

A $\gamma\delta$ T-cell Imprint in a Rare Skin Tumor

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In-depth immune profiling can guide the development and targeting of cancer immunotherapies. In this issue, Gherardin and colleagues find a strong signature of $\gamma\delta$ T cells in the immune infiltrate of Merkel cell carcinoma that correlates with a more favorable prognosis and heightened responsiveness to checkpoint inhibitors. This may lead to future $\gamma\delta$ T cell-targeted immunotherapies.

See article by Gherardin et al., p. 612

Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC) is a rare cancer that arises in skin neuroendocrine cells (1). It is caused by either Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCPyV) or UV damage. MCPyV MCCs exhibit a low mutation burden, whereas abundant mutations in UV damage-associated MCCs result in the expression of neoantigens. MCC is quite aggressive, with high rates of metastases and a 5-year overall survival rate of ~50%. The primary therapy for MCC is local excision. In recent years, anti-PD-1 and anti-PD-L1 immunotherapies have emerged as promising new treatments. As successfully designing new immunotherapies relies on detailed knowledge of a cancer's immune profile, Gherardin and colleagues characterize the immune infiltrate of MCC at high resolution and find an unusual $\gamma\delta$ T-cell imprint that correlates with better response. This finding may guide the future development of MCC immunotherapies (2).

Using multiplex-immunohistochemistry/immunofluorescence, Gherardin and colleagues analyze 58 MCC specimens and find that at least 20% of infiltrating T cells are $\gamma\delta$ T cells in almost half of the specimens. $\gamma\delta$ T cells mainly reside in peripheral tissues, including the skin, where they sense tissue damage and promote immune responses and wound healing (3, 4). Based on V δ gene segment usage, $\gamma\delta$ T cells comprise three main groups: V δ 1, which encompass most tissue $\gamma\delta$ T cells; V δ 2, which are mainly circulating; and V δ 3, which represent a minority of tissue $\gamma\delta$ T cells. All $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize nonpeptidic ligands that are presented by non-classic MHC molecules, MHC-like molecules, or butyrophilin-like proteins (BTNL; ref. 5).

Gherardin and colleagues analyze multiple tumor samples by bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-seq), showing a correlation between the presence of a $\gamma\delta$ T-cell signature and prolonged survival. They use single-cell RNA-seq to show that MCC $\gamma\delta$ T cells are predominantly of the V δ 1 type and include two major clusters. The largest cluster expresses genes encoding cytotoxic mediators (granzymes and perforin), natural killer (NK)-cell receptors (NKG2E and Nkp46), and proteins indicative of exhaustion (TIM3, PD1, LAG3, and CTLA4) and tissue residency (CD103). The less prominent cluster expresses NK-cell receptors and CD69, which indicates activation, but there are no transcripts intimating exhaustion or residency. Whether these $\gamma\delta$ T-cell populations are developmentally related and have distinct effects on disease progression was not addressed. T-cell receptor (TCR) repertoire analysis indicates that $\gamma\delta$ T cells are oligoclonal, suggesting antigen-driven expansion. Expression of the four most dominant $\gamma\delta$ TCR clonotypes isolated from one tumor in reporter cells shows that one clone recognizes the nonclassical MHC molecule MR1, which presents riboflavin derivatives. A second clone recognizes CD1c, which presents glycolipids. Among all patients studied, four undergoing immune-checkpoint blockade are shown to have more tumor-infiltrating $\gamma\delta$ T cells; three of them had a complete response, suggesting that the beneficial effect of the treatment may be partly due to $\gamma\delta$ T cells.

The study by Gherardin and colleagues shows that $\gamma\delta$ T cells are biomarkers predictive of better prognosis and attractive candidates for future immunotherapies. It also raises important questions: (i) Do tumor ligands activate $\gamma\delta$ T cells through TCRs, NK-cell receptors, or other cell-surface molecules? (ii) Do tumor $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize BTNLs in addition to MR1 and CD1c? (iii) Which pathways induce activation, exhaustion, and tissue residency phenotypes? (iv) Do immune-checkpoint inhibitors affect $\gamma\delta$ T-cell exhaustion? (v) Are resident $\gamma\delta$ T cells present in the tissue before the tumor evolves? Answering these questions will help design strategies to enhance $\gamma\delta$ T-cell responses across many cancer types.

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Authors' Disclosures

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