ORIGINAL ARTICLE

immunology
Insights into immunity in health and disease

High density of CD8 T cell and immune imbalance of T lymphocytes subsets are associated with proliferative verrucous leukoplakia

Darcy Fernandes[1] | Camila de Oliveira Barbeiro[1] | Mariana Paravani Palaçon[1] |
Mariel Ruivo Biancardi[1] | Túlio Morandin Ferrisse[1] | Heitor Albergoni Silveira[1] |
Rogerio Moraes Castilho[2] | Luciana Yamamoto de Almeida[1] |
Jorge Esquiche Leon[3] | Andreia Bufalino[1]

[1]Oral Medicine, Department of Diagnosis and Surgery, São Paulo State University (Unesp), School of Dentistry, Araraquara, São Paulo, Brazil

[2]Laboratory of Epithelial Biology, Department of Periodontics and Oral Medicine, University of Michigan, School of Dentistry, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA

[3]Oral Pathology, Department of Stomatology, Public Oral Health and Forensic Dentistry, Ribeirão Preto Dental School, University of São Paulo (FORP/USP), Ribeirão Preto, São Paulo, Brazil

Correspondence
Andreia Bufalino, Oral Medicine, Department of Diagnosis and Surgery, São Paulo State University (Unesp), School of Dentistry, Rua Humaitá, 1680, Araraquara, São Paulo 14801-903, Brazil.
Email: andreia.bufalino@unesp.br

Abstract

Oral leukoplakia (OL) and proliferative verrucous leukoplakia (PVL) are oral potentially malignant disorders (OPMDs) that microscopically show no or varying degrees of dysplasia. Even sharing clinical and microscopic aspects, PVL shows a more aggressive clinical behaviour, with a malignant transformation rate greater than 40%. Inflammatory infiltrate associated with dysplastic lesions may favour malignant transformation of OPMDs. This study aimed to evaluate the density of T cells and cytokines in dysplastic lesions from OL and PVL patients. Additionally, we evaluated whether soluble products produced in vitro by dysplastic keratinocytes are capable of modulating apoptosis rates and Th phenotype (Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg) of peripheral blood mononuclear cells. The density of CD3, CD4 and CD8 T cells was assessed by immunohistochemistry. Cytokines and chemokines profile from frozen tissue samples were analysed using the LUMINEX system. Apoptosis rates and Th phenotype modulation were evaluated by flow cytometry. Our results showed an increase in the number of CD8 T cell in the subepithelial region from PVL dysplastic lesions in relation to OL samples. PVL showed increased levels of IL-5 and a decrease in IL-1β and IFN-γ levels compared to OL. Soluble products of PVL and oral carcinoma cell cultures were able to reduce apoptosis rate and promote an imbalance of Th1/Th2 and Th17/Treg. The high-subepithelial density of CD8 T cells and immune imbalance of T lymphocytes subsets probably play an important role in the pathogenesis of PVL and may explain its more aggressive behaviour in relation to OL.

KEYWORDS
epithelial dysplasia, lymphocytes, malignant transformation, oral leukoplakia, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia

---

Darcy Fernandes and Camila de Oliveira Barbeiro contributed equally to this work and should be considered joint first authors.

INTRODUCTION

Oral epithelial dysplasia is defined as a spectrum of architectural and cytological epithelial changes caused by the accumulation of genetic changes, associated with an increased risk of progression to squamous cell carcinoma [1, 2]. Currently, it is well established that oral potentially malignant disorders (OPMD) with epithelial dysplasia are more often associated with malignant transformation to oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) [1, 3, 4]. Oral leukoplakia (OL), and proliferative verrucous leukoplakia (PVL) are examples of OPMD that microscopically reveal epithelial lesions without or with epithelial dysplasia and clinically present as a white plaque that may have different patterns including homogenous, verrucous/nodular, or erythroplakia [2, 5–7].

OL has an incidence rate that varies from 1% to 4% and a recent systematic review showed a malignant transformation rate of around 9.8% [1, 8, 9]. The most affected sites are the vermilion of the lip, cheek mucosa and gums, with men over the age of 40 being the most affected, although some studies show that there is no predilection for sex [5, 10]. The risk factors associated with OL are similar to those associated with OSCCs and include smoking, excessive alcohol consumption, old age, betel's knot and exposure to ultraviolet radiation in cases that affect the vermilion lip [11]. On the other hand, PVL presents as a white plaque that tends to become multifocal with an aggressive, progressive and irreversible behaviour [7, 11, 12]. The rate of malignant transformation of PVL into OSCC or oral verrucous carcinoma varies from 14.3% to 75%, with an average rate ranging from 43.87% to 65.8% [13, 14]. Unlike OL and OSCC, the aetiology of PVL is not always associated with the risk factors, such as tobacco, alcohol and areca [7, 8, 11, 12]. The diagnosis of PVL is based on multiple periodic biopsies that may reveal different degrees of dysplasia or even the presence of OSCC [11].

Although OL and PVL share some clinical and microscopic characteristics, it is well described that cellular and molecular differences favour malignant transformation in PVL. The OPMD microenvironment is usually composed of a chronic inflammatory infiltrate which has been described to play role in the process of malignant transformation [8, 15, 16]. It is well known that the immune system may identify and destroy pre-neoplastic cells in a process called immunosurveillance, which works as an important defence against cancer [16–20]. Despite evidence in favour of the fundamental role of the immune system in eliminating cancer, it has been shown that tumour cells can use the tumour's inflammatory infiltrate to progress through selection, subversion and suppression of the immune system [15–21]. However, the influence of inflammatory cells in OL and PVL behaviour remains unknown. Thereby, we aimed to evaluate and compare the density of T helper cells (Th) and T cytotoxic cells (Tc), including related cytokines, in dysplastic lesions from OL and PVL patients. Additionally, we evaluated whether soluble products produced in vitro by dysplastic keratinocytes are capable of modulating apoptosis rates and the Th phenotype of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and tissue collection

For this study, 46 oral tissue specimens were provided by the Department of Diagnosis and Surgery, São Paulo State University (Unesp), School of Dentistry (Brazil). After performing the biopsy, the tissue specimens were divided into two parts of 10 mm each. One of the fragments was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and processed for histopathological and immunohistochemical analysis. The second part of the tissue specimens was immediately frozen in nitrogen and kept in a $-80°C$ freezer. All specimens included in this study microscopically revealed hyperkeratosis without or with oral epithelial dysplasia (mild, moderate or severe) or verrucous hyperplasia, and they were collected from patients with a definitive clinicopathological diagnosis of OL or PVL established according to strict criteria [1, 4, 22–24]. Haematoxylin–eosin stained sections were used to assess the presence and degree of oral dysplasia by two experienced and independent pathologists (J.E.L. and H.A.S.), previously calibrated, following the WHO classification [1]. Subsequently, the samples were classified according to the potential susceptibility for malignant transformation into 'low-risk' and 'high-risk' lesions, according to the binary system proposed by Kujan et al [23]. In this system, Kujan et al. group in 'low-risk' lesions those with less than four architectural changes or less than five cytological changes, and in the high-risk group are lesions that present at least four architectural changes and five cytological changes. These specimens were then divided into two groups. Group 1 was composed of 19 specimens of biopsies from 19 patients with a clinicopathological diagnosis of OL and an average follow-up period of 6 years, calculated from the time of the biopsy. Group 2 consisted of 27 specimens of biopsies from 12 patients with a clinicopathological diagnosis of PVL. This archive has an average follow-up period of 7 years and approximately two to three biopsies from each patient were collected from different oral sites, considering that PVL generally affects multiple sites. OL and PVL patients included in

this study had a minimum follow-up of 5 years after the confirmation of the diagnosis.

In addition, to evaluate the profile of cytokines and chemokines through LUMINEX® system, 12 samples from OSCC patients and 14 non-neoplastic inflammatory reaction (inflammatory fibrous hyperplasia [IFH]) samples obtained from healthy donors were included as control groups. For this type of assay, it is important to use control groups that allow the comparison of immunological profiles. All samples used in this study were collected according to an institutional review board-approved clinical protocol after written informed consent was obtained (CAAE: 34361814.9.0000.5416). All study subjects received written informed consent.

Immunohistochemical analysis

Oral tissue specimens were collected from OL and PVL patients as described above and fixed in 4% formalin and paraffin-embedded. The paraffin sections were dewaxed in xylol and rehydrated in a series of alcohols (95%, 80% and 70%). Immunohistochemistry for cell typing was carried out using primary antibodies against CD3 and CD8 (#GA503 and #IR649, respectively, Dako), and CD4 (CD4-368-L-CE, Leica Biosystems), followed by the LSAB method (#K0675, Dako). After, the sections were incubated with 0.6 mg/ml 3,3′diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (DAB, Sigma-Aldrich) and counterstained with Harris haematoxylin. Negative controls were obtained by suppressing the primary antibodies. Five representative fields were photographed separately from the intraepithelial and the subepithelial areas with an Olympus DP25 camera (Olympus) attached to the Nikon Eclipse E600 microscope (Nikon) utilizing a 20× objective. The positive cells were counted by two previously calibrated independent examiners using the Image J software (version 1.52, NIH). Quantification was performed by the average of the five fields.

Cytokines and chemokines assays

The profile of inflammatory cytokines from the frozen tissue samples was analysed using the LUMINEX® system. Total proteins were extracted from frozen tissue samples using a detergent-based extraction buffer T-PER (Tissue Protein Extraction Reagent—Pierce) containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (Complete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablets; Roche Diagnostics). A panel of 26 cytokines and chemokines, including GM-CSF, IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-2, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-9, IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-17A, IL-18, IL-21, IL-22, IL-23, IL-27, TNF-α, Granzyme A,

Granzyme B, Perforin, MIP-1α, MIP-1β, sCD137, sFas and sFasL, was used to assess CD4$^+$ cell subsets (#EPX180-12165-901, ThermoFisher Scientific), and the activation status of CD8$^+$ cells (#HCD8MAG-15K, Merck Millipore Corporation). Samples were processed following the manufacturer's instructions and then read on the Luminex's MAGPIX® instrument. Data analysis was performed using the xPONENT® software (Luminex Corporation).

Preparation of PBMC

To obtain PBMC, peripheral blood was collected from the same healthy donor (without diabetes, hepatitis and HIV) for all experiments. The technique of Ficoll–Hypaque density centrifugation of heparinized blood was used to obtain PBMC. The PBMC composite sediment was resuspended in RPMI 1640 culture medium (Invitrogen) supplemented with L-Glutamine, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Cultilab Ltda), 10 mM HEPES (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid) and 200 U/ml of Penicillin/Streptomycin (Invitrogen).

Primary cell cultures of oral keratinocytes and cell lines

We used primary cell culture derived from dysplastic oral keratinocytes from proliferative verrucous leukoplakia (DOK-PVL) and normal human oral keratinocytes (HOK). In order to obtain HOK, fragments of gingival tissue were collected from volunteer subjects who underwent clinical crown augmentation surgery. While DOK-PVL was obtained from a white lesion located on the lower alveolar ridge of a 76-year-old man and the degree of dysplasia, described as mild/moderate, from a volunteer patient with a previous clinicopathological diagnosis of PVL. The protocol for the primary cell was based on a previous study [56]. The epithelial origin of the isolated cells was confirmed by immunofluorescence with antibody to human cytokeratin AE1/AE3 (Abcam). Morphology and immunofluorescence staining of DOK-PVL and HOK are presented in Supplementary 1.

In addition, the cell lines DOK and SCC-25 were used in this study, all obtained commercially. The human dysplastic keratinocyte cell line, DOK (CVCL_1180; ECACC—European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures), comes from a white lesion on the back of the tongue of a 57-year-old man, and the degree of dysplasia has been described as mild/moderate. This cell line was cultivated in DMEM culture medium (Gibco) supplemented with L-Glutamine, 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (Lonza),

5 μg/ml hydrocortisone and 200 U/ml Penicillin/Streptomycin (Gibco). The SCC-25 cell line (CRL-1628) comes from a human tongue SCC obtained from a 70-year-old man and was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection. These cells were grown in a culture medium composed of equal parts of DMEM and Ham's F12 medium (DMEM/F12; Invitrogen) containing 1.2 g/L sodium bicarbonate, 2.5 mM L-glutamine, 15 mM HEPES and 0.5 mM sodium pyruvate supplemented with 10% FBS (Cultilab Ltds), 0.4 μg/ml hydrocortisone (Sigma-Aldrich) and antibiotic (Invitrogen). All cell lines were kept at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Conditioned medium

Conditioned medium (CM) was prepared using HOK, DOK, DOK-PVL and SCC-25 cell cultures. Briefly, 1×10^6 cells from each of the four cell types were cultivated on 100 mm^2 plates and maintained in culture until they reached approximately 80% confluence. RPMI 1640 culture medium (4 ml) was added to each plate, which was collected after 24 h and immediately aliquoted and kept in a −20°C freezer until use. For carrying out the experiments, the PBMC were grown in the proportion of 1:1 (vol:vol) of CM and fresh unconditioned culture medium RPMI 1640. The unconditioned RPMI culture medium was used as a reference sample.

Immunophenotyping by flow cytometry

Two commercially available kits were used to characterize Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg (# 560751 and # 560762; BD Biosciences). The immunophenotyping kits used provided a cocktail of primary antibodies for the detection of human CD4, IFN-γ (for Th1), IL-4 (for Th2), IL-17A (for Th17) and FoxP3 (Treg). Briefly, PBMC were grown in RPMI 1640 or CM produced by different cell cultures (HOK, DOK, DOK-PVL and SCC-25), both supplemented with 10% FBS, for a period of 72 h at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Monensin (10 μg/ml) was added for 4 h before the end of the culture to ensure the retention of cytokines inside the cell. After incubation, approximately 3×10^6 PBMC were collected and centrifuged at 500g for 5 min. The cells were then washed in saline solution containing 1% FBS and 0.01% sodium azide (solution called stain buffer), centrifuged and then the PBMC were fixed according to the manufacturer guidelines. Then, the cells were incubated for 30 min, at room temperature, with each of the cocktails. After incubation, the cells were washed with stain buffer and centrifuged at 500g for 5 min. All the

analysis was made in a LSR Fortessa flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) and the data were analysed using the FACSDiva software (version 8.0.1, BD Biosciences).

Analysis of apoptosis index in PBMC

To access the rates of cell death due to apoptosis, 3×10^5 PBM were cultured in 12-well plates in the presence of MC from the HOK, DOK, DOK-PVL and SCC-25 cell cultures or RPMI 1640 non-conditioned culture medium, in the times of 24 and 48 h. After the previously determined periods, the cells were transferred to sterile tubes and centrifuged for 5 min at 400g. The precipitated cells were resuspended in 100 μl of binding buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 140 mM NaCl and 2.5 mM $CaCl_2$) containing 5 μl of annexin-V PE and 5 μl of 7-AAD (BD Pharmingen). After incubation, 400 μl of binding buffer was added and the percentage of positive cells was determined by reading 10 000 events on a FACSVerse flow cytometer (BD Biosciences), followed by analysing the data in the FlowJo software (version 10.0.7, Tree Star).

Statistical analyses

The data were tabulated and the normal or non-normal distribution was determined by the Shapiro–Wilk normality test and by the descriptive analysis of skewness and kurtosis for subsequent application of adequate statistical tests according to the data distribution. For analysis of multiple comparisons within groups, analyses of variance (ANOVA ONE-WAY) and Kruskal Wallis were performed, according to the distribution of samples (normal or non-normal). In the presence of a statistically significant difference, the Tukey post-test and Dunn's post-test were performed, respectively. Additionally, Spearman's correlation test was used to determine the correlation between the density of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ cells and the cytokine and chemokine levels of dysplastic lesions of OL and PVL groups. In addition, a simple linear correlation was performed to assess the correlation of effect and influence between each T cell marker (CD3, CD4 and CD8) for OL and PVL. Simple logistic regressions were performed to evaluate the predictive role of CD3$^+$, CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ cells in the malignant transformation risk for OL and PVL. In this regard, the level of T cell markers was divided into high and low levels according to the mean. p-Values < 0.05 were considered significant and all the analyses were made in SPSS version 20.0 and the graphs were prepared using the Prism 8 GraphPad.

TABLE 1 Clinicopathological characteristics of OL and PVL patients

Parameters	OL, N = 19 n (%)	PVL, N = 12 n (%)	p-Value
Age			
Average years	52.2	64.3	0.01
Sex			
Male	11 (57.9)	6 (50.0)	0.66
Female	8 (42.1)	6 (50.0)	
Race			
White	15 (78.9)	12 (100.0)	0.13
Non-White	4 (21.1)	0 (0.0)	
Tobacco			
No	9 (47.4)	8 (66.7)	0.46
Yes	10 (52.6)	4 (33.3)	
Alcohol			
No	18 (94.7)	10 (83.3)	0.54
Yes	1 (5.3)	2 (16.7)	
Total lesion size			
Less than 3 cm	16 (84.2)	0 (0.0)	<0.0001
Larger than 3 cm	3 (15.8)	12 (100.0)	
Spreading			
No	19 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	<0.0001
Yes	0 (0.0)	12 (100.0)	
Histopathological risk			
Low risk	13 (68.4)	16 (59.3)[a]	0.52
High risk	6 (31.6)	11 (40.7)[a]	
Malignant transformation			
No	16 (84.2)	5 (41.7)	0.02
Yes	3 (15.8)	7 (58.3)	
Recurrence			
No	19 (100.0)	3 (25.0)	<0.0001
Yes	0 (0.0)	9 (75.0)	

Note: p Value ≤ 0.05 indicates a statistically significant difference.
Abbreviations: OL, oral leukoplakia; PVL, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia.
[a]Number of events considering the number of paraffin samples (n = 27) obtained from the PVL group (n = 12).

RESULTS

The density of CD8$^+$ T cells is high in the subepithelial region of the dysplastic lesions in the PVL group

All the clinicopathological data of OL and PVL patients are shown in Table 1. Immunohistochemical staining for
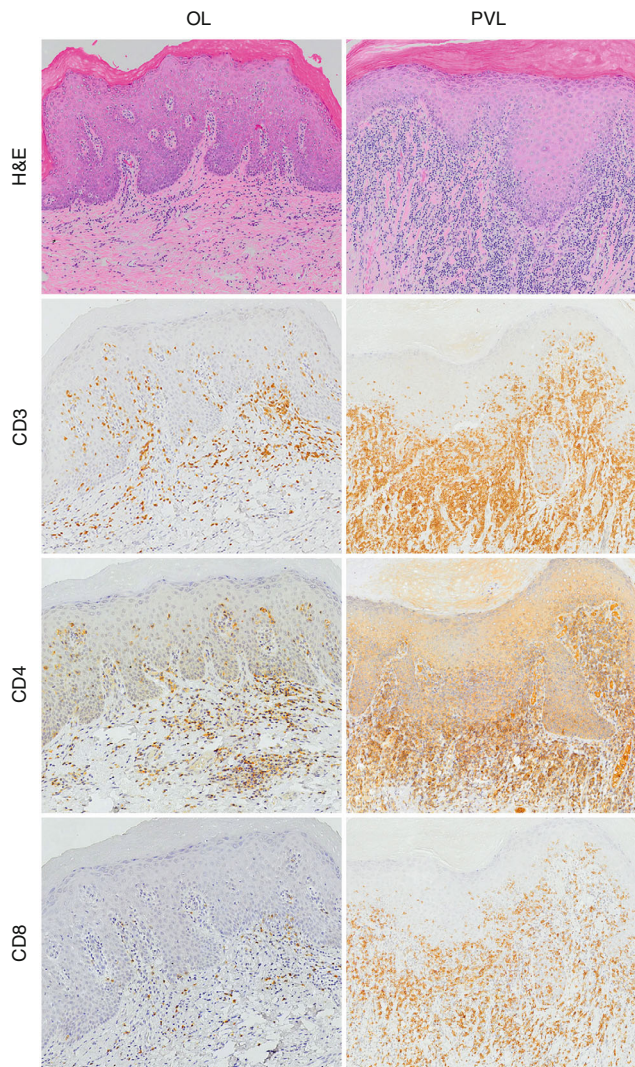

FIGURE 1 Tissue fragments stained with haematoxylin and eosin and the respective immunohistochemical staining patterns for CD3, CD4 and CD8 T cells observed in the oral leukoplakia and proliferative verrucous leukoplakia groups (20× magnification)

CD3 cells showed a membranous and/or cytoplasmic staining, while CD4 and CD8 cells showed limited staining to the superficial membrane. In addition, it was observed that in the connective tissue these T cells were observed as a sub-epithelial infiltrate in close relationship with the basal cell layer of the epithelium. When infiltrating the epithelial tissue, these cells were seen mainly in the basal and spinous layers of the epithelium of the two groups studied. In Figure 1, the tissue fragments are stained with haematoxylin and eosin, and the immunohistochemical staining pattern for CD3, CD4 and CD8 T lymphocytes in representative samples of the OL and PVL groups is shown.

Comparative analysis of the density of CD3, CD4 and CD8 T cells in the intraepithelial compartment of the OL and PVL groups did not reveal statistically significant
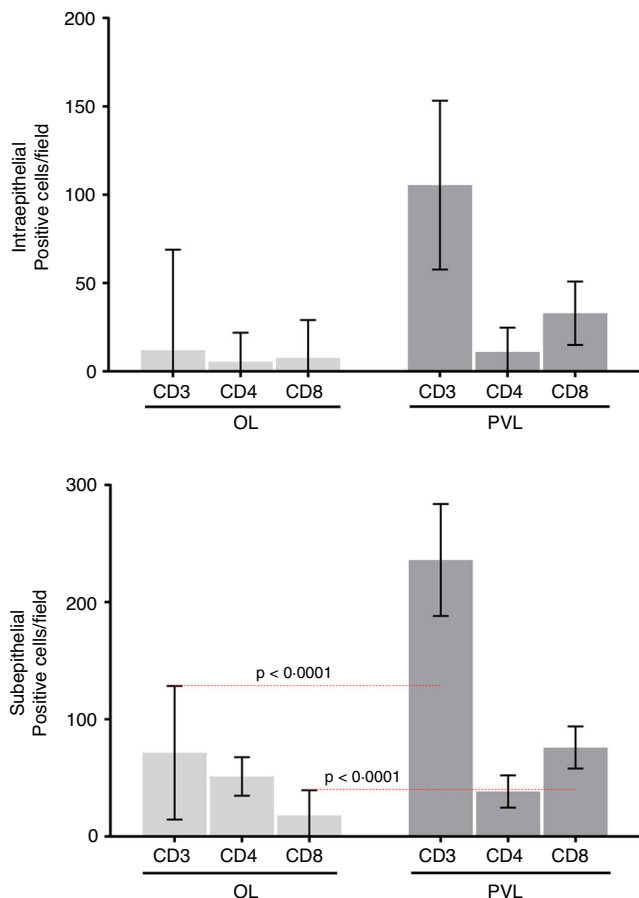
FIGURE 2 The number of T lymphocytes associated with oral leukoplakia and proliferative verrucous leukoplakia was identified by immunohistochemistry. Mean number of CD3, CD4 and CD8 cells counted in the intraepithelial and subepithelial areas

The levels of IL-5, IL-1β and IFN-γ are differently expressed between OL and PVL

To assess the levels of cytokines and chemokines differentially expressed in the OL, PVL and controls (IFH and OSCC) groups, initially, an analysis of variance was performed to identify which medians (cytokines) between the levels (groups) differed significantly. After evaluating the results obtained in the analysis of variance, it was observed that there was no difference between the medians within the groups studied for the cytokines IL-10, IL-12p70, IL-13, IL-17A, IL-21, IL-27, Granzyme A, Perforin, MIP-1β and sFasL.

The medians of the concentrations (pg/ml) of the cytokines that revealed different distribution between the groups were submitted to a multiple comparison test (Figure 3).

The results of this study showed that PVL when compared to the IFH group (a non-neoplastic inflammatory process), has increased levels of IL-2, IL-5, IL-23 and TNF-α. On the other hand, there was a reduction in the levels of several cytokines in the PVL group in relation to IFH and OSCC including IL-1β, IL-4, Il-6, IL-9, IL-18, IL-22, IFN-γ, GM-CSF, sCD137, Granzyme B, sFAS and MIP-1β. Additionally, few differences were found in the PVL group in relation to the OL group, with only an increase in IL-5 and a reduction in IL-1β and IFN-γ in the first group. Evaluating the profile of the cytokines present in the protein extract of dysplastic OL samples, only an increase in IFN-γ and a reduction in IL-6 were identified in this group in relation to OSCC. On the other hand, a reduction in sCD-137, Granzyme B, and MIP-1β was identified in the OL in relation to the IFH group.

No associations were observed between cytokine levels and the number of CD4 and CD8 cells for the OL group. However, the results of this study revealed a significant and regular inverse correlation between the number of CD4 cells and IL-22 levels ($p = 0.001$; $r = -0.56$; $R^2 = 32\%$) for the PVL group, indicating that increased levels of IL-22 may be associated with a reduction in the number of CD4 cells in this group. When the number of CD8 cells and the levels of inflammatory cytokines in the PVL group were compared, a significant and regular correlation was observed for the levels of sCD137 ($p = 0.01$; $r = 0.49$) and MIP-1β ($p = 0.02$; $r = 0.45$). In addition, a significant and strong correlation was identified between CD8 cells and the cytokines GM-CSF ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.71$), IFN-γ ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.70$), TNF-α ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.72$), IL-2 ($p = 0.0003$; $r = 0.68$), IL-4 ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.71$), IL-5 ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.71$), IL-6 ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.74$), IL-10 ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.76$) and IL-13 ($p < 0.0001$; $r = 0.74$) for the PVL group. Tables 4 and 5 show the results of the correlation between CD4

differences between the groups. However, an increase in the number of CD3 ($p = 0.001$/Power $= 0.928$) and CD8 cells ($p = 0.024$/Power $= 0.972$) (both $p < 0.0001$) was observed in the subepithelial region of the dysplastic lesions in the PVL group in relation to samples from the OL group (Figure 2). Furthermore, after the logistic regression study, we have noted that for PVL, a high density of CD8$^+$ cells is associated with high-risk dysplasia, being the odds ratio equal to 6.8571 ($p = 0.0452$) (Table 2).

Performing a simple linear regression analysis between the CD3, CD4 and CD8 markers in the two groups evaluated, an increasing significant correlation was observed between the markers for the OL and PVL groups. Table 3 shows a summary of the results obtained in the linear regression and the equations for calculating the proportions of each related variable in each group. These results show through a mathematical model that the number of CD3 cells is explained by 84% of a CD8 population in the PVL group for this study ($p < 0.0001$; $R^{2'} = 0.84$).

TABLE 2 Logistic regression results relating the risk of dysplasia in OL and PVL according to lymphocytes markers

Group	Marker	Model coefficients			Categorial variable results		
		−2 log likelihood	Chi-square	p-Value	p-Value	Odds ratio	95% CI
OL	CD3	29.435	0.2847	0.5936	0.5922	1.6500	0.26–10.31
	CD4	29.435	0.2847	0.5936	0.5922	1.6500	0.26–10.31
	CD8	27.908	1.8119	0.1783	0.1872	3.3333	0.59–19.95
PVL	CD3	39.676	0.2277	0.6332	0.6737	1.4667	0.30–7.19
	CD4	38.684	1.2193	0.2695	0.2921	2.5667	0.44–14.82
	CD8	**35.892**	**4.0112**	**0.0450**	**0.0452**	**6.8571**	**0.75–62.96**

Note: The bold indicates a statistically significant difference (p-Value ≤ 0.05).
Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; OL, oral leukoplakia; PVL, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia.

TABLE 3 Summary of simple linear regression for CD4 and CD8 markers in OL and PVL groups

Group	Y	X	p-Value	$R^{2'}$	p-Value (a)	p-Value (b)	Equation, log $Y = a + b$ log X	95% CI (a)	95% CI (b)
OL	CD3	CD4	<0.0001	0.94	**<0.0001**	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.41 + 0.85$ log X	0.26 to 0.56	0.75–0.95
	CD3	CD8	<0.0001	0.87	0.10	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.21 + 1.20$ log X	−0.05 to 0.58	0.98–1.42
	CD4	CD8	<0.0001	0.87	0.23	**<0.0001**	log $Y = -0.18 + 1.37$ log X	−0.49 to 0.13	1.11–1.62
	CD8	CD4	<0.0001	0.87	**0.01**	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.25 + 0.64$ log X	0.06 to 0.43	0.52–0.76
PVL	CD3	CD4	0.0015	0.31	**<0.0001**	**0.0011**	log $Y = 1.26 + 0.64$ log X	0.77 to 1.76	0.28–1.00
	CD3	CD8	<0.0001	0.84	**<0.0001**	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.86 + 0.81$ log X	0.63 to 1.12	0.67–0.95
	CD4	CD8	<0.0001	0.57	0.26	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.20 + 0.67$ log X	−0.17 to 0.58	0.49–0.90
	CD8	CD4	<0.0001	0.57	**0.04**	**<0.0001**	log $Y = 0.42 + 0.87$ log X	0.01 to 0.82	0.58–1.16

Note: The bold indicates a statistically significant difference (p-Value ≤ 0.05).
Abbreviations: 95% CI, confidence interval; OL, oral leukoplakia; PVL, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia; $R^{2'}$, adjusted coefficient of determination; (a): linear coefficient; (b): angular coefficient; X, independent variable; Y, dependent variable.

and CD8 cells, respectively, with the levels of inflammatory cytokines in OL and PVL samples. All the cytokines and chemokines levels included in the study are presented in Supplementary 2.

The CM from dysplastic keratinocytes derived from PVL patients may contribute to the Th17/Treg immune imbalance

In order to complement the results found in the first stage of this study, the CM from normal (NOK), dysplastic (DOK and DOK-PVL), or neoplastic (SCC-25) keratinocytes were placed in contact with PBMC to evaluate whether factors released by these keratinocytes can modulate the Th phenotype (Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg) and apoptosis rates of PBMC.

Performing a general assessment of the relative quantity of PBMC expressing the explored markers after the CM exposure, it can be observed that there is a predominance of $CD4^+$ $IFN-\gamma^+$ cells (for Th1) in all the CM

groups tested. Statistical analysis of the data showed that $CD4^+$ $IL-IL-4^+$ population (for Th2) was significantly reduced in the PBMC exposed to RPMI (not stimulated group) and DOK-PVL CM in relation to the SCC-25 CM group (1.000 ± 1.000 vs. 1.705 ± 4.018, $p = 0.0054$ and 0.748 ± 1.351 vs. 1.705 ± 4.018, $p = 0.0037$, Figure 4a). Based on the relative quantity of $IFN-\gamma^+$, $IL-4^+$, $IL-17A^+$ and $FoxP3^+$ population, we calculated the $IFN-\gamma^+/IL-4^+$ (Th1/Th2) and $IL-17A^+/FoxP3^+$ (Th17/Treg) ratio in each CM group. Further analysis found that the Th1/Th2$_{PVL-CM}$ ratio was significantly higher than the Th1/Th2$_{RPMI-CM}$ ratio (1.160 ± 3.945 vs. 1.000 ± 1.000, $p = 0.0061$). Furthermore, the Th17/Treg$_{PVL-CM}$ ratio exhibited the opposite result comparing to Th17/Treg$_{RPMI}$ (0.152 ± 0.411 vs. 1.000 ± 1.000, $p = 0.0013$) and Th17/Treg$_{DOK-CM}$ (0.152 ± 0.411 vs. 0.391 ± 1.321, $p = 0.021$). These results may be observed in Figure 4b.

Apoptosis rates revealed that the soluble products contained in the CM derived from DOK-PVL and SCC-25 cell lines were able to significantly inhibit the apoptosis of PBMC, in relation to the CM derived from HOK cell
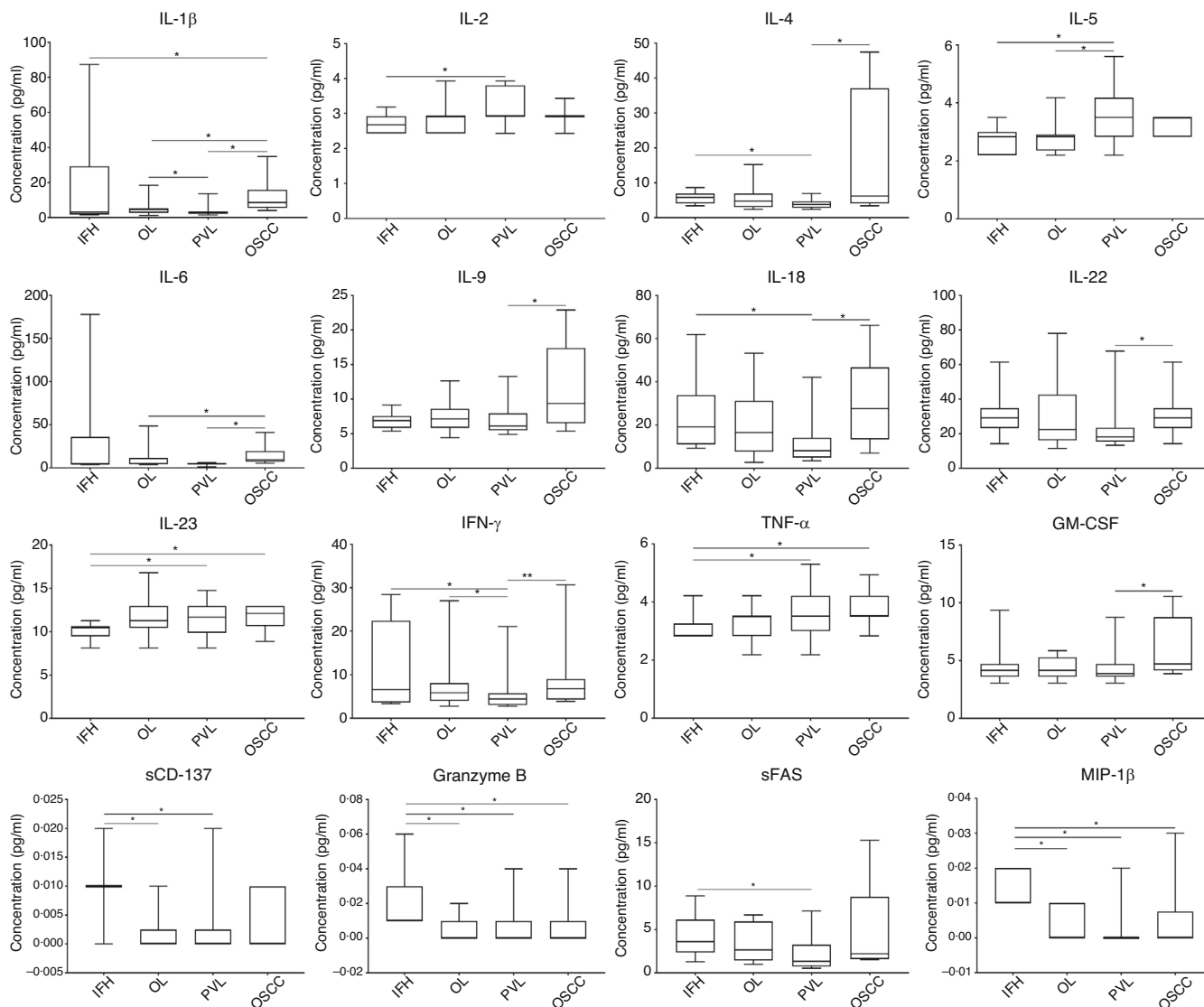
FIGURE 3 Cytokines and chemokines profile in inflammatory fibrous hyperplasia, oral leukoplakia, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia and oral squamous cell carcinoma using the multiplex assay with frozen tissue samples. Average concentration (pg/ml) of cytokines and chemokines with significant statistical differences found between the studied groups. $*p < 0.05$

line $(0.341 \pm 0.525$ vs. 1.719 ± 2.287, $p = 0.044$ and 0.319 ± 0.399 vs. 1.719 ± 2.287, $p = 0.032$; respectively, Figure 4c,d).

DISCUSSION

Classification system for grading oral epithelial dysplasia proposed by WHO is commonly used by oral pathologists to indicate lesions that have a statistically higher risk of malignant transformation. However, this classification system is not completely accurate and reveals a large intra- and inter-examiner variability [1, 3, 6]. Within this paradigm, OL and PVL are two OPMDs that share similar microscopic characteristics but present distinct

malignant transformation potential. The characterization of the inflammatory infiltrate in these two OPMDs may contribute to the elucidation of the different clinical behaviour between them.

In the present study, it was demonstrated that dysplastic lesions of OL and PVL present quantitative changes in the inflammatory infiltrate mediated by T cells and a distinct cytokine profile. Initially, an increase in CD8 T cells present in the PVL group was demonstrated, as well as a higher density of these cells can be considered a risk factor for high-risk dysplasia. In addition, an increase in the number of CD8 T cells in human tumours has been associated with a favourable clinical prognosis. However, their precise function in the tumour microenvironment has not yet been clarified and their

T A B L E 4 Spearman correlation between CD4 immunohistochemical expression and cytokine and chemokine levels of dysplastic lesions of OL and PVL groups

	OL			PVL		
	p-Value	*R*	R^2 (%)	*p*-Value	*R*	R^2 (%)
GM-CSF	0.75	0.06	0.4	0.25	0.22	4.9
IFN-γ	0.84	0.04	0.1	0.25	0.22	4.9
TNF-α	0.72	0.07	0.5	0.27	0.21	4.4
IL-10	0.85	0.04	0.1	0.18	0.25	6.7
IL-12p70	0.87	0.03	0.1	0.22	0.23	5.6
IL-13	0.39	−0.18	0.03	0.35	0.20	4.0
IL-17A	0.80	0.05	0.2	0.28	0.20	4.3
IL-18	0.84	0.04	0.1	0.23	0.23	5.6
IL-1β	0.88	0.03	0.09	0.22	0.23	5.6
IL-2	0.63	−0.1	1.0	0.35	0.18	3.2
IL-21	0.84	0.04	0.1	0.18	0.25	6.6
IL-22	0.85	0.04	0.1	**0.001**	**−0.56**	**32.1**
IL-23	0.62	0.1	1.1	0.21	0.24	5.8
IL-27	0.79	0.05	0.3	0.24	0.22	5.2
IL-4	0.86	0.03	0.1	0.25	0.22	4.9
IL-5	0.61	−0.1	1.1	0.28	0.20	4.3
IL-6	0.90	0.02	0.07	0.22	0.23	5.6
IL-9	0.87	0.03	0.1	0.28	0.20	4.4

Note: The bold indicates a statistically significant difference (*p*-Value ≤ 0.05).

Abbreviations: OL, oral leukoplakia; PVL, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia; *r*, Spearman correlation coefficient; R^2, coefficient of determination expressed in %.

presence and effectiveness are rarely curative without manipulation [25, 26]. In fact, CD8 T cells are central components of adaptive immunity against tumours. Effectors CD8 T cells kill target cells and secrete cytokines that help stem the spread of pathogens and/or cancer. During antigen clearance, most effector CD8 T cells die from apoptosis, but about 5% to 10% survive and differentiate into memory CD8 T cells. Memory CD8 T cells are maintained for a long time in the absence of antigens and can exert rapid effector functions in response to previously identified antigens [27–30]. When host immune responses fail and antigens persist, antigen-specific CD8 T cells differentiate into a state called 'exhaustion' and its showed reduced effective function and low proliferative capacity compared to CD8 T cells from functional memory [31, 32]. Exhausted CD8 T cells have unique transcriptional and epigenetic signatures that may lead to functional and phenotypic changes. These cells demonstrate a reduction in several inflammatory cytokines and sequential loss of tumour necrosis factor-α (TNFα), interferon-γ (IFNγ) and cytotoxicity with an increased expression of multiple inhibitory receptors such as PD-1 [27]. In this context, a recent study showed that PD-L1 immunoexpression in tumour cells and stromal cells were inversely correlated to CD8 T cells in OL and OSCC samples, similar to that found in other tumours such as pancreatic tumours [33, 34]. The authors of these studies suggest that the PD-1/PD-L1 pathway may be an important regulator of human oral carcinogenesis.

In addition, blocking PD-L1 promoted the infiltration of CD8 cells into the tumour and activation of the local immune response [34]. Data in the literature showed that PD-L1 is implicated in the immune escape of the tumour, inducing apoptosis in CD8 cells [26, 35]. Pre-existing CD8 T cells located on the tumoral front are associated with the expression of the PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitory pathway and represent a predictor of response to treatment [36]. Thus, it has been proposed that suppression of anti-tumour immunity by the PD-1/PD-L1 pathway in the OL can cause progression from the equilibrium phase to the escape phase, causing malignant transformation [33]. On the other hand, the concept of immuno-editing may explain the spontaneous cure of OL in some cases, as a process of reverse transformation from the equilibrium phase to the elimination phase when the immune system regains its protective function, detecting and destroying dysplastic cells [17, 18, 37, 38].

TABLE 5 Spearman correlation between CD8 immunohistochemical expression and cytokine and chemokine levels of dysplastic lesions of OL and PVL groups

	OL			PVL		
	p-Value	R	R^2 (%)	p-Value	R	R^2 (%)
GM-CSF	0.62	0.10	1.0	**<0.0001**	**0.72**	**52.2**
SCD137	0.38	0.21	4.4	**0.01**	**0.49**	**24.1**
IFN-γ	0.68	0.08	0.7	**0.0001**	**0.70**	**50.3**
TNF-α	0.61	0.10	1.1		**0.72**	**52.2**
Perforin	0.41	−0.20	4.0	0.33	0.19	4.0
Granzyme A	0.42	−0.19	3.7	0.07	0.36	13.2
Granzyme B	0.41	0.20	4.0	0.07	0.36	13.1
IL-2	0.77	−0.06	0.3	**0.0002**	**0.68**	**46.9**
IL-4	0.71	0.07	0.6	**<0.0001**	**0.71**	**50.9**
IL-5	0.76	−0.06	0.4	**<0.0001**	**0.71**	**51.2**
IL-6	0.74	0.07	0.5	**<0.0001**	**0.74**	**55.7**
IL-10	0.69	0.08	0.7	**<0.0001**	**0.76**	**58.7**
IL-13	0.57	0.12	1.4	**<0.0001**	**0.74**	**54.8**
sFas	0.43	−0.18	3.5	0.08	0.35	12.6
sFasL	0.35	−0.22	5.1	0.33	0.20	4.0
MIP-1α	0.21	−0.30	9.0	0.73	−0.07	0.4
MIP-1β	0.33	0.23	5.5	**0.02**	**0.45**	**20.9**

Note: The bold indicates a statistically significant difference (p-Value ≤ 0.0001).

Abbreviations: OL, oral leukoplakia; PVL, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia; r, Spearman correlation coefficient; R^2, coefficient of determination expressed in %.

The complete activation of T cells occurs due to three signals; interaction between the antigenic peptide through MHC with TCR receptors, co-stimulation or co-inhibition using antigen-presenting cells, and the third signal characterized by the stimulation of extracellular cytokines such as IL-2 [39]. Among these signals, the second determines the promotion or inhibition of T cell-related cytokines favouring or not the effector function of these cells [36]. Thus, one of the aspects of T cell immune exhaustion would be the production of effector chemokines stimulating an insufficient immune response when related to the number of T cells [40]. In the present study, we observed a low production of IL-1β, IL-4, IL-6, IL-9, IL-18, IL-22, IFN-γ and GM-CSF for the PVL group when compared to the other study groups, as well as a large production of IL-2 and IL-5 which are two cytokines naturally produced by T cells and which act in the production of T and B lymphocytes, monocytes, natural killer cells and eosinophils [41, 42]. Correlating the levels of chemokines with an increased number of CD8 T cells in the PVL group and the findings of the in vitro study demonstrating that CM derived from DOK-PVL and SCC-25 cell cultures are able to block the apoptosis index of PBMC, it may be assumed that dysplastic PVL lesions show a phenomenon of immunological exhaustion of CD8 T cells.

In the literature has been demonstrated that Th1 and Th17 cells have a pro-inflammatory function, whereas Th2 and Tregs cells modulate the immune tolerance, exhibiting an antagonist function [43–45]. Furthermore, the balance between Th1/Th2 and Th17/Tregs cells is fundamental for the maintenance of immunologic functions, and its imbalance can lead to chronic inflammation, uncontrolled cell proliferation, and finally carcinogenesis. In this context, we demonstrated that the soluble products produced by different keratinocytes cells were capable to modulate distinctly the Th phenotype. This was mainly evidenced after the analysis of the ratio Th1/Th2 and Treg/Th17 in DOK-PVL and SCC-25 MC. The imbalance of Treg/Th17 observed in DOK-PVL was similar to the observed for SCC-25, indicating that this could be an important factor to explain the high malignant transformation rate observed in PVL when compared to OL. The Treg/Th17 imbalance has already been demonstrated in several types of solid tumours, including colon, bladder, breast and mouth carcinomas [44–47]. However, the studies published in the English literature regarding the participation of Th17 lymphocytes in carcinogenesis are quite controversial and some previous
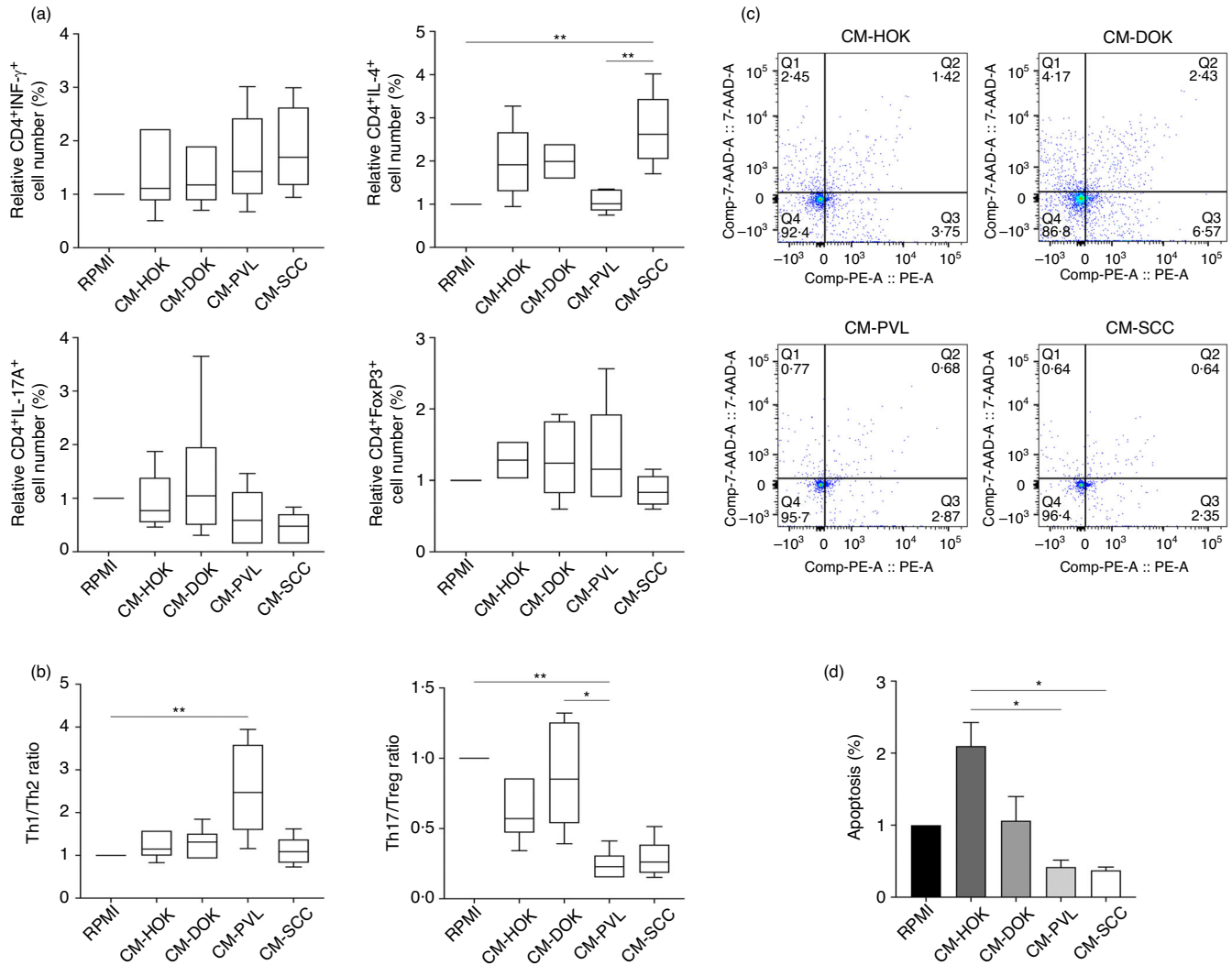
FIGURE 4 Modulation of the Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg phenotype and apoptosis rates in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) after contact with conditioned medium (CM) derived from human oral keratinocytes (HOK), dysplastic oral keratinocytes (DOK), DOK-proliferative verrucous leukoplakia (PVL), and SCC-25. (a) Relative percentage of CD4$^+$ IFN-γ^+ cells (for Th1), CD4$^+$ IL-4$^+$ (for Th2), CD4$^+$ IL-17A$^+$ (for Th17) and CD4$^+$ Foxp3$^+$ (for Treg) for each condition tested. (b) Th1/Th2 and Th17/Treg ratio. (c) Representative graphics highlighting reduced apoptosis rates in the PBMC after contact with CM from DOK-PVL and SCC-25 in relation to the CM from HOK. (d) The average and standard deviation from each group. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

studies show that higher IL-17 expression is associated with a worse prognosis in head and neck SCC [48]. Accompanying this change in the Th17 population, an increase in Treg cells is associated with worse prognosis in head and neck SCC [49–51]. Additionally, it has been shown that there is a higher prevalence of these circulating subtypes of Th17 cells in patients with late-stage laryngeal and oropharyngeal tumours compared to patients with early stages [52]. Furthermore, an in vitro study using co-culture of PBMC with liver cancer cells showed that immune cells induce tumour cells to produce soluble factors capable of favouring the immunosuppressive response led by an increase in the Treg population in the tumour microenvironment [53]. It is important to notice that the proportion of Th17/Treg

in the tumour microenvironment may influence tumour progression. Studying the imbalance between these Th subtypes may help clarify the process of malignant transformation in OPMDs and tumour progression. In addition to the Treg/Th17 imbalance, the tumour microenvironment has a complex network of immune cells, including other lymphocytes subtypes such as Th1 and Th2 cells. Th2 cells secrete IL4, IL5, IL6, IL10 and IL13 which mediate the anti-inflammatory humoral response and immune suppression by inhibiting Th1 cytokine production, such as IFN-alpha, which are classified as pro-inflammatory and generally associated with a good prognosis [44]. In this regard, serum levels of IL-17A, TGF-β1, IL-4 and IL-10 were significantly higher in patients with OSCC, whereas IL-2 and

IFN-γ were relatively low in OSCC patients compared with controls [54]. Apart from the expected, this study showed a reduction of CD4$^+$IL-4$^+$ population induced from DOK-PVL derived MC compared to RPMI and SCC-25 groups. This was followed by an increase in the Th1/Th2 ratio in the DOK-PVL group. On the other hand, the high density of CD8$^+$ T cells, the imbalance of Th17/Threg, and the cytokines profile observed in the PVL group appear to be more relevant for the malignant transformation rate in this OPMD compared to OL.

Cancer immunotherapy aims to restore the balance of dominant anti-tumour immunity through strategies such as vaccination with tumour antigens, blocking immunosuppressive signalling pathways, and adoptive cell therapy, among others. These approaches have produced significant responses in small subsets of patients with solid tumours, especially those with melanoma. It is important to note that the subset of patients who respond to therapies with vaccination and blocking immunosuppressive signalling pathways are those with an increased number of CD8 T cells in the tumour before starting therapy [25, 27, 55]. Given the findings of this study and in the literature data, immunotherapy may be a viable therapeutic strategy in a patient with OPMD, specifically in PVL. However, the poor representation of CD8 T cells in some tumours may represent a fundamental obstacle to the success of immunotherapy, in addition to the well-established barrier to immunosuppression. Therefore, new strategies are still needed to improve function and extend the effectiveness of immunotherapies to a broader set of cancer patients.

In summary, dysplastic lesions of patients with PVL have a high density of subepithelial CD8 T cells in relation to dysplastic lesions of OL; however, this high density does not correlate with histological risk. Furthermore, we noted that the correlation between cytokine/chemokine levels and immunohistochemical staining for CD8 T cells in dysplastic PVL lesions, suggests that the immune exhaustion phenomenon of CD8 T cells may be related to the clinical behaviour of PVL. In addition, the immune imbalance of T lymphocytes subsets and the cytokines profile observed in the PVL group appear to be relevant for the malignant transformation rate in this OMPD compared to OL. Considering the concept of the three Es of cancer immunoediting—elimination, equilibrium and escape—and a subsequent study that suggests that OPMD may be in the elimination phase [15, 17, 18], our data propose that PVL may be in a more advanced phase. It is worth pointing out that this study has limitations, the main one being the absence of in vitro functional studies with co-culture of PBMC and keratinocyte cells, as well as in vivo studies, which would validate the results found. Thus, further studies are necessary to confirm the role of these immune cells and their factors in the pathogenesis of PVL, since these may be possible therapeutic targets.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Darcy Fernandes and **Camila de Oliveira Barbeiro**: Writing - original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal Analysis, Data curation; **Mariana Paravani Palaçon**: Investigation, Methodology; **Mariel Ruivo Biancardi**: Investigation, Methodology; **Túlio Morandim Ferrisse**: Data curation, Formal analysis, Software; **Heitor Albergoni Silveira**: Data curation, Formal analysis; **Rogerio Moraes Castilho**: Methodology, Visualization; **Luciana Yamamoto de Almeida**: Methodology, Visualization, Formal Analysis; **Jorge Esquiche Leon**: Data curation, Formal analysis; **Andreia Bufalino**: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

ETHICS STATEMENT

All samples used in this study were collected according to an institutional review board-approved clinical protocol after written informed consent was obtained (CAAE: 34361814.9.0000.5416).

INFORMED CONSENT

Informed consent was obtained from all participants included in the study.

ORCID

Camila de Oliveira Barbeiro https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8166-0101

REFERENCES

1. El-Naggar AK, Chan JKC, Grandis JR, Takata T, Slootweg PJ. Tumours of the oral cavity and mobile tongue. In: El-Naggar AK, Chan JKC, Grandis JR, Takata T, Slootweg PJ, editors. World Health Organization (WHO) classification of head and neck tumours. International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). 4th ed. Lyon: IARC Press; 2017. p. 105–15.
2. Woo S-B. Oral epithelial dysplasia and premalignancy. Head Neck Pathol. 2019;13(3):423–39.
3. Ranganathan K, Kavitha L. Oral epithelial dysplasia: classifications and clinical relevance in risk assessment of oral potentially malignant disorders. J Oral Maxillofac Pathol. 2019; 23(1):19–27.

4. Tilakaratne WM, Jayasooriya PR, Jayasuriya NS, De Silva RK. Oral epithelial dysplasia: causes, quantification, prognosis, and management challenges. Periodontol 2000. 2019;80(1):126–47.

5. Petti S. Pooled estimate of world leukoplakia prevalence: a systematic review. Oral Oncol. 2003;39(8):770–80.

6. Villa A, Sonis S. Oral leukoplakia remains a challenging condition. Oral Dis. 2018;24(1–2):179–83.

7. Bagan J, Scully C, Jimenez Y, Martorell M. Proliferative verrucous leukoplakia: a concise update. Oral Dis. 2010;16(4):328–32.

8. Warnakulasuriya S, Ariyawardana A. Malignant transformation of oral leukoplakia: a systematic review of observational studies. J Oral Pathol Med. 2016;45:155–66.

9. Aguirre-Urizar JM, Lafuente-Ibáñez de Mendoza I, Warnakulasuriya S. Malignant transformation of oral leukoplakia: systematic review and meta-analysis of the last 5 years. Oral Dis. 2021;27(8):1881–95.

10. Bagan JV, Jimenez Y, Sanchis JM, Poveda R, Milian MA, Murillo J, et al. Proliferative verrucous leukoplakia: high incidence of gingival squamous cell carcinoma. J Oral Pathol Med. 2003;32(7):379–82.

11. Villa A, Woo SB. Leukoplakia – a diagnostic and management algorithm. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017;75(4):723–34.

12. Torrejon-Moya A, Jané-Salas E, López-López J. Clinical manifestations of oral proliferative verrucous leukoplakia: a systematic review. J Oral Pathol Med. 2020;49(5):404–8.

13. Ramos-García P, González-Moles MÁ, Mello FW, Bagan JV, Warnakulasuriya S. Malignant transformation of oral proliferative verrucous leukoplakia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Oral Dis. 2021;27(8):1896–907.

14. Lafuente Ibáñez de Mendoza I, Lorenzo Pouso AI, Aguirre Urízar JM, Barba Montero C, Blanco Carrión A, Gándara Vila P, et al. Malignant development of proliferative verrucous/multifocal leukoplakia: a critical systematic review, meta-analysis and proposal of diagnostic criteria. J Oral Pathol Med. 2022;51(1):30–8. https://doi.org/10.1111/jop.13246

15. Zitvogel L, Tesniere A, Kroemer G. Cancer despite immunosurveillance: immunoselection and immunosubversion. Nat Rev Immunol. 2006;6:715–27.

16. Ai R, Tao Y, Hao Y, Jiang L, Dan H, Ji N, et al. Microenvironmental regulation of the progression of oral potentially malignant disorders towards malignancy. Oncotarget. 2017;8(46):81617–35. https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.20312

17. Dunn GP, Old LJ, Schreiber RD. The three Es of cancer immunoediting. Annu Rev Immunol. 2004;22:329–60.

18. Dunn GP, Old LJ, Schreiber RD. The immunobiology of cancer immunosurveillance and immunoediting. Immunity. 2004;21(2):137–48.

19. Smyth MJ, Dunn GP, Schreiber RD. Cancer immunosurveillance and immunoediting: the roles of immunity in suppressing tumor development and shaping tumor immunogenicity. Adv Immunol. 2006;90:1–50.

20. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. Cell. 2011;144:646–74.

21. Vesely MD, Kershaw MH, Schreiber RD, Smyth MJ. Natural innate and adaptive immunity to cancer. Annu Rev Immunol. 2011;29:235–71.

22. Brouns E, Baart J, Karagozoglu K, Aartman I, Bloemena E, van der Waal I. Malignant transformation of oral leukoplakia in a well-defined cohort of 144 patients. Oral Dis. 2014;20:e19–24.

23. Kujan O, Oliver RJ, Khattab A, Roberts SA, Thakker N, Sloan P. Evaluation of a new binary system of grading oral epithelial dysplasia for prediction of malignant transformation. Oral Oncol. 2006;42:987–93.

24. Warnakulasuriya S, Reibel J, Bouquot J, Dabelsteen E. Oral epitelial dysplasia classification systems: predictive value, utility, weaknesses and scope for improvement. J Oral Pathol Med. 2008;37(3):127–33.

25. Peske JD, Woods AB, Engelhard VH. Control of CD8 T-cell infiltration into tumors by vasculature and microenvironment. Adv Cancer Res. 2015;128:263–307.

26. Yagyuu T, Hatakeyama K, Imada M, Kurihara M, Matsusue Y, Yamamoto K, et al. Programmed death ligand 1 (PD-L1) expression and tumor microenvironment: implications for patients with oral precancerous lesions. Oral Oncol. 2017;68:36–43.

27. Wherry EJ, Kurachi M. Molecular and cellular insights into T cell exhaustion. Nat Rev Immunol. 2015;15:486–99.

28. Hashimoto M, Kamphorst AO, Im SJ, Kissick HT, Pillai RN, Ramalingam SS, et al. CD8 T cell exhaustion in chronic infection and cancer: opportunities for interventions. Annu Rev Med. 2018;69:301–18.

29. Iwahori K. Cytotoxic $CD8^+$ lymphocytes in the tumor microenvironment. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2020;1224:53–62.

30. Williams MA, Bevan MJ. Effector and memory CTL differentiation. Annu Rev Immunol. 2007;25:171–92.

31. Moskophidis D, Lechner F, Pircher H, Zinkernagel RM. Virus persistence in acutely infected immunocompetent mice by exhaustion of antiviral cytotoxic effector T cells. Nature. 1993;362:758–61.

32. Zajac AJ, Blattman JN, Murali-Krishna K, Sourdive DJ, Suresh M, Altman JD, et al. Viral immune evasion due to persistence of activated T cells without effector function. J Exp Med. 1998;188:2205–13.

33. Stasikowska-Kanicka O, Wągrowska-Danilewicz M, Danilewicz M. $CD8^+$ and $CD163^+$ infiltrating cells and PD-L1 immunoexpression in oral leukoplakia and oral carcinoma. APMIS. 2018;126:732–8.

34. Nomi T, Sho M, Akahori T, Hamada K, Kubo A, Kanehiro H, et al. Clinical significance and therapeutic potential of the programmed death-1 ligand/programmed death-1 pathway in human pancreatic cancer. Clin Cancer Res. 2007;13:2151–7.

35. Qian BZ, Pollard JW. Macrophage diversity enhances tumor progression and metastasis. Cell. 2010;141:39–51.

36. Maj T, Wei S, Welling T, Zou W. T cells and costimulation in cancer. Cancer J. 2013;19(6):473–82.

37. Kuribayashi Y, Tsushima F, Morita KI, Matsumoto K, Sakurai J, Uesugi A, et al. Long-term outcome of non-surgical treatment in patients with oral leukoplakia. Oral Oncol. 2015;51:1020–5.

38. Mittal D, Gubin MM, Schreiber RD, Smyth MJ. New insights into cancer immunoediting and its three component phases – elimination, equilibrium and escape. Curr Opin Immunol. 2014;27:16–25.

39. Murakami N, Riella LV. Co-inhibitory pathways and their importance in immune regulation. Transplantation. 2014;98:3–14.

40. Pauken KE, Wherry EJ. Overcoming T cell exhaustion in infection and cancer. Trends Immunol. 2015;36(4):265–76.

41. McDermott DF, Regan MM, Atkins MB. Interleukin-2 therapy of metastatic renal cell carcinoma: update of phase III trials. Clin Genitourin Cancer. 2006;5(2):114–9.

42. Dougan M, Dranoff G, Dougan SK. GM-CSF, IL-3, and IL-5 family of cytokines: regulators of inflammation. Immunity. 2019;50(4):796–811.

43. Murugaiyan G, Saha B. Protumor vs antitumor functions of IL-17. J Immunol. 2009;183(7):4169–75.

44. Gaur P, Singh AK, Shukla NK, Das SN. Inter-relation of Th1, Th2, Th17 and Treg cytokines in oral cancer patients and their clinical significance. Hum Immunol. 2014;75(4):330–7.

45. Mougiakakos D, Choudhury A, Lladser A, Kiessling R, Johansson CC. Regulatory T cells in cancer. Adv Cancer Res. 2010;107:57–117.

46. Duan MC, Zhong XN, Liu GN, Wei JR. The Treg/Th17 paradigm in lung cancer. J Immunol Res. 2014;2014:730380.

47. Chi LJ, Lu HT, Li GL, Wang XM, Su Y, Xu WH, et al. Involvement of T helper type 17 and regulatory T cell activity in tumour immunology of bladder carcinoma. Clin Exp Immunol. 2010;161(3):480–9.

48. Kesselring R, Thiel A, Pries R, Wollenberg B. The number of CD161 positive Th17 cells are decreased in head and neck cancer patients. Cell Immunol. 2011;269(2):74–7.

49. Strauss L, Bergmann C, Gooding W, Johnson JT, Whiteside TL. 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. Clin Cancer Res. 2007;13(21):6301–11.

50. Drennan S, Stafford ND, Greenman J, Green VL. Increased frequency and suppressive activity of CD127(low/−) regulatory T cells in the peripheral circulation of patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma are associated with advanced stage and nodal involvement. Immunology. 2013;140(3):335–43.

51. Sun W, Li WJ, Wu CY, Zhong H, Wen WP. CD45RA$^-$Foxp3^{high} but not CD45RA$^+$Foxp3^{low} suppressive T regulatory cells increased in the peripheral circulation of patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and correlated with tumor progression. J Exp Clin Cancer Res. 2014;33:35.

52. Green VL, Michno A, Stafford ND, Greenman J. Increased prevalence of tumour infiltrating immune cells in oropharyngeal tumours in comparison to other subsites: relationship to peripheral immunity. Cancer Immunol Immunother. 2013;62(5):863–73.

53. Zhao Q, Wang PP, Huang ZL, Peng L, Lin C, Gao Z, et al. Tumoral indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase 1 is regulated by monocytes and T lymphocytes collaboration in hepatocellular carcinoma. Oncotarget. 2016;7(12):14781–90.

54. Dutta A, Banerjee A, Saikia N, Phookan J, Baruah MN, Baruah S. Negative regulation of natural killer cell in tumor tissue and peripheral blood of oral squamous cell carcinoma. Cytokine. 2015;76(2):123–30.

55. Wherry EJ, Ha SJ, Kaech SM, Haining WN, Sarkar S, Kalia V, et al. Molecular signature of CD8$^+$ T cell exhaustion during chronic viral infection. Immunity. 2007;27:670–84.

56. Basso FG, Pansani TN, Soares DG, Hebling J, de Souza Costa CA. LLLT effects on oral keratinocytes in an organotypic 3D model. Photochem Photobiol. 2018;94(1):190–4.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.