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Leukocyte trafficking in tumor microenvironment

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The tumor microenvironment consists of both malignant and non-malignant cells and a plethora of soluble mediators. Different types of tumors have specific tumor microenvironments characterized by distinct chemokines and chemotactic factors that influence leukocyte recruitment. The immune cell infiltrate continuously interacts with stroma cells and influence tumor growth. Emerging evidence suggests that the regulation of the composition and the metabolic state of tumor-associated leukocytes may represent a new promising intervention strategy. Here we summarize the current knowledge on the role of tumor-associated immune cells in tumor growth and dissemination, with a specific focus on the nature of the chemotactic factors responsible for their accumulation and activation in tumors.

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Introduction

Non-resolving inflammation is considered to be one of the hallmarks of cancer [1^{••}]. Tumor microenvironment (TME) includes resident stromal components, such as fibroblasts and endothelial cells, and recruited immune cells, including myeloid and lymphoid cells, as well as bone marrow-derived precursors [2^{••}]. Cancer cells continuously cross talk with stromal cells and TME components do not act as passive bystanders, but are able to orchestrate and shape cancer progression as well as the therapeutic response [3^{••},4].

Leukocyte recruitment into tumors depends on the local production of chemotactic factors and on the regulation of

their cognate receptors expressed by leukocytes [3^{••},5]. Chemotactic receptors represent a family of G protein-coupled seven transmembrane surface receptors (GPCRs) [6[•]]. With approximately 50 proteins, chemokines are the largest subset of chemotactic proteins [6[•]] with many of them actively produced by tumor cells. Infiltrating leukocytes promote tumor growth and sustain chronic inflammation stimulating tumor cell proliferation, angiogenesis and promoting metastases [7^{••}]. Innate and adaptive immune cells also contribute to the formation of tumor leukocyte infiltrate and to a state of immune surveillance [8]. The balance between these pro- versus anti-tumor responses within TME can have a significant impact on clinical outcomes.

This review summarizes the contribution of TME-released chemotactic factors, responsible for leukocyte recruitment and activation, with the belief that the better understanding of the role of these signals will provide insights into the development of new therapeutic approaches.

Macrophages

During tumor progression several types of inflammatory cells are recruited from the blood into the tumor mass. Circulating monocytes can respond to a plethora of chemokines and growth factors produced by the tumor cells and by the components of TME, such as endothelial cells, pericytes, immune cells, fibroblasts, stem cells and progenitor cells. Recognized chemokines active in this process include CCL2, CCL5, CX3CL1 and CXCL12. Recently, the role of other molecules, such as CSF-1/M-CSF, CSF-2/GM-CSF and oxysterols in monocyte recruitment, maturation and polarization has also emerged [9,10]. Although the vast majority of tumor-associated macrophages (TAM) seem to originate from monocytes, the role and the interplay between tissue-resident and monocyte-derived macrophages may deserve further investigation [11,12].

TAM are characterized by a high heterogeneity and plasticity and may interact in a complex bidirectional way with tumor cells, cancer stem cells and stroma cells [7^{••}]. The nomenclature used to define macrophage functional plasticity in response to environmental signals has been recently reviewed and is based on (i) the source of the macrophages; (ii) the definition of the activators and (iii) the markers used to describe macrophage activation [13]. Indeed, when blood-derived monocytes infiltrate tumors, they differentiate into macrophages and

under the influence of the TME, can polarize into M1 or M2 macrophages, which differ in their profile of cytokine secretion (*i.e.*, IL-12^{high}IL-10^{low} vs. IL-12^{low}IL-10^{high}, respectively), chemokine repertoire (*e.g.*, CXCL9/CXCL10 vs. CCL17/CCL22, respectively), iron, glucose and folate metabolism, and scavenger receptor expression [13]. M1- and M2-polarized macrophages, as they are usually referred to in the literature, are extremes of a continuum in a universe of functional different states [13,14]. In tumors additional factors relevant to their functional polarization include IL-4 and IL-13, produced by Th2 cells, IL-10, produced by T regulatory (Treg) and B cells, other cytokines (*e.g.*, TGF- β and CSF-1), immune complexes, hypoxia and metabolic products of cancer cells (*e.g.*, lactic acid) [15–18].

TAM can directly interact with cancer cells leading to epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition, increased cell mobility, intravasation and favoring cancer cell extravasation to metastatic sites [19,20]. In addition, TAM play a crucial role in promoting tumor angiogenesis and tissue remodeling. Distinct types of perivascular macrophages have been associated with metastasis and recently it was shown that in hypoxic TAM, alterations of glucose metabolism can normalize the altered structure of tumor blood vessels and reduce metastasis [21]. Experimental and clinical evidence has shown that TAM have an immunosuppressive phenotype and promote tumor growth. Accordingly, their abundance in the tumor environment is generally, but not always, associated with poor prognosis [1^{**},3^{**},7^{**},16]. These observations have boosted research for therapies aimed at controlling TAM recruitment and activation in TME (Figure 1).

Neutrophils

Neutrophils are the most abundant circulating leukocytes and play a crucial role in host defense [22,23]. As part of the TME, neutrophils display high degree of plasticity, since they can polarize into cytotoxic, antitumor cells (N1) or in cells promoting tumor growth (N2), depending on the local microenvironment [24^{**},25]. Increased number of circulating neutrophils has been observed both in tumor bearing mice and in advanced cancer patients, where they are associated to poor outcome [3^{**},25,26]. Therefore, tumor associated neutrophils (TAN) may represent a prognostic factor and a marker of therapeutic responses in solid tumors [26–28].

Neutrophils are actively recruited to the TME by chemotactic gradients originating within the tumor mass [29]. The main chemotactic receptors expressed by neutrophils and responsible for their migration into tumors, are CXCR1 and CXCR2, with their ligands (*e.g.*, CXCL8, CXCL5, CXCL6 and CXCL7) being abundantly produced by tumor cells. For instance, CXCL8 was shown to regulate TAN infiltration in Ras-driven cancers [30]. CXCL5 overexpression was observed in

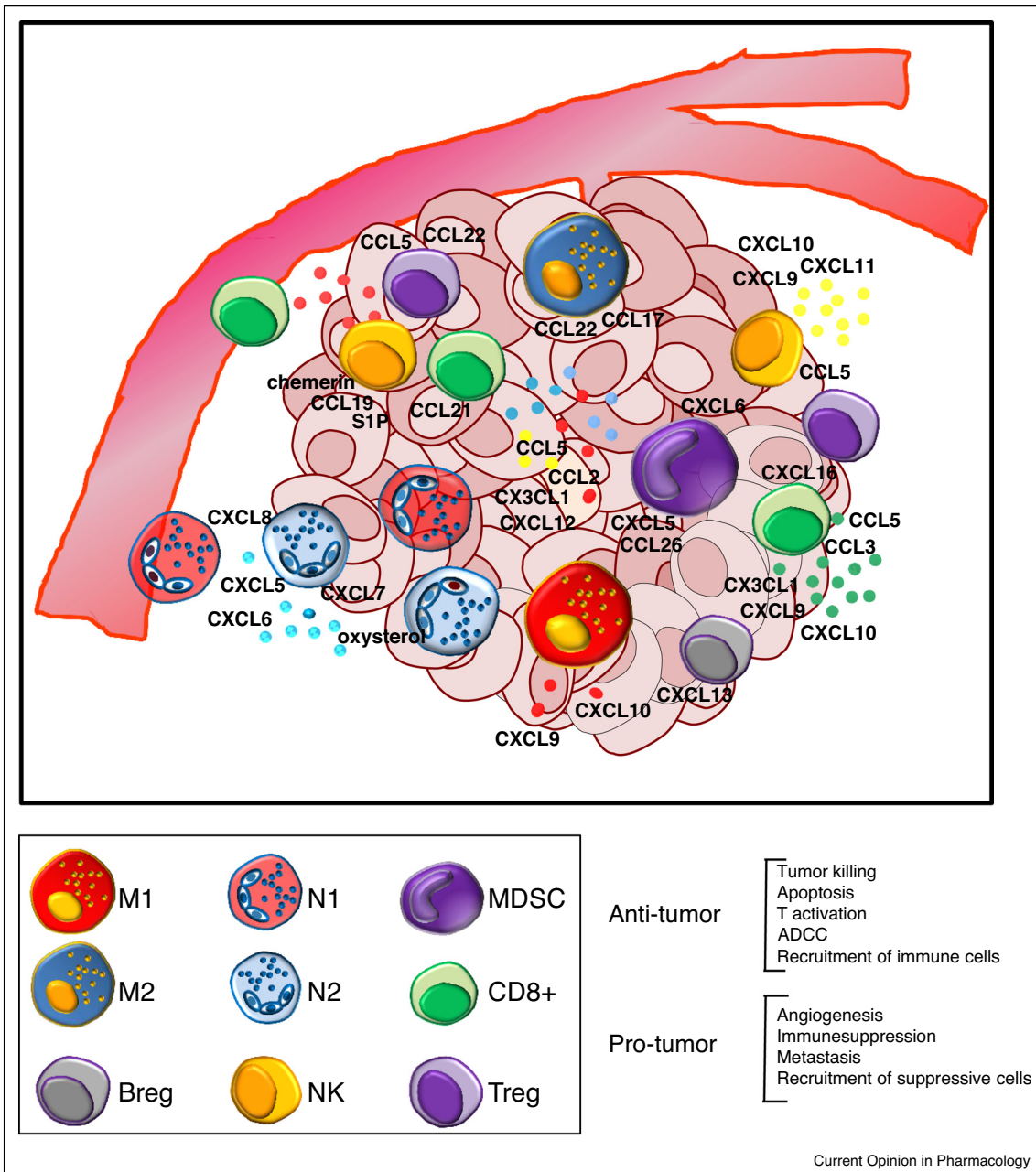
hepatocellular carcinoma and contributed to the epithelial-mesenchymal transition in this cancer [31,32]. CXCL6 is important for the recruitment of neutrophils in melanoma tumors [33]. CXCL7 is involved in liver metastasis of colon cancer and is associated to poor survival [34]. A tumor-derived lipid, the liver X receptor ligand oxysterol was recently shown to promote CXCR2-mediated neutrophil recruitment and tumor growth in murine models of lymphoma and lung cancer [35^{*}]. A positive role in tumor growth was also described for other mediators involved in neutrophil recruitment, including the bioactive lipid sphingosine-1 phosphate [36], VEGF and MMP9 (two hypoxia-inducible factor-1 downstream products) [37,38], the myeloid related proteins S100A8 and S100A9 [39] and the cytokine IL-17 [40,41]. The role of neutrophils in the control of tumor growth is further supported by the presence of oncogenic alterations associated with neutrophil infiltration. For instance, the oncogene MET is required for the recruitment of anti-tumor neutrophils [42], while the deficiency of the tumor suppressor LKB1 is responsible for the recruitment of pro-tumor neutrophils in a mouse model of lung adenocarcinoma [43].

Dendritic cells

Infiltration of antigen presenting dendritic cells (DC) in TME is an early sign of tumor-triggered host immune response. DC differentiate from bone marrow precursors under the influence of specific transcription factors that drive the development of different subsets, such as conventional (cDC) and plasmacytoid (pDC) DC [44^{**}]. Different chemokines are apparently involved in DC recruitment. For instance CCL3 was found to be involved in the recruitment of pre-DC from the bone marrow to TME [45]. In hepatocellular carcinoma, tumor infiltrating DC express the chemokine receptors CCR1 and CCR5 [46], whereas the CCR6/CCL20 axis is responsible for the recruitment of pDC in melanoma [47]. Differentiation of DC from precursors, recruited into the TME by a CCL2/CCR2-dependent mechanism, was described to be induced by anticancer chemotherapy [48,49]. The expression of CCR7 by tumor-infiltrating CD141⁺ DC correlated with a better prognosis [50]. In addition, Flt3L-driven intra-tumor expansion of CD103⁺ DC, the mouse counterpart of human CD141⁺ DC, was recently shown to enhance tumor response to anti-PD-L1 immunotherapy [51].

Although DC subsets with strong antigen-presenting activity have been identified in cancer [52], DC with immunosuppressive regulatory activity are mostly found in advanced solid tumors of different histological origin [53,54]. DC with a suppressive phenotype were identified in different ovarian cancer models [55] and a pro-tumor phenotype was recently described in lung DC by transcriptome analysis [56]. Finally, in different tumors tolerogenic pDC were also described and shown to

Figure 1



Leukocyte recruitment in the tumor microenvironment.

Representation of the main chemotactic factors responsible for the recruitment of tumor infiltrating cells. The composition of immune cells in the tumor microenvironment can affect the outcome of tumor development and therapy. These cells can drive both pro- and anti-tumor activities as indicated.

promote tumor progression through the induction of regulatory T cells [57].

Natural killer cells

Natural killer (NK) cells are part of the emerging population of innate lymphocytes (ILC). NK cells act both as immunoregulators and cytotoxic effector cells against virus-infected and transformed cells [58,59]. Circulating

human NK cells can be divided in two major subsets: the high cytokine producers CD56^{high}CD16^{+/-} NK cells and the main cytotoxic CD56^{low}CD16^{high} NK cell population [60,61]. These two subsets are endowed with distinct chemokine receptors and adhesion molecules [62]. In particular CD56^{low}CD16^{high} NK cells express chemokines and homing receptors (*i.e.*, CXCR1, CX3CR1^{high} and CD62L, CXCR2 and CXCR3^{low})

driving their preferential recruitment to inflamed peripheral tissues, while CD56^{high}CD16^{+/-} NK cells express high levels of CXCR3, CCR7, CCR5 and CD62L that are all responsible for their preferential homing to secondary lymphoid organs [63]. In addition to these, other chemotactic factors, such as chemerin and the sphingosine 1-phosphate (S1P) can direct NK cells during inflammation and in steady-state conditions [64,65]. In solid tumors an enrichment of the CD56^{high}CD16^{+/-} subset is usually observed. This is the case in lung cancer, where CXCL9, CXCL10 and CXCL11, the CXCR3 ligands, a main chemokine receptor expressed by CD56^{high}CD16^{+/-} NK cells, were also found upregulated [66,67]. Conversely, in the same tumor, CXCL2, a chemokine active on the recruitment of CD56^{low} NK cells, was down-regulated. Similarly, a higher frequency of CD56^{high}CD16^{+/-} NK cells is found in breast cancer and correlates with increased local levels of CCL5 and CCL19. In patients with melanoma, metastatic lymph nodes are characterized by the prevalence of a population of CD56^{low}CD57⁺KIRs⁺CD69⁺ NK cells expressing CCR7, the lymph node homing chemokine receptor [68]. Haematological malignancies mainly originate in the BM, also the main site of NK cell generation. CXCL12/CXCR4 and CXCL10/CXCR3 represents two important chemokine axes guiding ingress/egress of NK cells from the BM. In BM plasma samples from patients with active multiple myeloma a decreased concentration of CXCL12 and an up-regulation of CXCR3 ligands (CXCL9, CXCL10 and CXCL11) was correlated with the altered distribution of BM NK cell subsets [69]. The role of tumor-infiltrating NK cells in cancer progression has not been fully elucidated. Several studies have demonstrated a pro-tumorigenic phenotype of cancer infiltrating NK cells due to their ability to release angiogenic factors and immunosuppressive cytokines [70]. In tumor microenvironment both cancer cells and other tumor-resident immune cells may alter the NK cell phenotype and impair their cytotoxic activity thus promoting tumor evasion [71]. Notably in this context the membrane expression of TGF- β by Treg cells seems to be the principal mechanism of NK cell suppression [72,73]. Moreover T regulatory cells can affect NK cell proliferation and activation by depriving IL-2 released by activated CD4⁺ T cells [74].

Adaptive immune effectors cells

During the past ten years, the quantification of lymphocytes in large histopathological collections coupled to bioinformatics analyses has demonstrated, in most solid cancers, a positive correlation between the number of infiltrating effector T lymphocytes (CD8⁺ cytotoxic lymphocytes and Th1 cells) and patient survival [2^{**},75]. Poor lymphocyte infiltration represents one main reason for the immune failure in the eradication of cancer cells [76]. More complex is the understanding of the role in tumor progression of tumor-infiltrating B cells. Though, the

presence of B cells and tumour-reactive antibodies correlates with extended patient survival in many human cancers and in preclinical experimental models [77].

Tumor-specific cytotoxic T cells are recruited in response to the pro-inflammatory chemokines CCL3 and CCL5 [78,79]. However, these chemokines also attract immunosuppressive cells, such as TAM and Tregs and this may explain why their role in the antitumor response remains controversial [80]. Several studies demonstrated that the intratumor expression of CXCR3 ligands (*e.g.*, CXCL9 and CXCL10) correlates with the infiltration of effector T cells and increase of patient survival [81–83]. CXCL9 and CXCL10 are the main inflammatory chemokines attracting Th1, CD8⁺ T cells and NK cells. Of relevance, these chemokines also exert anti-angiogenic functions. In colorectal cancer, high levels of CX3CL1 and CXCL16 in the tumor correlated with higher cytotoxic T cells, tumor infiltration and better prognosis [84].

In preclinical studies, two homeostatic chemokines, namely CCL19 and CCL21, were shown to reduce tumor burden and were proposed as immunotherapeutic agents [85]. In this case, the antitumor effect might be mediated by the concomitant attraction of dendritic cells and naïve T cells in tertiary lymphoid structures. Indeed CCL19 and CCL21, together with CXCL13 (a chemokine active on naïve B cells), are overexpressed in tumor-associated lymphoid tertiary structures as compared to tumor areas [86]. Tertiary lymphoid structures were recently demonstrated to represent niches where local antitumor T- and B-cell response is initiated and maintained [87^{**}].

Myeloid and lymphoid regulatory cells

Over the last decade, much progress has been made to characterize the cells responsible for tumor-induced immunosuppression. Myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) are a heterogeneous mixture of immature myeloid cells with either monocytic or granulocytic morphology [88,89]. MDSCs have a tumor-promoting action by suppressing antitumor effector cells and by the production of iNOS and arginase [90]. The heterogeneity of this cell population is mirrored by the complex variety of chemokines responsible for their recruitment into tumors. In colorectal cancer, MDSCs are recruited by CCR2-, CXCR2- and CXCR4-dependent mechanisms to promote tumor progression and metastases [91]. In prostate tumors, MDSC recruitment is mediated by the production of CXCL5 by cancer cells; accordingly, blockage of the CXCL5/CXCR2 interaction elicited antitumor response and increased host survival [92]. The CXCR5/CXCL13 axis was reported to be crucial for the recruitment of MDSCs in gastric cancer [93], while the hypoxia-inducible chemokine CCL26 and its low affinity receptor CX3CR1 were reported to regulate the recruitment of MDSCs in primary hepatocellular carcinoma [94].

Lymphocyte subsets endowed with immunosuppressive activity are known to regulate both innate and tumor-specific immune responses. Treg cells are T cell subsets that can be identified by the expression of CD4, CD25 and by the expression of the transcription factor FoxP3. Because of their chemokine receptor repertoire (*i.e.*, CCR4, CCR6, CCR5), Treg cells tend to accumulate in tumor-enriched with the cognate ligands (*i.e.*, CCL5, CCL22) [95,96]. The accumulation of Tregs is a poor prognostic factor in many tumors including melanoma, non-small lung cancer, pancreatic, ovarian, cervical carcinoma and glioblastoma [2^{••},97] and therapeutic Treg depletion promotes anti-tumor immunity [98]. However, it should be noted that this correlation does not apply to all types of cancers and in certain tumors, such as colorectal cancer, Treg infiltration correlates with a better prognosis [2^{••}]. In these situations, Treg cells are thought to inhibit the inflammatory process that promotes cell transformation and tumor growth. Similar to Treg cells, regulatory B (Breg) cells are a B cell subset able to inhibit effector T cells and innate immune responses and to promote the generation of Treg cells. Their immunosuppressive activity resides in the ability to produce anti-inflammatory mediators and cytokines, such as IL-10 and TGF- β [99^{••}]. Bregs express the chemokine receptor CXCR5 and respond to the ligand CXCL13 to migrate to lymph nodes and to infiltrate tumors (*e.g.*, prostate cancer) [100]. Similar to Tregs, the prognostic value of Breg cells is controversial. Many studies have reported that a high number of Breg cells is associated with longer survival of patients with colorectal or ovarian cancers. In contrast, in other types of tumors, such as lung, esophageal and liver cancers, the presence of Breg cells is indicative of shorter survival [101]. Interestingly, in human lymphoid malignancies, such as chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), malignant B cells share immunoregulatory functions and IL-10 production with Bregs. These characteristics may contribute to the immunosuppression state observed in CLL patients [102].

Concluding remarks

Emerging evidence indicates that tumor infiltrating leukocytes endowed with an immunosuppressive phenotype may represent a promising target of immunotherapy to unleash immune responses [3^{••}]. In the past few years, this strategy has started to be explored. For instance, novel therapies directed against myeloid tumor infiltrate are emerging and include multiple strategies, such as the inhibition of the recruitment and/or proliferation of monocytes/macrophages; the selective ablation of mononuclear phagocytes; the re-education of TAM, from tumor-promoting cells to cells endowed with tumoricidal functions, and the pharmacologically modulation of TAM metabolism responsible for tumor-promoting functions [3^{••},103]. For instance, alteration of macrophage polarization was obtained after CSF-1R inhibition with the consequent block of glioma progression [104].

Pharmacological or genetic inhibition of oxysterols synthesis by cells of a pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor blocked the recruitment of proangiogenic neutrophils and tumor growth [105]. Transient Treg depletion induced regression of metastatic lesions in advanced stage melanoma patients [98]. In breast cancer patients undergoing tumor resection and radiotherapy, Treg depletion, prior to treatment, is associated with an anti-tumor immune response and improved clinical outcomes [98]. Additionally, Treg depletion followed by cancer antigen vaccination generated effective anti-tumor CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-cell responses in metastatic breast cancer patients [98]. All these approaches have been exploited with promising results at the preclinical level and some of them are currently undergoing clinical trials [3^{••},103]. Future studies will clarify the clinical impact of leukocyte-directed therapeutic strategies used alone or in combination with cytoreductive therapies.

Conflict of interest statement

Nothing declared.

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