chun, H. K. (2010b). Clinical impact of tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes for survival in stage II colon cancer. Cancer *116*, 5188-5199.

Leffers, N., Gooden, M. J., de Jong, R. A., Hoogeboom, B. N., ten Hoor, K. A., Hollema, H., Boezen, H. M., van der Zee, A. G., Daemen, T., and Nijman, H. W. (2009). Prognostic significance of tumor-infiltrating T-lymphocytes in primary and metastatic lesions of advanced stage ovarian cancer. Cancer Immunol Immunother *58*, 449-459.

Levings, M. K., Sangregorio, R., and Roncarolo, M. G. (2001). Human CD25(+)CD4(+) T regulatory cells suppress naive and memory T cell proliferation and can be expanded in vitro without loss of function. Journal of Experimental Medicine *193*, 1295-1301.

Lewin, F., Norell, S. E., Johansson, H., Gustavsson, P., Wennerberg, J., Biorklund, A., and Rutqvist, L. E. (1998). Smoking tobacco, oral snuff, and alcohol in the etiology of squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck: a population-based case-referent study in Sweden. Cancer *82*, 1367-1375.

Li, M. O., Wan, Y. Y., Sanjabi, S., Robertson, A. K. L., and Flavell, R. A. (2006). Transforming growth factor-beta regulation of immune responses. Annual Review of Immunology 24, 99-146.

Licitra, L., Bernier, J., Grandi, C., Locati, L., Merlano, M., Gatta, G., and Lefebvre, J. L. (2003). Cancer of the larynx. Critical reviews in oncology/hematology 47, 65-80.

Lin, C. J., Grandis, J. R., Carey, T. E., Gollin, S. M., Whiteside, T. L., Koch, W. M., Ferris, R. L., and Lai, S. Y. (2007). Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell lines: established models and rationale for selection. Head Neck *29*, 163-188.

Lin, Y. C., Mahalingam, J., Chiang, J. M., Su, P. J., Chu, Y. Y., Lai, H. Y., Fang, J. H., Huang, C. T., Chiu, C. T., and Lin, C. Y. (2012). Activated but not resting regulatory T cells accumulated in tumor microenvironment and correlated with tumor progression in patients with colorectal cancer. Int J Cancer.

Ling, K. L., Pratap, S. E., Bates, G. J., Singh, B., Mortensen, N. J., George, B. D., Warren, B. F., Piris, J., Roncador, G., Fox, S. B., *et al.* (2007). Increased frequency of regulatory T cells in peripheral blood and tumour infiltrating lymphocytes in colorectal cancer patients. Cancer Immun 7, 7.

Liotta, F., Gacci, M., Frosali, F., Querci, V., Vittori, G., Lapini, A., Santarlasci, V., Serni, S., Cosmi, L., Maggi, L., *et al.* (2010). Frequency of regulatory T cells in peripheral blood and in tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes correlates with poor prognosis in renal cell carcinoma. BJU Int.

Lissoni, P., Brivio, F., Fumagalli, L., Messina, G., Meregalli, S., Porro, G., Rovelli, F., Vigore, L., Tisi, E., and D'Amico, G. (2009). Effects of the conventional antitumor therapies surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy and immunotherapy on regulatory T lymphocytes in cancer patients. Anticancer Res 29, 1847-1852.

Liu, F., Lang, R., Zhao, J., Zhang, X., Pringle, G. A., Fan, Y., Yin, D., Gu, F., Yao, Z., and Fu, L. (2011). CD8(+) cytotoxic T cell and FOXP3(+) regulatory T cell infiltration in relation to breast cancer survival and molecular subtypes. Breast Cancer Res Treat *130*, 645-655.

Liu, H., Zhang, T., Ye, J., Li, H., Huang, J., Li, X., Wu, B., Huang, X., and Hou, J. (2012). Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes predict response to chemotherapy in patients with advance non-small cell lung cancer. Cancer Immunol Immunother *61*, 1849-1856.

Liu, W. H., Putnam, A. L., Xu-Yu, Z., Szot, G. L., Lee, M. R., Zhu, S., Gottlieb, P. A., Kapranov, P., Gingeras, T. R., Fazekas de St Groth, B., *et al.* (2006). CD127 expression inversely correlates with FoxP3 and suppressive function of human CD4(+) T reg cells. Journal of Experimental Medicine *203*, 1701-1711.

Liyanage, U. K., Moore, T. T., Joo, H. G., Tanaka, Y., Herrmann, V., Doherty, G., Drebin, J. A., Strasberg, S. M., Eberlein, T. J., Goedegebuure, P. S., and Linehan, D. C. (2002). Prevalence of regulatory T cells is increased in peripheral blood and tumor microenvironment of patients with pancreas or breast adenocarcinoma. Journal of Immunology *169*, 2756-2761.

Logullo, A. F., Nonogaki, S., Miguel, R. E., Kowalski, L. P., Nishimoto, I. N., Pasini, F. S., Federico, M. H. H., Brentani, R. R., and Brentani, M. M. (2003). Transforming growth factor beta 1 (TGF beta 1) expression in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma patients as related to prognosis. Journal of Oral Pathology & Medicine *32*, 139-145.

Lu, S. L., Reh, D., Li, A. G., Woods, J., Corless, C. L., Kulesz-Martin, M., and Wang, X. J. (2004). Overexpression of transforming growth factor beta 1 in head and neck epithelia results in inflammation, angiogenesis, and epithelial hyperproliferation. Cancer Research *64*, 4405-4410.

Lucs, A. V., Saltman, B., Chung, C. H., Steinberg, B. M., and Schwartz, D. L. (2013). Opportunities and challenges facing biomarker development for personalized head and neck cancer treatment. Head Neck *35*, 294-306.

Lyons, A. B., and Parish, C. R. (1994). Determination of lymphocyte division by flow cytometry. J Immunol Methods *171*, 131-137.

Mandapathil, M., Lang, S., Gorelik, E., and Whiteside, T. L. (2009). Isolation of functional human regulatory T cells (Treg) from the peripheral blood based on the CD39 expression. Journal of Immunological Methods *346*, 55-63.

Mao, L., Hong, W. K., and Papadimitrakopoulou, V. A. (2004). Focus on head and neck cancer. Cancer Cell 5, 311-316.

Mapara, M. Y., and Sykes, M. (2004). Tolerance and cancer: Mechanisms of tumor evasion and strategies for breaking tolerance. Journal of Clinical Oncology 22, 1136-1151.

Marur, S., and Forastiere, A. A. (2008). Head and neck cancer: changing epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment. Mayo Clinic proceedings Mayo Clinic *83*, 489-501.

Maruyama, T., Kono, K., Izawa, S., Mizukami, Y., Kawaguchi, Y., Mimura, K., Watanabe, M., and Fujii, H. (2010a). CCL17 and CCL22 chemokines within tumor microenvironment are related to infiltration of regulatory T cells in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Diseases of the esophagus : official journal of the International Society for Diseases of the Esophagus / ISDE *23*, 422-429.

Maruyama, T., Kono, K., Mizukami, Y., Kawaguchi, Y., Mimura, K., Watanabe, M., Izawa, S., and Fujii, H. (2010b). Distribution of Th17 cells and FoxP3(+) regulatory T cells in tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, tumor-draining lymph nodes and peripheral blood lymphocytes in patients with gastric cancer. Cancer Sci *101*, 1947-1954.

Matera, G., Lupi, M., and Ubezio, P. (2004). Heterogeneous cell response to topotecan in a CFSE-based proliferation test. Cytometry A *62*, 118-128.

McHugh, R. S., Whitters, M. J., Piccirillo, C. A., Young, D. A., Shevach, E. M., Collins, M., and Byrne, M. C. (2002). CD4(+)CD25(+) immunoregulatory T cells: gene expression analysis reveals a functional role for the glucocorticoid-induced TNF receptor. Immunity *16*, 311-323.

Miltenyi Biotec (2010) MACS[®] separators user manual

Mistry, M., Parkin, D. M., Ahmad, A. S., and Sasieni, P. (2011). Cancer incidence in the United Kingdom: projections to the year 2030. Br J Cancer *105*, 1795-1803.

Miyara, M., Yoshioka, Y., Kitoh, A., Shima, T., Wing, K., Niwa, A., Parizot, C., Taflin, C., Heike, T., Valeyre, D., *et al.* (2009). Functional Delineation and Differentiation Dynamics of Human CD4(+) T Cells Expressing the FoxP3 Transcription Factor. Immunity *30*, 899-911.

Mizukami, Y., Kono, K., Kawaguchi, Y., Akaike, H., Kamimura, K., Sugai, H., and Fujii, H. (2008a). CCL17 and CCL22 chemokines within tumor microenvironment are related to accumulation of Foxp3+ regulatory T cells in gastric cancer. Int J Cancer *122*, 2286-2293.

Mizukami, Y., Kono, K., Kawaguchi, Y., Akaike, H., Kamimura, K., Sugai, H., and Fujii, H. (2008b). Localisation pattern of Foxp3+ regulatory T cells is associated with clinical behaviour in gastric cancer. Br J Cancer 98, 148-153.

Mocellin, S., Marincola, F. M., and Young, H. A. (2005). Interleukin-10 and the immune response against cancer: a counterpoint. J Leukoc Biol 78, 1043-1051.

ModFit, Proliferation Index pdf. Received 13/6/11 in communication with Technical Support, Verity House Software, Topsham, USA

Moeller, B. J., Yordy, J. S., Williams, M. D., Giri, U., Raju, U., Molkentine, D. P., Byers, L. A., Heymach, J. V., Story, M. D., Lee, J. J., *et al.* (2011). DNA repair biomarker profiling of head and neck cancer: Ku80 expression predicts locoregional failure and death following radiotherapy. Clin Cancer Res *17*, 2035-2043.

Molling, J. W., de Gruijl, T. D., Glim, J., Moreno, M., Rozendaal, L., Meijer, C. J., van den Eertwegh, A. J., Scheper, R. J., von Blomberg, M. E., and Bontkes, H. J. (2007). CD4(+)CD25hi regulatory T-cell frequency correlates with persistence of human papillomavirus type 16 and T helper cell responses in patients with cervical intraepithelial neoplasia. Int J Cancer *121*, 1749-1755.

Morgan, M. E., van Bilsen, J. H. M., Bakker, A. M., Heemskerk, B., Schilham, M. W., Hartgers, F. C., Elferink, B. G., van der Zanden, L., de Vries, R. R. P., Huizinga, T. W. J., *et al.* (2005). Expression of FOXP3 mRNA is not confined to CD4(+)CD25(+) T regulatory cells in humans. Human Immunology *66*, 13-20.

Mougiakakos, D., Choudhury, A., Lladser, A., Kiessling, R., and Johansson, C. C. (2010). Regulatory T cells in cancer. Advances in cancer research *107*, 57-117.

Mukherji, S. K., Armao, D., and Joshi, V. M. (2001). Cervical nodal metastases in squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck: what to expect. Head Neck 23, 995-1005.

Mulder, W. M., Koenen, H., van de Muysenberg, A. J., Bloemena, E., Wagstaff, J., and Scheper, R. J. (1994). Reduced expression of distinct T-cell CD molecules by collagenase/DNase treatment. Cancer Immunol Immunother *38*, 253-258.

Munn, D. H., Shafizadeh, E., Attwood, J. T., Bondarev, I., Pashine, A., and Mellor, A. L. (1999). Inhibition of T cell proliferation by macrophage tryptophan catabolism. J Exp Med *189*, 1363-1372.

Nagorsen, D., Scheibenbogen, C., Letsch, A., Germer, C. T., Buhr, H. J., Hegewisch-Becker, S., Rivoltini, L., Thiel, E., and Keilholz, U. (2005). T cell responses against tumor associated antigens and prognosis in colorectal cancer patients. J Transl Med *3*, 3.

Namazie, A., Alavi, S., Olopade, O. I., Pauletti, G., Aghamohammadi, N., Aghamohammadi, M., Gornbein, J. A., Calcaterra, T. C., Slamon, D. J., Wang, M. B., and Srivatsan, E. S. (2002). Cyclin D1 amplification and p16(MTS1/CDK4I) deletion correlate with poor prognosis in head and neck tumors. The Laryngoscope *112*, 472-481.

Nasman, A., Romanitan, M., Nordfors, C., Grun, N., Johansson, H., Hammarstedt, L., Marklund, L., Munck-Wikland, E., Dalianis, T., and Ramqvist, T. (2012). Tumor infiltrating CD8+ and Foxp3+ lymphocytes correlate to clinical outcome and human papillomavirus (HPV) status in tonsillar cancer. Plos One 7, e38711.

National Head and Neck Cancer Audit (2008) The Health and Social Care Information Centre

http://www.bahno.org.uk/docs/DAHNO%20REPORT%207190_NHS_IC%20HEAD%2B NECK_Single.pdf

Ng, W. F., Duggan, P. J., Ponchel, F., Matarese, G., Lombardi, G., Edwards, A. D., Isaacs, J. D., and Lechler, R. I. (2001). Human CD4(+)CD25(+) cells: a naturally occurring population of regulatory T cells. Blood *98*, 2736-2744.

Nix, P., Cawkwell, L., Patmore, H., Greenman, J., and Stafford, N. (2005). Bcl-2 expression predicts radiotherapy failure in laryngeal cancer. Br J Cancer 92, 2185-2189.

Novellino, L., Castelli, C., and Parmiani, G. (2005). A listing of human tumor antigens recognized by T cells: March 2004 update. Cancer Immunol Immunother *54*, 187-207.

O-Charoenrat, P., Rhys-Evans, P., Modjtahedi, H., Court, W., Box, G., and Eccles, S. (2000). Overexpression of epidermal growth factor receptor in human head and neck squamous carcinoma cell lines correlates with matrix metalloproteinase-9 expression and in vitro invasion. Int J Cancer *86*, 307-317.

Okamoto, A., Nikaido, T., Ochiai, K., Takakura, S., Saito, M., Aoki, Y., Ishii, N., Yanaihara, N., Yamada, K., Takikawa, O., *et al.* (2005). Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase serves as a marker of poor prognosis in gene expression profiles of serous ovarian cancer cells. Clinical Cancer Research *11*, 6030-6039.

Onizuka, S., Tawara, I., Shimizu, J., Sakaguchi, S., Fujita, T., and Nakayama, E. (1999). Tumor rejection by in vivo administration of anti-CD25 (interleukin-2 receptor alpha) monoclonal antibody. Cancer Res *59*, 3128-3133.

Ormandy, L. A., Hillemann, T., Wedemeyer, H., Manns, M. P., Greten, T. F., and Korangy, F. (2005). Increased populations of regulatory T cells in peripheral blood of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer Res *65*, 2457-2464.

Parish, C. R. (1999). Fluorescent dyes for lymphocyte migration and proliferation studies. Immunol Cell Biol 77, 499-508.

Parish, C. R., Glidden, M. H., Quah, B. J. C., and Warren, H. S. (2009). Use of the intracellular fluorescent dye CFSE to monitor lymphocyte migration and proliferation. Curr Protoc Immunol *Chapter 4*, Unit4.9.

Parkin, D. M. (2011a). 2. Tobacco-attributable cancer burden in the UK in 2010. Br J Cancer 105 Suppl 2, S6-S13.

Parkin, D. M. (2011b). 3. Cancers attributable to consumption of alcohol in the UK in 2010. Br J Cancer *105 Suppl 2*, S14-18.

Parkin, D. M., Bray, F., Ferlay, J., and Pisani, P. (2005). Global cancer statistics, 2002. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians *55*, 74-108.

Pasche, B. (2001). Role of transforming growth factor beta in cancer. J Cell Physiol 186, 153-168.

Piccirillo, C. A., and Shevach, E. M. (2001). Cutting edge: control of CD8+ T cell activation by CD4+CD25+ immunoregulatory cells. J Immunol *167*, 1137-1140.

Piersma, S. J., Welters, M. J., and van der Burg, S. H. (2008). Tumor-specific regulatory T cells in cancer patients. Hum Immunol *69*, 241-249.

Pinzon-Charry, A., Ho, C. S. K., Laherty, R., Maxwell, T., Walker, D., Gardiner, R. A., O'Connor, L., Pyke, C., Schmidt, C., Furnival, C., and Lopez, J. A. (2005). A population of HLA-DR+ immature cells accumulates in the blood dendritic cell compartment of patients with different types of cancer. Neoplasia 7, 1112-1122.

Poeta, M. L., Manola, J., Goldwasser, M. A., Forastiere, A., Benoit, N., Califano, J. A., Ridge, J. A., Goodwin, J., Kenady, D., Saunders, J., *et al.* (2007). TP53 mutations and survival in squamous-cell carcinoma of the head and neck. N Engl J Med *357*, 2552-2561.

Powrie, F., Leach, M. W., Mauze, S., Caddle, L. B., and Coffman, R. L. (1993). Phenotypically distinct subsets of CD4+ T cells induce or protect from chronic intestinal inflammation in C. B-17 scid mice International Immunology *5*, 1461-1471.

Powrie, F., and Mason, D. (1990). OX-22high CD4 T cells induce wasting disease with multiple organ pathology: prevention by the OX-22low subset Journal of Experimental Medicine *172*, 1701-1708.

Pretscher, D., Distel, L. V., Grabenbauer, G. G., Wittlinger, M., Buettner, M., and Niedobitek, G. (2009). Distribution of immune cells in head and neck cancer: CD8(+) T-cells and CD20(+) B-cells in metastatic lymph nodes are associated with favourable outcome in patients with oro- and hypopharyngeal carcinoma. Bmc Cancer 9.

Pries, R., and Wollenberg, B. (2006). Cytokines in head and neck cancer. Cytokine & Growth Factor Reviews 17, 141-146.

Putnam, A. L., Brusko, T. M., Lee, M. R., Liu, W., Szot, G. L., Ghosh, T., Atkinson, M. A., and Bluestone, J. A. (2009). Expansion of human regulatory T-cells from patients with type 1 diabetes. Diabetes *58*, 652-662.

Rabinovich, G. A., Gabrilovich, D., and Sotomayor, E. M. (2007). Immunosuppressive strategies that are mediated by tumor cells. Annual Review of Immunology 25, 267-296.

Reed, A. L., Califano, J., Cairns, P., Westra, W. H., Jones, R. M., Koch, W., Ahrendt, S., Eby, Y., Sewell, D., Nawroz, H., *et al.* (1996). High frequency of p16 (CDKN2/MTS-1/INK4A) inactivation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Cancer Res *56*, 3630-3633.

Reeves, T. D., Hill, E. G., Armeson, K. E., and Gillespie, M. B. (2011). Cetuximab therapy for head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: a systematic review of the data. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg *144*, 676-684.

Reichert, T. E., Strauss, L., Wagner, E. M., Gooding, W., and Whiteside, T. L. (2002). Signaling abnormalities, apoptosis, and reduced proliferation of circulating and tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes in patients with oral carcinoma. Clin Cancer Res *8*, 3137-3145.

Restifo, N. P., Dudley, M. E., and Rosenberg, S. A. (2012). Adoptive immunotherapy for cancer: harnessing the T cell response. Nat Rev Immunol *12*, 269-281.

Roman, E., Meza-Zepeda, L. A., Kresse, S. H., Myklebost, O., Vasstrand, E. N., and Ibrahim, S. O. (2008). Chromosomal aberrations in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas in Norwegian and Sudanese populations by array comparative genomic hybridization. Oncology reports *20*, 825-843.

Roncarolo, M. G., and Battaglia, M. (2007). Regulatory T-cell immunotherapy for tolerance to self antigens and alloantigens in humans. Nature Reviews Immunology 7, 585-598.

Rosenthal, E., McCrory, A., Talbert, M., Young, G., Murphy-Ullrich, J., and Gladson, C. (2004). Elevated expression of TGF-beta 1 in head and neck cancer - Associated fibroblasts. Molecular Carcinogenesis *40*, 116-121.

Rubin Grandis, J., Melhem, M. F., Gooding, W. E., Day, R., Holst, V. A., Wagener, M. M., Drenning, S. D., and Tweardy, D. J. (1998). Levels of TGF-alpha and EGFR protein in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and patient survival. J Natl Cancer Inst *90*, 824-832.

Saito, H., Tsujitani, S., Oka, S., Kondo, A., Ikeguchi, M., Maeta, M., and Kaibara, N. (1999). The expression of transforming growth factor-beta 1 is significantly correlated with the expression of vascular endothelial growth factor and poor prognosis of patients with advanced gastric carcinoma. Cancer *86*, 1455-1462.

Sakaguchi, S., Sakaguchi, N., Asano, M., Itoh, M., and Toda, M. (1995). Immunological self-tolerance maintained by activated T-cells expressing IL-2 receptor alpha-chains (CD25) - breakdown of a single mechanism of self-tolerance causes various autoimmune diseases. Journal of Immunology *155*, 1151-1164.

Salama, P., Phillips, M., Grieu, F., Morris, M., Zeps, N., Joseph, D., Platell, C., and Iacopetta, B. (2009). Tumor-infiltrating FOXP3+ T regulatory cells show strong prognostic significance in colorectal cancer. J Clin Oncol 27, 186-192.

Sasada, T., Kimura, M., Yoshida, Y., Kanai, M., and Takabayashi, A. (2003). CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells in patients with gastrointestinal malignancies: possible involvement of regulatory T cells in disease progression. Cancer *98*, 1089-1099.

Sato, E., Olson, S. H., Ahn, J., Bundy, B., Nishikawa, H., Qian, F., Jungbluth, A. A., Frosina, D., Gnjatic, S., Ambrosone, C., *et al.* (2005). Intraepithelial CD8+ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes and a high CD8+/regulatory T cell ratio are associated with favorable prognosis in ovarian cancer. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *102*, 18538-18543.

Schaefer, C., Kim, G. G., Albers, A., Hoermann, K., Myers, E. N., and Whiteside, T. L. (2005). Characteristics of CD4+ CD25+ regulatory T cells in the peripheral circulation of patients with head and neck cancer. Br J Cancer *92*, 913-920.

Scheffner, M., Takahashi, T., Huibregtse, J. M., Minna, J. D., and Howley, P. M. (1992). Interaction of the human papillomavirus type 16 E6 oncoprotein with wild-type and mutant human p53 proteins. J Virol *66*, 5100-5105.

Schott, A. K., Pries, R., and Wollenberg, B. (2010). Permanent up-regulation of regulatory T-lymphocytes in patients with head and neck cancer. International Journal of Molecular Medicine *26*, 67-75.

Schuler, P. J., Borger, V., Bolke, E., Habermehl, D., Matuschek, C., Wild, C. A., Greve, J., Bas, M., Schilling, B., Bergmann, C., *et al.* (2011). Dendritic cell generation and CD4+ CD25high FOXP3+ regulatory t cells in human head and neck carcinoma during radio-chemotherapy. European journal of medical research *16*, 57-62.

Scott-Brown, W. G., Gleeson, M., and Browning, G. G. (2008). Scott-Brown's otolaryngology, head and neck surgery, Vol 2, 7th edn (London: Hodder Arnold).

Seddiki, N., Santner-Nanan, B., Martinson, J., Zaunders, J., Sasson, S., Landay, A., Solomon, M., Selby, W., Alexander, S. I., Nanan, R., *et al.* (2006). Expression of interleukin (IL)-2 and IL-7 receptors discriminates between human regulatory and activated T cells. Journal of Experimental Medicine *203*, 1693-1700.

Shariat, S. F., Kim, J. H., Andrews, B., Kattan, M. W., Wheeler, T. M., Kim, I. Y., Lerner, S. P., and Slawin, K. M. (2001). Preoperative plasma levels of Transforming growth factor beta(1) strongly predict clinical outcome in patients with bladder carcinoma. Cancer *92*, 2985-2992.

Shen, L. S., Wang, J., Shen, D. F., Yuan, X. L., Dong, P., Li, M. X., Xue, J., Zhang, F. M., Ge, H. L., and Xu, D. K. (2009). CD4(+)CD25(+)CD127(low/-) regulatory T cells express Foxp3 and suppress effector T cell proliferation and contribute to gastric cancers progression. Clinical Immunology *131*, 109-118.

Shen, X. H., Li, N., Li, H., Zhang, T., Wang, F., and Li, Q. A. (2010). Increased prevalence of regulatory T cells in the tumor microenvironment and its correlation with TNM stage of hepatocellular carcinoma. Journal of Cancer Research and Clinical Oncology *136*, 1745-1754.

Shenghui, Z., Yixiang, H., Jianbo, W., Kang, Y., Laixi, B., Yan, Z., and Xi, X. (2011). Elevated frequencies of CD4(+) CD25(+) CD127(lo) regulatory T cells is associated to poor prognosis in patients with acute myeloid leukemia. Int J Cancer *129*, 1373-1381.

Shevach, E. M. (2002). CD4(+)CD25(+) suppressor T cells: More questions than answers. Nature Reviews Immunology 2, 389-400.

Shevach, E. M. (2006). From vanilla to 28 flavors: Multiple varieties of T regulatory cells. Immunity 25, 195-201.

Shevach, E. M. (2009). Mechanisms of foxp3+ T regulatory cell-mediated suppression. Immunity *30*, 636-645.

Shimizu, J., Yamazaki, S., and Sakaguchi, S. (1999). Induction of tumor immunity by removing CD25+CD4+ T cells: a common basis between tumor immunity and autoimmunity. J Immunol *163*, 5211-5218.

Shimizu, K., Nakata, M., Hirami, Y., Yukawa, T., Maeda, A., and Tanemoto, K. (2010). Tumor-infiltrating Foxp3+ regulatory T cells are correlated with cyclooxygenase-2 expression and are associated with recurrence in resected non-small cell lung cancer. Journal of thoracic oncology : official publication of the International Association for the Study of Lung Cancer *5*, 585-590.

Siddiqui, S. A., Frigola, X., Bonne-Annee, S., Mercader, M., Kuntz, S. M., Krambeck, A. E., Sengupta, S., Dong, H., Cheville, J. C., Lohse, C. M., *et al.* (2007). Tumor-infiltrating Foxp3-CD4+CD25+ T cells predict poor survival in renal cell carcinoma. Clin Cancer Res *13*, 2075-2081.

Simonson, W. T. N., and Allison, K. H. (2011). Tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes in cancer: implications for the diagnostic pathologist. Diagnostic Histopathology *17*, 80-90.

Sinicrope, F. A., Rego, R. L., Ansell, S. M., Knutson, K. L., Foster, N. R., and Sargent, D. J. (2009). Intraepithelial effector (CD3+)/regulatory (FoxP3+) T-cell ratio predicts a clinical outcome of human colon carcinoma. Gastroenterology *137*, 1270-1279.

Spano, J. P., Busson, P., Atlan, D., Bourhis, J., Pignon, J. P., Esteban, C., and Armand, J. P. (2003). Nasopharyngeal carcinomas: an update. Eur J Cancer *39*, 2121-2135.

Stary, G., Klein, I., Bauer, W., Koszik, F., Reininger, B., Kohlhofer, S., Gruber, K., Skvara, H., Jung, T., and Stingl, G. (2011). Glucocorticosteroids modify Langerhans cells to produce TGF-beta and expand regulatory T cells. J Immunol *186*, 103-112.

Strauss, L., Bergmann, C., Gooding, W., Johnson, J. T., and Whiteside, T. L. (2007a). The frequency and suppressor function of CD4(+)CD25(high) Foxp3(+) T cells in the circulation of patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Clinical Cancer Research 13, 6301-6311.

Strauss, L., Bergmann, C., Szczepanski, M., Gooding, W., Johnson, J. T., and Whiteside, T. L. (2007b). A unique subset of CD4(+)CD25(high) Foxp3(+) T cells secreting interleukin-10 and transforming growth factor-beta 1 mediates suppression in the tumor microenvironment. Clinical Cancer Research *13*, 4345-4354.

Strauss, L., Bergmann, C., and Whiteside, T. L. (2009). Human Circulating CD4(+)CD25(high)Foxp3(+) Regulatory T Cells Kill Autologous CD8(+) but Not CD4(+) Responder Cells by Fas-Mediated Apoptosis. Journal of Immunology *182*, 1469-1480.

Sun, D. S., Zhao, M. Q., Xia, M., Li, L., and Jiang, Y. H. (2012). The correlation between tumor-infiltrating Foxp3+ regulatory T cells and cyclooxygenase-2 expression and their association with recurrence in resected head and neck cancers. Med Oncol 29, 707-713.

Taguchi, O., Kojima, A., and Nishizuka, Y. (1985). Experimental autoimmune prostatitis after neonatal thymectomy in the mouse. Clinical and Experimental Immunology *60*, 123-129.

Takahashi, T., Kuniyasu, Y., Toda, M., Sakaguchi, N., Itoh, M., Iwata, M., Shimizu, J., and Sakaguchi, S. (1998). Immunologic self-tolerance maintained by CD25(+)CD4(+) naturally anergic and suppressive T cells: induction of autoimmune disease by breaking their anergic/suppressive state. International Immunology *10*, 1969-1980.

Thomas, D. A., and Massague, J. (2005). TGF-beta directly targets cytotoxic T cell functions during tumor evasion of immune surveillance. Cancer Cell 8, 369-380.

Thomas, L., Moore, E. J., McGree, M. E., Olsen, K. D., Kasperbauer, J. L., Erickson, L. A., and Schembri-Wismayer, D. J. (2012). Prognostic features, human papillomavirus status, and epidermal growth factor receptor expression in oral squamous cell carcinoma in young adults. American journal of otolaryngology *33*, 650-656.

Thornton, A. M., Donovan, E. E., Piccirillo, C. A., and Shevach, E. M. (2004). Cutting edge: IL-2 is critically required for the in vitro activation of CD4(+)CD25(+) T cell suppressor function. Journal of Immunology *172*, 6519-6523.

Thornton, A. M., Korty, P. E., Tran, D. Q., Wohlfert, E. A., Murray, P. E., Belkaid, Y., and Shevach, E. M. (2010). Expression of Helios, an Ikaros transcription factor family member, differentiates thymic-derived from peripherally induced Foxp3+ T regulatory cells. J Immunol *184*, 3433-3441.

Thornton, A. M., and Shevach, E. M. (1998). CD4(+)CD25(+) immunoregulatory T cells suppress polyclonal T cell activation in vitro by inhibiting interleukin 2 production. Journal of Experimental Medicine *188*, 287-296.

Tong, C. C., Kao, J., and Sikora, A. G. (2012). Recognizing and reversing the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment of head and neck cancer. Immunologic research 54, 266-274.

Tran, D. Q., Ramsey, H., and Shevach, E. M. (2007). Induction of FOXP3 expression in naive human CD4+FOXP3 T cells by T-cell receptor stimulation is transforming growth factor-beta dependent but does not confer a regulatory phenotype. Blood *110*, 2983-2990.

Treves, A. J., Carnaud, C., Trainin, N., Feldman, M., and Cohen, I. R. (1974). Enhancing T lymphocytes from tumor-bearing mice suppress host resistance to a syngeneic tumor. Eur J Immunol *4*, 722-727.

Tung, K. S. K., Smith, S., Matzner, P., Kasai, K., Oliver, J., Feuchter, F., and Anderson, R. E. (1987). Murine autoimmune oophoritis, epididymoorchitis, and gastritis induced by day 3 thymectomy. Autoantibodies. American Journal of Pathology *126*, 303-314.

Uyttenhove, C., Pilotte, L., Theate, I., Stroobant, V., Colau, D., Parmentier, N., Boon, T., and Van den Eynde, B. J. (2003). Evidence for a tumoral immune resistance mechanism based on tryptophan degradation by indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase. Nature Medicine *9*, 1269-1274.

Vadas, M. A., Miller, J., McKenzie, I. F. C., Chism, S. E., Shen, F. W., Boyse, E. A., Gamble, J. R., and Whitelaw, A. M. (1976). Ly and Ia antigen phenotypes of T cells involved in delayed-type hypersensitivity and in suppression Journal of Experimental Medicine *144*, 10-19.

Van Damme, N., Baeten, D., De Vos, M., Demetter, P., Elewaut, D., Mielants, H., Verbruggen, G., Cuvelier, C., Veys, E. M., and De Keyser, F. (2000). Chemical agents and enzymes used for the extraction of gut lymphocytes influence flow cytometric detection of T cell surface markers. J Immunol Methods *236*, 27-35.

van der Riet, P., Nawroz, H., Hruban, R. H., Corio, R., Tokino, K., Koch, W., and Sidransky, D. (1994). Frequent loss of chromosome 9p21-22 early in head and neck cancer progression. Cancer Res *54*, 1156-1158.

van Houten, V. M., Tabor, M. P., van den Brekel, M. W., Kummer, J. A., Denkers, F., Dijkstra, J., Leemans, R., van der Waal, I., Snow, G. B., and Brakenhoff, R. H. (2002). Mutated p53 as a molecular marker for the diagnosis of head and neck cancer. J Pathol *198*, 476-486.

Venigalla, R. K., Tretter, T., Krienke, S., Max, R., Eckstein, V., Blank, N., Fiehn, C., Ho, A. D., and Lorenz, H. M. (2008). Reduced CD4+,CD25- T cell sensitivity to the suppressive function of CD4+,CD25high,CD127 -/low regulatory T cells in patients with active systemic lupus erythematosus. Arthritis Rheum 58, 2120-2130.

Venken, K., Thewissen, M., Hellings, N., Somers, V., Hensen, K., Rummens, J. L., and Stinissen, P. (2007). A CFSE based assay for measuring CD4(+)CD25(+) regulatory T cell mediated suppression of auto-antigen specific and polyclonal T cell responses. Journal of Immunological Methods *322*, 1-11.

Vieira, P. L., Christensen, J. R., Minaee, S., O'Neill, E. J., Barrat, F. J., Boonstra, A., Barthlott, T., Stockinger, B., Wraith, D. C., and O'Garra, A. (2004). IL-10-secreting regulatory T cells do not express Foxp3 but have comparable regulatory function to naturally occurring CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells. J Immunol *172*, 5986-5993.

Viguier, M., Lemaitre, F., Verola, O., Cho, M. S., Gorochov, G., Dubertret, L., Bachelez, H., Kourilsky, P., and Ferradini, L. (2004). Foxp3 expressing CD4+CD25(high) regulatory T cells are overrepresented in human metastatic melanoma lymph nodes and inhibit the function of infiltrating T cells. J Immunol *173*, 1444-1453.

Waldmann, H. (2008). Special regulatory T cell review: The suppression problem! Immunology *123*, 11-12.

Walker, M. R., Kasprowicz, D. J., Gersuk, V. H., Benard, A., Van Landeghen, M., Buckner, J. H., and Ziegler, S. F. (2003). Induction of FoxP3 and acquisition of T regulatory activity by stimulated human CD4(+)CD25(-) T cells. Journal of Clinical Investigation *112*, 1437-1443.

Wang, D., Song, H., Evans, J. A., Lang, J. C., Schuller, D. E., and Weghorst, C. M. (1997). Mutation and downregulation of the transforming growth factor beta type II receptor gene in primary squamous cell carcinomas of the head and neck. Carcinogenesis *18*, 2285-2290.

Wang, F., Arun, P., Friedman, J., Chen, Z., and Van Waes, C. (2009). Current and potential inflammation targeted therapies in head and neck cancer. Current opinion in pharmacology *9*, 389-395.

Wang, J., Ioan-Facsinay, A., Van der Voort, E. I. H., Huizinga, T. W. J., and Toes, R. E. M. (2007). Transient expression of FOXP3 in human activated nonregulatory CD4(+) T cells. European Journal of Immunology *37*, 129-138.

Wang, Y. M., and Alexander, S. I. (2009). CD8 regulatory T cells: what's old is now new. Immunol Cell Biol 87, 192-193.

Watanabe, Y., Katou, F., Ohtani, H., Nakayama, T., Yoshie, O., and Hashimoto, K. (2010). Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, particularly the balance between CD8(+) T cells and CCR4(+) regulatory T cells, affect the survival of patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod *109*, 744-752.

Weiner, H. L. (2001). Induction and mechanism of action of transforming growth factorbeta-secreting Th3 regulatory cells. Immunological Reviews *182*, 207-214.

Wenig, B. M. (2002). Squamous cell carcinoma of the upper aerodigestive tract: precursors and problematic variants. Modern pathology : an official journal of the United States and Canadian Academy of Pathology, Inc *15*, 229-254.

Wenzel, S., Sagowski, C., Kehrl, W., and Metternich, F. U. (2004). The prognostic impact of metastatic pattern of lymph nodes in patients with oral and oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinomas. Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol *261*, 270-275.

Wherry, E. J. (2011). T cell exhaustion. Nat Immunol 12, 492-499.

Wild, C. A., Brandau, S., Lindemann, M., Lotfi, R., Hoffmann, T. K., Lang, S., and Bergmann, C. (2010). Toll-like Receptors in Regulatory T Cells of Patients With Head and Neck Cancer. Archives of otolaryngology--head & neck surgery *136*, 1253-1259.

Wildin, R. S., Smyk-Pearson, S., and Filipovich, A. H. (2002). Clinical and molecular features of the immunodysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X linked (IPEX) syndrome. Journal of Medical Genetics *39*, 537-545.

Wilke, C. M., Wu, K., Zhao, E. D., Wang, G. B., and Zou, W. P. (2010). Prognostic significance of regulatory T cells in tumor. Int J Cancer *127*, 748-758.

Winerdal, M. E., Marits, P., Winerdal, M., Hasan, M., Rosenblatt, R., Tolf, A., Selling, K., Sherif, A., and Winqvist, O. (2011). FOXP3 and survival in urinary bladder cancer. BJU Int *108*, 1672-1678.

Wing, K., Ekmark, A., Karlsson, H., Rudin, A., and Suri-Payer, E. (2002). Characterization of human CD25+ CD4+ T cells in thymus, cord and adult blood. Immunology *106*, 190-199.

Wing, K., Fehervari, Z., and Sakaguchi, S. (2006). Emerging possibilities in the development and function of regulatory T cells. International Immunology *18*, 991-1000.

Woo, E. Y., Chu, C. S., Goletz, T. J., Schlienger, K., Yeh, H., Coukos, G., Rubin, S. C., Kaiser, L. R., and June, C. H. (2001). Regulatory CD4(+)CD25(+) T cells in tumors from patients with early-stage non-small cell lung cancer and late-stage ovarian cancer. Cancer Research *61*, 4766-4772.

Woo, E. Y., Yeh, H., Chu, C. S., Schlienger, K., Carroll, R. G., Riley, J. L., Kaiser, L. R., and June, C. H. (2002). Cutting edge: Regulatory T cells from lung cancer patients directly inhibit autologous T cell proliferation. J Immunol *168*, 4272-4276.

Woods, J., Docker, P. T., Dyer, C. E., Haswell, S. J., and Greenman, J. (2011). On-chip integrated labelling, transport and detection of tumour cells. Electrophoresis *32*, 3188-3195.

Woods, K. V., El-Naggar, A., Clayman, G. L., and Grimm, E. A. (1998). Variable expression of cytokines in human head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell lines and consistent expression in surgical specimens. Cancer Research *58*, 3132-3141.

Wrangle, J. M., and Khuri, F. R. (2007). Chemoprevention of squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Current Opinion in Oncology *19*, 180-187.

Wu, M. Y., Kuo, T. Y., and Ho, H. N. (2011). Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes contain a higher proportion of FOXP3(+) T lymphocytes in cervical cancer. Journal of the Formosan Medical Association = Taiwan yi zhi *110*, 580-586.

Xin, H., Zhang, C., Herrmann, A., Du, Y., Figlin, R., and Yu, H. (2009). Sunitinib inhibition of Stat3 induces renal cell carcinoma tumor cell apoptosis and reduces immunosuppressive cells. Cancer Res *69*, 2506-2513.

Yamazaki, S., Iyoda, T., Tarbell, K., Olson, K., Velinzon, K., Inaba, K., and Steinman, R. M. (2003). Direct expansion of functional CD25+ CD4+ regulatory T cells by antigenprocessing dendritic cells. J Exp Med *198*, 235-247.

Yan, H., Ding, C. G., Tian, P. X., Ge, G. Q., Jin, Z. K., Jia, L. N., Ding, X. M., Pan, X. M., and Xue, W. J. (2009). Magnetic cell sorting and flow cytometry sorting methods for the isolation and function analysis of mouse CD4(+) CD25(+) Treg cells. Journal of Zhejiang University-Science B *10*, 928-932.

Yang, J., McEachern, D., Li, W., Davis, M. A., Li, H., Morgan, M. A., Bai, L., Sebolt, J. T., Sun, H., Lawrence, T. S., *et al.* (2011). Radiosensitization of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma by a SMAC-mimetic compound, SM-164, requires activation of caspases. Molecular cancer therapeutics *10*, 658-669.

Yokokawa, J., Remondo, C., Gulley, J. L., Arlen, P. M., Schlom, J. R., and Tsang, K. Y. (2008). Enhanced functionality of CD4(+)CD25(high)FoxP3(+) regulatory T cells in the peripheral blood of patients with prostate cancer. Clinical Cancer Research *14*, 1032-1040.

Young, L. S., and Rickinson, A. B. (2004). Epstein-Barr virus: 40 years on. Nature reviews Cancer 4, 757-768.

Young, M. R. I. (2006). Protective mechanisms of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas from immune assault. Head and Neck-Journal for the Sciences and Specialties of the Head and Neck 28, 462-470.

Young, M. R. I., Wright, M. A., Lozano, Y., Matthews, J. P., Benefield, J., and Prechel, M. M. (1996). Mechanisms of immune suppression in patients with head and neck cancer: Influence on the immune infiltrate of the cancer. Int J Cancer *67*, 333-338.

Yuan, X., and Malek, T. R. (2012). Cellular and molecular determinants for the development of natural and induced regulatory T cells. Hum Immunol *73*, 773-782.

Zamarron, B. F., and Chen, W. (2011). Dual roles of immune cells and their factors in cancer development and progression. Int J Biol Sci 7, 651-658.

Zhang, Y. L., Li, J., Mo, H. Y., Qiu, F., Zheng, L. M., Qian, C. N., and Zeng, Y. X. (2010). Different subsets of tumor infiltrating lymphocytes correlate with NPC progression in different ways. Mol Cancer 9, 4.

Zhou, J., Ding, T., Pan, W., Zhu, L. Y., Li, L., and Zheng, L. (2009). Increased intratumoral regulatory T cells are related to intratumoral macrophages and poor prognosis in hepatocellular carcinoma patients. Int J Cancer *125*, 1640-1648.

Zhu, X., Ma, L. L., and Ye, T. (2009). Expression of CD4(+)CD25(high)CD127(low/-) regulatory T cells in transitional cell carcinoma patients and its significance. Journal of clinical laboratory analysis 23, 197-201.

Zingg, U., Montani, M., Frey, D. M., Dirnhofer, S., Esterman, A. J., Went, P., and Oertli, D. (2010). Tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes and survival in patients with adenocarcinoma of the oesophagus. European journal of surgical oncology : the journal of the European Society of Surgical Oncology and the British Association of Surgical Oncology *36*, 670-677.

Appendix

PBS (1L; Oxoid Limited)

Dissolve 10 tablets in 1 litre of double distilled water

Sterilised using standard protocol for the Boxer autoclave (Lab₃)

<u>PBS/BSA/sodium azide</u>
1L PBS (Oxoid Limited)
2.5g BSA (Fisher Scientific, Thermo Scientific)
6.24ml 10% Sodium Azide (Sigma)

<u>Tris Buffer Solution (TBS; 20x)</u>
121g Trizma base (1M; Sigma)
170g Sodium chloride (3M; Sigma)
Make up to 1L with distilled H₂O
Adjust pH to 7.6 with concentrated hydrochloric acid
Dilute 20x in distilled H₂O for use in immunohistochemistry