Tertiary lymphoid structures are associated with enhanced macrophage activation, immune checkpoint expression and predict outcome in cervical cancer.

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Abstract

Background Cervical tumors are usually treated using surgery, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy, and

would benefit from immunotherapies. However, the immune microenvironment in cervical cancer

remains poorly described. Tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS) were recently described as markers for

better immunotherapy response and overall better prognosis in cancer patients.

Methods We integratedly evaluated the cervical tumor immune microenvironment, and specifically TLS

importance, using combined high-throughput phenotyping, soluble factor dosage, spatial interaction

analyses, and statistical analyses.

Results We demonstrate that TLS presence is associated with a more inflammatory soluble

microenvironment, with the presence of B cells as well as more activated macrophages and dendritic

cells (DCs). Furthermore, this myeloid cell activation is associated with expression of immune

checkpoints, such as PD-L1 and CD40, and close proximity of activated conventional DC2 to CD8$^+$ T cells,

therefore indicating better immune interactions and tumor control. Finally, we associate TLS presence,

greater B cell density, and activated DC density to improved progression-free survival, and present it as

an additional prognostic marker.

Conclusion To conclude, our results provide an exhaustive depiction of the cervical tumor immune

microenvironment where TLS presence marks cell activation and immunotherapy target expression.

These findings provide predictive clues for patient response to targeted immunotherapies.

Keywords Tertiary Lymphoid structures, Cervical cancer, Macrophages, Immune

microenvironment.

Significance TLS maturation stratifies cervical cancer patients and associates with improved

prognosis. TLS associate with the expression of immune checkpoints, notably in the macrophage

compartment, which may represent a new therapeutic strategy.

Introduction

Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women and is still a public health issue in developing countries (1). Cervical tumors are human papillomavirus (HPV)-positive in more than 95% of cases. Vaccination against HPV provides good protection against the development of cervical tumors; however, vaccination rates remain low worldwide (50% in both Europe and the USA)(1). Most cervical tumors comprise well-infiltrated squamous cell carcinomas (SCC), the rest being less-infiltrated adenocarcinomas (ADK)(2). Cervical SCCs are usually associated with better overall survival (OS) than ADKs (5-year OS rates of 80% and 60%, respectively). Tumor severity is defined by International Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics (FIGO) stages, where a higher FIGO stage corresponds to worse severity, lymph node (LN) invasion and metastasis, and correlates with poorer OS (decreasing to 55% at 5 years for FIGO stage IVa)(3).

Cervical tumors are treated using surgery and brachytherapy and chemotherapy. These are debilitating treatments, especially for younger women in age to expect children. Immunotherapies provide an advantageous set of treatment as they often present less toxicities than chemotherapy or radiations. However, they require a well described immune environment, which is currently understudied in cervical tumors. It is known that the T cell compartment harbors regulatory T cells (Tregs), which are often associated with poor prognosis, and tumor-infiltrating conventional CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells, including HPV-specific T cells (4-6). The myeloid compartment is less well studied, with research focusing on the Tumor-Associated Macrophage (TAM) infiltrate phenotype in the tumor bed and how this associate with survival. Overall, whether they express CD163, CD206, or CD204, TAMs are associated with advanced FIGO stages(7-10). Interestingly, the expression of programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) by TAM is associated with programmed death-1 (PD-1) expression in the CD8^{+} and CD4^{+} T cell compartments and improves prognosis when the ratio is in favor of CD8^{+} T cell infiltrate (11-13). However, most of these studies only correlate presence or absence of specific cell types to prognosis or therapy response, and do not assess their spatial distribution within the tumor microenvironment.

Determining the localization and interactions of subsets of immune cells in the stroma, or within the tumor nests is now critical to understanding tumor-specific treatment responses. Indeed, the organization of the immune infiltrate, particularly into tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS), has been associated with improved prognosis and response to immunotherapy in cancer patients (14). TLS are organized aggregates of immune cells which develop at the site of chronic inflammation and display a similar organization to lymphnodes (15). Indeed, TLS exhibit a B cell zone that includes mainly germinal

center B cells and follicular dendritic cells (FDCs), adjacent to a T cell zone comprising mainly T cells and

activated DCs (aDCs)(16,17). As TLS are heterogeneous, they warrant further investigation in specific

tumor microenvironments, as both their composition and the associated overall immune infiltrate may

provide insights for tumor-specific therapies and biomarkers(14). The presence of TLS within cervical

tumors has not been directly demonstrated yet and remains at the gene signature detection level(18).

However, TLS presence in HPV-positive head and neck SCCs (HNSCCs) is associated with a higher B cell

infiltrate and follicular helper T cells (Tfh)(19). A greater proportion of myeloid cells and CD8^{+} T cells in

the vicinity of the TLS has also been reported. Together, these parameters are associated with an

improved prognosis in patients with HPV-positive HNSCC. Among the gynecological cancers, endometrial

tumors are reported to harbor TLS(20), and these are associated with improved prognosis in

microsatellite instability (MSI) endometrial tumors, allowing stratification for immunotherapy within this

patient group(20). Indeed, the improved prognosis seen in MSI patients suggests that the presence of

TLS and its associated immune infiltrate should be added to the molecular classification of endometrial

cancer(20).

Therefore, integrated investigation of the cervical tumor immune infiltrate is clearly warranted to

understand the different cellular compartments and their interactions. Here, we present an in-depth

study of TLS presence in the cervical cancer immune microenvironment and its impact on the overall

immune infiltrate, at both the cellular and spatial levels, and how these parameters may contribute to

overall prognosis and therapy response.

Methods

Human tumor samples

Human cervical tumor samples (n=34) were obtained from patients, who were included in the

prospective XAC-03 (NCT02875990) and GC-Bio-IPC (NCT01977274) clinical trials, conducted from 2013

to 2023. Patient follow-up was performed until December 2023 by assessing the occurrence of relapses

or death. The XAC-30 and GC-Bio_IPC trials were approved by the institutional review board (Comité

d'Orientation Stratégique (COS), Marseille, France) of the Paoli-Calmettes Institute and the Assistance

Publique des Hopitaux de Marseille (AP-HM), respectively. In accordance with the Declaration of

Helsinki, written informed consent was obtained from all patients.

Tumor samples were acquired prior to patients receiving any treatment. Healthy cervixes were
obtained from hysterectomies performed in cases of benign uterine pathologies (endometriosis and
fibroids). Before sampling and fixation, the cervix was assessed by a pathologist to confirm it was normal.
Clinical characteristics of the patients from whom samples were obtained are shown in **Table 1**. A list of
patient samples used in each experiment is available in **Suppl. Table 9**.

Immunohistochemistry staining of FFPE slides

All reagents and antibodies used for multiplex immunohistochemistry assay are listed in **Suppl.**
Table 1–3. After deparaffinization of two slides for e ach patient, epitope retrieval was performed with
the Dako Target retrieval solution (Dako) at pH 6.0 in a water bath for 30 minutes (min) at 97°C. After
washing with TBS (Euromedex), tissue sections were treated with 3% H_2O_2 at room temperature (RT) for
15 min to inactivate endogenous peroxidase. After washing, sections were incubated with Protein Block
solution for 30 min at RT. To visualize TLS, tissue sections were incubated with anti-DC-Lamp and anti-
CD3 antibodies for one slide, and with anti-CD20 and anti-CD21 antibodies for a second slide. After
washing with TBS-0.04% Tween 20, the first slide was incubated with donkey F(ab)'$_2$ anti-rat IgG-biotin
and donkey F(ab)'$_2$ anti-rabbit IgG-alkaline phosphatase (AP), and the second slide with goat IgG anti-
mouse IgG2a-biotin and goat IgG anti-mouse IgG1-AP, for 30 min at RT. After washing steps, biotin-
conjugated antibodies were revealed with a streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase (HRP) solution,
incubated for 30 min at RT. CD3 and CD21 immunostaining revelations were performed by adding SAP
solution; DC-LAMP and CD20 were revealed with AEC solution. Slides were coverslipped with Glycergel
and scanned using a Nanozoomer scanner (Hamamatsu).

Determination of TLS positive samples

As described above, FFPE slides were stained for CD3, CD20, CD21 and DC-LAMP. B cells (CD20+)
inside B cell aggregates and activated DCs (DC-LAMP+) located in T cell (CD3+) aggregates were counted.
Their density was assessed by dividing B cell or activated DC count by the surface of the Tumor (in µm²).
The obtained B cell and activated DC densities (in count/µm²) were then scored by quartile, and
combined to assess TLS presence. A higher score for B cell and activated DC density resulted in higher
TLS score (quartile) and more formed TLS while a lower TLS score resulted in absence of TLS or

unorganized aggregates. TLS presence and maturity were then confirmed by microscopy by a trained
pathologist and CD21 staining marking Follicular DCs (FDCs) (**Suppl. Fig. 1, Table 2**).

Immunofluorescence staining of FFPE slides

For these experiments, 6 TLS[+] and 6 TLS[-] cervical tumor FFPE slides were selected from the 34 total
samples. Selected samples had to exhibit the highest B cell and DC density scores in TLS[+] tumors and the
lowest scores in TLS[-] tumors. To note, these samples were also analyzed by mass cytometry (CyTOF)
using the myeloid panel the lymphoid panel or both.

All reagents and antibodies used for multiplex IF assay are listed in **Supplementary Tables S1–3**.
Epitope retrieval was performed with the Target Retrieval solution at pH 6.0 or pH 9.0, depending on the
primary antibody tested. Slides were incubated in a water bath for 30 min at 97°C. After washing with
TBS, tissue sections were treated with 3% H_2O_2 at RT for 30 min, washed again and incubated with
Protein Block solution for 30 min at RT. To visualize TLS, tissue sections were then incubated with anti-
DC-LAMP antibody for 1 hour at RT. After washing with TBS-0.04% Tween 20, tissue sections were
incubated with goat IgG anti-rat IgG1-HRP for 30 min at RT. After washing the tissue sections with TBS-
0.04% Tween-20, a tyramide conjugated to AF594 was incubated for 10 min at RT. After washing, the
tissue sections were incubated with the Target Retrieval solution for 10 min at 97°C. This step allowed
removal of the bound primary and secondary antibodies while protecting AF594 labeling of the DC-
LAMP^{+} cells. It also enabled subsequent labeling of the same tissue sections with another antibody. The
other antibodies were tested after DC-LAMP labeling in the following order: anti-CD3 revealed with
F(ab)'$_2$ donkey anti-rabbit IgG-HRP and tyramide-CF514; anti-PanCk revealed with goat anti-mouse IgG1-
HRP and tyramide-AF488; anti-CD21 revealed with goat anti-mouse IgG1-HRP and tyramide-AF555; anti-
CD20 revealed with goat anti-mouse IgG2a-BV480; and anti-PNAd revealed with F(ab)'$_2$ goat anti-rat
IgGM-AF647.

To study the B cell, CD8^{+} T cell, and myeloid compartments, three other IF panels were performed
using the same techniques and various antibody combinations: anti-CD1a revealed with goat IgG anti-
mouse IgG1-HRP and tyramide-CF514; anti-CD8 revealed with goat IgG anti-mouse IgG1-HRP, tyramide-
biotine and streptavidine conjugated to AF647; anti-CD68 revealed with goat IgG anti-mouse IgG1-HRP

and tyramide-CF430; anti-CD138 revealed with goat anti-mouse IgG1-HRP and tyramide-CF430; anti-
CD163 revealed with goat anti-mouse IgG1-HRP and tyramide-AF594.

Nuclei were then stained with DAPI for 5 min at RT before coverslips were mounted onto the glass slides
with Fluorescent Mounting Medium. Slide imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 at 385
nm, 430 nm, 475 nm, 511 nm, 555 nm, 590 nm and 630 nm with the corresponding filters and Zen
software (Zeiss).

Spatial analysis of cervical tumor FFPE sections

TLS quantification and density analysis were performed using HALO® software (Indica Labs). ROI
were delineated, and Hematies, Blank and Necrosis regions were excluded. A classifier was used to
discriminate TLS, tumor nest and stroma via staining of PanCk, CD20 and CD3. A Nuclei Segmentation
Artificial Intelligence algorithm allowed identification of cells based on their nuclei staining by DAPI (for
cell segmentation please see **Supp. Figure 1B**). A Multiplex IHC v3.2 analyzer was used to count CD20$^+$
and DC-LAMP$^+$ cells in immunohistochemistry slides. A HighPlex FL v4.2 analyzer was used to count cells
in IF slides. Spatial analyses with proximity analysis setup were used to measure the distance between
immune cell types.

Tumor sample dissociation

Tumor and healthy cervix samples were processed within 4 hours following surgery. Samples were
minced and then dissociated using a gentleMACS dissociator (Miltenyi Biotech) in RPMI 1640 culture
medium. Fragments were centrifuged and supernatants were frozen for soluble factor dosage.
Fragments were then suspended in Gentle Dissociation Solution (STEMCELL Technologies) and incubated
for 20 min at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Samples were again dissociated using the gentleMACS dissociator before
centrifugation and filtering through a 100 µm strainer. Finally, cells were counted and frozen in heat-
inactivated fetal calf serum 10% DMSO until staining.

Soluble factor dosage

Chemokines, cytokines, and growth factors

Supernatants were thawed at RT and used for growth factor, cytokines, and chemokines dosage by
Luminex using the 48-Plex pan-human cytokine kit (BioRad) according to the manufacturer procedure.
Briefly, supernatants were incubated with analyte-specific antibody-coated microbeads for 2 hours.
Supernatants were then washed and incubated with a PE labeled secondary antibody for MFI detection.
Data were acquired on a BioPlex-200 system (BioRad) and analyzed on BioPlex Manager 6.0 (BioRad),
comparing against standard curves for each analyte and according to manufacturer instructions. Raw
data were normalized against tumor sample weights (in grams).

Immunoglobulins

Supernatants were thawed at RT and used for IgG1-2-3-4, IgA, IgE, IgM and IgD dosage by
LEGENDplex (8 plex immunoglobulin isotyping panel, BioLegend) according to the manufacturer
procedure. Briefly, supernatants were incubated with analyte-specific antibody-coated microbeads for 2
hours. Supernatants were then washed and incubated with a PE-labeled secondary antibody for MFI
detection. Data were acquired on a LSRII (Becton-Dickinson) and Diva software and analyzed on
LEGENDplex data analysis software, comparing against standard curves for each analyte. Raw data were
normalized against tumor sample weights (in grams).

Flow cytometry staining and acquisition

Mononuclear cells were stained for live/dead Aqua, CD45-FITC, CD5-APC, CD19-PE-Cy7, CD20-PE-
Cf594, CD86-BV645, CD69-PE-Cy5.5, CD38-BV605, IgD-V450, CD27-BV785, CD21-BV711 and CD24-PE for
30 min at 4°C in PBS containing 2% FCS. Cells were then washed with PBS and fixed in 4% PFA for 20 min
at 4°C. After PBS washes, data were acquired on a LSRII (Becton-Dickinson). Marker expression was
compared against isotypic controls.

Mass cytometry staining and acquisition

Tumor cells were incubated with cisplatin (1 µM) to stain dead cells. Non-specific epitope binding was
blocked with 0.5 mg/mL human Fc Block (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Mononuclear cells were
stained for extracellular epitopes for 1h at 4°C, followed by permeabilization (FoxP3 permeabilization
reagent, eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA) for 30 min at 4°C and intracellular marker staining with the

panels described in **Suppl. Tables 4–5**. Cells were then washed and labeled overnight with 125 nM

iridium intercalator (Fluidigm, South San Francisco, CA, USA) in 2% PFA (Thermo-Fisher). Finally, cell

pellets were suspended in Milli-Q water (Merck Millipore, Burlington, MA, USA) containing 10% EQ four

element calibration beads (Fluidigm) and filtered through a 35 μm membrane before acquisition on a

mass cytometer (Helios® instrument, Fluidigm). Mass Cytometry allows absolute quantification of cells

by normalization against EQ™ Four Element Calibration Beads. The bead counts are known as well as the

mean Di of all the masses. Beads are identified by 140Ce which is not used for antibody labelling. The

normalization factor is the ratio of median Di values to EQ bead population median Di values of the

encoding isotopes which cover an extensive portion of the mass range measurable on the Helios

instrument. The normalization factors for mass channels between the encoding isotopes are linearly

interpolated. All mass channel values for all events are then multiplied by these normalization factors to

obtain the normalized values, and data is written to the normalized file. Absolute counts were

normalized by weight of tumor (in grams) before comparison between samples.

Cytometry High-dimensional analysis

Flow cytometry analysis

B cell subsets were manually gated based on the expression of CD5, IgD, CD38, CD86, CD21, CD27,

and CD24. This allowed the identification of Germinal center (GC) B cells, Memory B cells, Naïve B cells,

Plasmablasts and pre-GC B cells. Memory B cells were also subdivided into activated memory, resting

memory, intermediate memory and tissue like memory B cells. Subsets were quantified using FlowJo and

statistical significance was assessed using one-way ANOVA, Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple

comparison (GraphPad Prism). Absolute counts were normalized by weight of tumor (in grams) before

comparison between samples.

Mass cytometry analysis

Myeloid cells (CD45$^+$CD3$^-$CD19$^-$CD56$^-$CD33$^+$) and T cells (CD45$^+$CD3$^+$CD19$^-$CD33$^-$) were manually

gated, then exported using FlowJo (Becton-Dickinson). Data were arcsinh-transformed with a cofactor of

5. Myeloid and T cell populations were automatically defined using h-SNE, which allows a better

clustering of rare populations such as tumor-infiltrating cells (using default settings of 30 perplexity and

1,000 iterations, Cytosplore V2.2.1)(21,22), and density clustering was analyzed. For myeloid cells,

CD11b, CD1c, CD1a, CD11c, HLA-DR, CD123, CD303, CD141, CD163, CD206, PD-L1, CD40, IL-6, and CD209

were used for clustering. For T cells, CD4, CD8, CD25, CD127, CTLA-4, PD-1, ICOS, CD69, CCR7, CD45RA,

and TIM3 were used for clustering.

TLS associated myeloid cell population prediction

Myeloid immune cell signature associated with TLS was created using Least Absolute Shrinkage

and Selection Operator (LASSO) regression to avoid overfitting due to a large number of parameters with

a limited number of patients (23). Myeloid cell populations that could predict TLS status were identified

among the 101 myeloid cell populations described by mass cytometry. Model was regressed on those

variables, with penalization and feature selection. Selected variables were then plotted according to TLS

status for representation. **Suppl. Table 6** shows the input parameters for the LASSO analysis. LASSO was

performed using RStudio V1.3.1093, R-4.0.3.

Pagès Multiple factor analysis (MFA)

To compare both clinical (FIGO 2018 classification, Age, LN, Emboli, Tumor size) and biological (DC

count, B cell count, DC density, B cell density, TLS) parameters we performed a Pagès Multiple factor

analysis (MFA), which determines the contribution of each parameter to the dimensions of a principal

component analysis. In our case it allowed to determine whether TLS and associated immune factors

were associated with negative parameters such as higher FIGO stage or lymphnode status or not. MFA

allows the comparison of both quantitative (DC count, B cell count, Age) and qualitative parameters (LN,

TLS, DC density, B cell density, FIGO, Tumor size, Emboli). FIGO I and II were grouped as a single variable

since only few stages I were available in our cohort. Hence, 3 groups were used for FIGO staging, FIGO

low (stages I-II, localized tumors), FIGO intermediate (int., stage III, LN invasion) and FIGO High (stage IV,

LN invasion and metastasis). Histology was separated in 2 groups, SCC and others (2 ADK and 1 Mixed

histology). B cell and DC densities were scored using quartiles, as we did for TLS maturation scoring. MFA

was performed using RStudio V1.3.1093, R-4.0.3. R scripts performing MFA are provided in **Suppl. File S1**

and input data are available in **Suppl. Table 7**.

Multivariate analyses:

A multivariate analysis was performed using the following parameters on the n=34 patient

samples, TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$, FIGO stages low, int and high (similarly to those used for the MFA) and Histology

SCC and Others. These 3 parameters (7 variables) allow to statistically discriminated elements of better

or poorer prognosis, knowing that increased FIGO stages are of poor prognosis. Similarly, a multivariate

analysis was performed on the TCGA dataset using survival parameters, TLS- signature enrichment from

2 different articles (Goc + Coppola), tumor stages, lymphnode (LN) invasion, age and immune cell

population obtained from CIBERSORTx enrichment. Multivariate analysis was performed using RStudio

V1.3.1093.

Cell enrichment analysis

CIBERSORTx (Stanford University) was used for the immune cell enrichment analysis of the CESC

TCGA database. The individual gene expression file was uploaded to CIBERSORTx (24), and run using both

the relative and absolute modes, signature: LM22, 500 permutations, and disabled quantile

normalization (recommended for RNA-Seq data). For TLS scoring, enrichment scores for B cells, aDCs,

and CD8$^+$ T cells were scored as 1 (unenriched), 2 (poorly enriched), or 3 (highly enriched) by tiertile.

Noteworthy, the minimun enrichment score value considered usable by CIBERSORTx is 0.02. Samples

with high enrichment in every cell subset were considered TLS$^+$. Results from CIBERSORTx enrichment

are available in **Suppl. Table 8**.

Statistical analysis

TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors were discriminated by the morphology of T + B cell aggregates, their

presence *in situ*, and the quartile classification of B cell densities (1st quartile = 3.37 x 10^{-6} cells/µm²,

median = 3.31x10^{-5} cells/µm², 3rd quartile = 1.67.85 x 10^{-4} cells/µm²) and aDC densities (1st quartile =

70.19 x 10^{-6} cells/µm², median = 2.15x10^{-5} cells/µm², 3rd quartile = 4.85 x 10^{-5} cells/µm²). The 1st quartile

shows the lowest and the 4th quartile the highest densities. Aggregate presence and densities were then

scored according to the above-described parameters and tumors labeled as TLS$^-$ and TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^{mat.}$

(**Supp. Fig. 1**).

Statistical analyses were generated using GraphPad Prism V8.00, with data expressed as mean ±

standard error of the mean. Statistical significance between two groups was calculated using the non-

parametric Mann–Whitney test, while multiple group comparisons were calculated using the non-

parametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn, multiple comparison post-test. A *p*-value < 0.05 was

considered as significant. For survival analyses, PFS was defined as the time from diagnosis until death or

relapse, whichever occurred first. Patients without an event were censored at the time of their last

follow up. Survival times were estimated by the Kaplan–Meier method and compared using the log-rank

test.

Results

TLS maturation levels vary in cervical tumors and is associated with soluble microenvironment

alterations.

Cervical tumor samples (n=34) were screened for the presence of TLS according to CD20 (B cells),

CD21 (follicular dendritic cells, fDCs), CD3 (T cells) and DC-LAMP (activated DCs, aDCs) (**Fig. 1A**). First, B

cell aggregate presence were assessed by CD20 staining (**Supp. Fig 1A.**). B cell aggregates were then

associated with the presence of T cells (CD3$^+$) and aDCs (DC-LAMP$^+$). B cell and aDC density and the

presence of fDCs were then used as TLS maturation parameters. This allowed to divide our cohort into

TLS$^-$ (no aggregates), TLS^{lo} (presence of lymphoid aggregates with low B cell and aDC density), immature

TLS (TLS$^{imm.}$, higher B cell and aDC density) and mature TLS (TLS$^{mat.}$, highest B cell and aDC density with

fDC presence) (**Fig. 1B, C and Supp. Fig 1A.**). We found TLS$^{imm.}$ or TLS$^{mat.}$ presence in 50% of our cohort

samples. TLS maturation stages were validated against manual TLS counts and showed increased TLS

counts in TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^{mat.}$ samples (**Fig. 1D**). As B cell and aDC density did not vary between TLS$^-$ and

TLS^{lo} samples, they were analyzed as a single group in the rest of the study and called TLS$^-$. **Fig. 1E**

displays a mature TLS exhibiting a B cell zone (CD20$^+$ B cell and CD21$^+$ FDC cluster) and a T cell zone (CD3$^+$

T cell and DC-LAMP$^+$ aDC cluster) and the presence of high endothelial venules (PNAd$^+$ cells). Next, we

measured secreted cytokines, soluble effectors and chemokines in TLS$^{mat.}$, TLS$^{imm.}$, TLS$^-$ tumor and healthy

cervix dissociation supernatants by Luminex. CXCL1 was only significantly higher in TLS$^{mat.}$ samples

compared to healthy donors. IL-2ra, IL-16, CCL3, CXCL9 and CXCL10 were increased in TLS$^{mat.}$, TLS$^{imm.}$ and

TLS$^-$ tumor supernatants compared to healthy cervix supernatants. CCL4, was increased in TLS$^{mat.}$ and

TLS$^{imm.}$ tumor supernatants compared to healthy cervix supernatants. TNF-α, TRAIL and CCL5 were

increased in TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^-$ tumor supernatants compared to healthy cervix supernatants, but not in the

TLS$^{mat.}$ supernatants. Overall, no significant differences were observed between TLS$^{mat.}$, TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^-$

conditions (**Fig. 1F**). In summary, our results show that TLS are present in 50% of cervical tumors in our

cohort, are associated with higher densities of B cells and aDC, and tends to be associated with increased CXCL1.

TLS$^+$ tumors exhibit a higher B cell infiltrate characterized by an enrichment of plasmablasts in the stromal compartment.

We analyzed the B cell compartment in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors by flow cytometry and unsupervised analysis. B cell subsets were identified by manual gating according to the expression of CD19, CD20, CD5, IgD, CD27, CD24, CD38 and CD21 (**Fig. 2A**). The absolute number of B cells, normalized by grams of tumor sample, was higher in TLS$^+$ tumors as compared to TLS$^-$ tumors (**Fig. 2B**). Germinal center B cells (GC, CD38$^+$IgD$^-$), pre-GC (CD38$^+$IgD$^+$), Memory B cells (CD38$^-$IgD$^-$), naïve B cells (CD38$^-$IgD$^+$) or plasmablasts (CD38^{hi}IgD$^-$) did not vary significantly between TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors (**Fig. 2C**). Among memory B cells, we identified Tissue Like Memory B cells (TLM, CD27$^-$CD21$^-$), Intermediate memory B cells (CD27$^-$CD21$^+$), resting memory B cells (CD27$^+$CD21$^+$) and activated memory B cells (CD27$^+$CD21$^-$). None of these subset frequencies were significantly different in TLS$^+$ vs. TLS$^-$ tumors (**Fig. 2D**). Hence, we investigated the spatial localization of B cells within the cervical tumor and stroma by multiplex immunofluorescence (IF) (**Fig. 2D**). Briefly, we applied the tumor nest region of interest (ROI), determined as pan-cytokeratin positive (PanCk$^+$), to 6 TLS$^+$ and 6 TLS$^-$ samples. The absence of PanCk staining identified the stroma ROI. Also, all immune cells were PanCk$^-$. We observed no significant differences in CD20$^+$CD138$^-$ B cells, CD20$^+$CD138$^+$ plasmablasts, and CD20$^-$CD138$^+$ plasma cells between TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ samples in the tumor nest (**Fig. 2E**). While CD20$^-$ plasma cells and B cells infiltrate did not vary, plasmablasts infiltrated TLS$^+$ stroma significantly more than TLS$^-$ stroma (**Fig. 2F**). As plasmablasts increased in TLS$^+$ stroma, we assessed soluble immunoglobulins (Ig) concentration in TLS$^{mat.}$, TLS$^{imm.}$, TLS$^-$ and healthy cervix supernatants, and found significant increases in IgG1, IgG2, IgG3, IgA, IgM and IgD in TLS$^{mat.}$, TLS$^{imm.}$, TLS$^-$ sample supernatants compared to those of healthy cervix (**Fig. 2G**). Here, we observed no statistically significant differences between the TLS$^-$, TLS$^{mat.}$ and TLS$^{imm.}$ Samples. IgG4 was solely significantly increased in TLS$^{mat.}$ tumors compared to healthy cervix. Interestingly, TLS$^{mat.}$ showed increased levels of IgE compared to healthy cervix, TLS$^-$ samples and a close to significant increase compared to TLS$^{imm.}$ supernatants (*p*-val = 0.061). (**Fig. 2G**). Altogether, these results suggest enrichment of the B cell compartment marked by enriched plasmablasts in TLS$^+$ tumors which may increases the secretion of IgE.

CD163^{+} macrophages and activated cDC2 are enriched in TLS^{+} cervical tumors

The myeloid compartment is known to regulate TLS formation (macrophages)(25,26) and to participate in their T cell-activation function (aDCs)(27). Therefore, we characterized the myeloid compartment by mass cytometry and identified 8 clusters composed of Langerhans cells (LCs, CD1a^{+}CD11c^{+}), CD1a^{lo} DCs (CD1c^{+}CD1a^{lo}), cDC1 (HLA-DR^{+}CD11c^{+}CD11b^{-}CD141^{+}), cDC2 (CD11c^{+}CD1c^{+}), pDCs (CD123^{+}CD303^{+}), early myeloid-derived suppressor cells (eMDSCs, HLA-DR^{-/lo}CD11b^{+}CD14^{-}CD15^{-}), monocytic MDSCs (mMDSCs, HLA-DR^{-/lo}CD11b^{+}CD14^{+}) and TAMs (CD64^{+}CD68^{+}HLA-DR^{+}) (**Suppl. Fig. 2A, 1B**). We also divided TAMs according to CD163 expression (**Fig. 3A; Suppl. Fig. 2A**). TAM numbers did not vary significantly between TLS^{-} and TLS^{+} tumors. However, the frequency of CD163^{+} TAMs was higher in TLS^{+} tumors compared to TLS^{-} tumors (**Fig. 3B**). *In situ* analysis of TAMs showed a trend for increased CD163^{+} TAM infiltrate in TLS^{+} sample stroma and tumor (**Fig. 3C**). Next, we assessed the infiltration of TLS^{+} and TLS^{-} samples by cDC2, LCs and CD1a^{lo} DCs, and observed an increased number of cDC2 in TLS^{+} samples compared to TLS^{-} samples (**Fig. 3D**). Therefore, we investigated cDC2 localization using the DC-LAMP marker for aDCs and CD1a for LCs. We found no difference in aDCs (CD1a^{-}DC-LAMP^{+}), activated LCs (aLCs, DC-LAMP^{+}CD1a^{+}), and immature LCs (iLCs, DC-LAMP^{-}CD1a^{+}) infiltrate in the tumor ROI (PanCk^{+}). However, aDCs infiltrate was significantly higher in the TLS^{+} sample stroma (**Fig. 3E**). In summary, our results show an increase in CD163^{+} macrophages and aDCs in the stroma of TLS^{+} samples.

Myeloid cells are more activated and better differentiated in TLS^{+} tumors

We investigated the phenotypic variations within myeloid cell subsets. We assessed the expression of PD-L1, CD40, LILRB2, CD1d, CCR2, CCR5, CXCR4, CD80, CD86, HLA-DR, PVR, Nectin2, IL-6, CD10, CD206, CD209 and CD141 among LCs, CD1a^{lo}DCs, cDC1, cDC2, pDCs, eMDSCs, mMDSCs, CD163^{-} TAMs, and CD163^{+} TAMs. The frequencies were filtered on a 10% average expression and a minimum of 30 cells per cluster. We analyzed the resulting 101 variables (44 TLS^{+}, 57 TLS^{-}) using the LASSO algorithm to obtain each variable predictive of either a TLS^{+} or TLS^{-} profile (**Fig. 4A**). CD163^{+} TAMs were the most highly represented cell type in the TLS^{+} group, with six of these variables corresponding to the contribution of CD1d, CXCR4, PD-L1 and CCR5 (**Fig. 4B; Suppl. Table 6**). CD40 expression, which marks activation, on cDC2 was also associated with the TLS[+] environment (**Fig. 4B**), which is logical considering that the presence of aDCs is one of the main features of a TLS^{+} microenvironment. Early MDSCs contributed to the TLS^{+} group with the expression of CCR2 (**Fig. 4C**). IL-6 expression on CD163^{-} TAMs and CD1a^{lo} DCs were also selected by the LASSO analysis (**Fig. 4C**). PVR^{+}CD1a^{lo} DCs (poliovirus receptor, TIGIT ligand) was

also selected by the LASSO algorithm. Finally, the presence of mMDSCs associated with a TLS⁻
microenvironment (**Fig. 4C**). These findings were validated by a univariate analysis conducted as a post-
test. All variables associated with a TLS⁺ microenvironment were significant, while only IL-6⁺CD163⁻ TAMs
were significant in a TLS⁻ microenvironment (Log2FC>1 and p-val<0.05) (**Fig. 4D**). Overall, the myeloid cell
contribution to a TLS⁺ environment is determined by the expression of activation (CD40) and inhibition
(PD-L1) markers, which reflects a better differentiation of TAMs and cDCs. Furthermore, the contribution
of chemokine receptor expression (CXCR4, and CCR5) by TAMs also indicates an increase in the
recruitment of these cells. Finally, our results show the importance of the myeloid cell contribution to a
TLS⁺ environment, which reflects a greater differentiation and activation of mainly macrophages, and
DCs.

Spatial analysis reveals increased interactions between aDCs and CD8⁺ T cells, which exhibit higher
diversity in TLS⁺ tumors

We hypothesized that the involvement of aDCs in TLS⁺ tumors was associated with their proximity to
CD8⁺ T cells, and could enhance immune response. Therefore, we performed cell segmentation and
identified aDCs (DC-LAMP⁺CD1a⁻), activated CD1a⁺ DCs (aCD1a⁺ DC, DC-LAMP⁺CD1a⁺), and CD8⁺ T cells
(**Fig. 5A**). Next, we quantified the number of CD8⁺ T cells within a 10 μm, 10–20 μm and 20–30 μm range
of either a single aDC or aCD1a⁺ DC (**Fig. 5B**). The number of CD8⁺ T cells within a 10 μm, a 10–20 μm and
a 20–30 μm range of an aCD1a⁺ DC tended to increase in TLS⁺ compared to TLS⁻ tumors, although the
difference was not significant (**Fig. 5C**). However, the number of CD8⁺ T cells within a 10 μm range of an
aDC significantly increased in TLS⁺ tumors compared to TLS⁻ tumors (**Fig. 5D left**), and remained
unchanged in the 10–20 μm and 20–30 μm ranges. This close proximity suggests that aDCs directly
interact with CD8⁺ T cells more efficiently in TLS⁺ tumors, which may improve tumor control (**Fig. 5D**).

To further dissect the T cell response between TLS⁺ and TLS⁻ tumors, T cell subsets were mapped.
We showed that absolute numbers of naïve (CCR7⁺CD45RA⁺), central-memory (CM, CCR7⁺CD45RA) and
effector-memory CD8⁺ T cells (EM, CCR7⁻CD45RA⁻) were increased in TLS⁺ tumors, which was not the case
for effector-memory re-expressing CD45RA (TEMRA, CCR7⁻CD45RA⁺) CD8⁺ T cells (**Fig. 5E**). The absolute
numbers of CD4⁺ T cell subsets also varied between TLS⁺ and TLS⁻ tumors. Indeed, naïve and TEMRA CD4⁺
T cell numbers were increased in TLS⁺ tumors (**Fig. 5F**). Therefore, these results show a greater diversity
and differentiation of the T cells and T cell response in TLS⁺ tumors.

Using h-SNE clustering and density clustering, we identified variations due to specific marker and

quantified the cluster frequencies (**Fig. 5G, 5H**). Among CD4$^+$ T cells, only EM CD4$^+$ T cells varied. Indeed,

EM CD4$^+$ T cells which did not express any specific checkpoint marker (**Fig. 5G** "Checkpoint") and

CD69$^+$CD127$^+$ EM CD4$^+$ T cells were enriched in TLS- tumors compared to TLS$^+$ tumors (**Fig. 5G**). Among

CD8$^+$ T cells, one CD69$^+$CD28$^-$PD-1$^+$ EM CD8$^+$ T cells were enriched in TLS$^+$ tumors (**Fig, 5H**). In summary,

these results show increased aDC/T cell crosstalk and T cell activation and immune checkpoint

expression in TLS$^+$ tumors compared to TLS$^-$ tumors.

Mature TLS improve prognosis in cervical tumors.

We hypothesized that the enhanced activation of immune cells within TLS$^+$ tumors could allow

patient segregation and predict progression-free survival (PFS). Therefore, we performed a Pages-

multiple factor analysis (MFA), which allows patient segregation by quantitative parameters (DC count, B

cell count, age) and qualitative parameters (FIGO stage, LN invasion, emboli presence, DC and B cell

density, TLS maturation, relapse and death, treatment), and assesses the impact of these parameters on

patient survival (**Supp. Fig. 3A, B**). The MFA defined two axes, where Dim.1 (Axis 1) corresponded to

immune parameters (TLS and immune cell counts) and Dim.2 (Axis 2) corresponded to disease-related

variables (Stages, Treatment) (**Supp. Fig. 3A, B**). LN invasion and emboli presence discriminated patient

along Dim.2, while DC and B cell number and densities discriminated patient along Dim.1 (**Supp. Fig. 3C**).

Age and Histology did not influence patient segregation (**Supp. Fig. 3C**). Here, we showed that patients

were well-segregated along Dim.1 by the different TLS maturation status, especially between mature TLS

and the two other groups (**Fig. 6, A**). FIGO stages and discriminated patients along Dim.2. Interestingly,

relapses and death segregated patients along Dim.1, and patient that relapsed or died corresponded

mainly to patients with immature TLS or not presenting TLS (**Fig. 6, A**). A multivariate analysis was

performed between presence or absence of TLS, FIGO stages and Histology and showed that high FIGO

stages were associated significantly with death and relapse (*p*-val = 0.009) while TLS presence tended to

associate to survival (*p*-val = 0.093) (**Suppl. Fig. 4, A**), which confirmed our results from the MFA.

Next, we studied patient PFS according to TLS$^-$, TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^{mat.}$, and found that the TLS$^{mat.}$ group

(n=6 patients) did not include any death or relapse, while the TLS$^{imm.}$ (n=10 patients) included one death

and one relapse, and the TLS$^-$ group (n=17 patients) included one death and four relapses (**Fig. 6B**). **Fig.**

6C shows better PFS in the TLS$^{mat.}$ group, and similar PFS curves in the TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^-$ groups. To validate

these results, we performed an immune cell enrichment analysis on the cancer genome atlas CESC

dataset (TCGA) using the CIBERSORTx algorithm (**Supp.Table 8**), followed by a survival analysis according

to B cell, CD8^{+} T cell, activated DC (aDCs), and CD4^{+} TEM enrichment. B cell and CD8^{+} T cell enrichment

significantly improved patient survival, while aDCs only showed a non-significant trend for improved

survival and CD4^{+} TEM enrichment did not influence survival outcome (**Supp. Fig. 3D**). Finally, we scored

the enrichment for TLS presence, where TLS^{+} tumors are enriched for B cells, aDCs and CD8^{+} T cells and

confirmed TLS^{+} tumors association with better survival (**Fig. 6D**). To strengthen these results, we also

performed survival analyses using two published TLS-related gene signatures (from Coppola et al.(28)

Fig. 6E and Goc et al. (27) **Fig.6F**), which again showed better prognosis in patient with enriched TLS-

related gene signatures. We also performed a multivariate analysis on the TCGA cohort using TLS gene

signature enrichment from *Coppola et al.* and *Goc et al.* to avoid redundancy with CIBERSORTx individual

population enrichment, tumor stages (sSTAGEs), LN invasion, metastasis presence, and Age. Multivariate

analysis returned that plasmocytes, CD8^{+} T cells and M2 macrophages significantly associated with

survival, which matched our results of stromal CD138^{+} and CD8^{+} T cell number increase, as well as

CD163^{+} macrophages frequency. Expectedly, LN invasion and advanced tumor stages (T4) associated

with death (**Suppl.Fig 4,B**). TLS signatures did not associate with survival in this analysis. This may be due

to transcriptional signature being redundant with those used by CIBERSORTx enrichment, or critical

parameters lacking such as spatial organization and cell densities within TLS. In summary, mature TLS are

associated with improved PFS in cervical cancer.

Discussion

Our study demonstrates that TLS are associated with a more differentiated and activated immune

infiltrate in cervical tumors. Indeed, the presence of TLS is associated with better differentiation and

activation of macrophages and DCs, which is linked to a better CD8^{+} T cell recruitment and activation.

Altogether, these parameters contribute to a better prognosis in patients with TLS^{+} cervical tumors.

Although our cohort is of modest size, our results are robust and validated by multiple statistical

methods and unsupervised analyses. Furthermore, they integrate quantitative and qualitative methods,

which allows to assess the diversity of cervical tumor microenvironment.

Indeed, we used an integrated approach to investigate TLS and the immune infiltrate in cervical

tumors. First, we showed an increase in CXCL1 in TLS[mat.] TMEs specifically. CXCL1 is usually associated

with poorer prognosis in cervical tumors (29), however, the presence of mature TLS seems to

counterbalance this effect in our cohort. IL-16, TNF-α, IFN-α, CCL5, CXCL9 and CXCL10 are linked to TLS
and increase immune infiltrate and better prognosis in a transcriptomic signature[30]. These soluble
effectors seemed to increase progressively with TLS maturation, but these changes remained not
significant, which may be due to the size of our cohort. IL-16 attracts CD4^{+} T cells, but also macrophages
and DCs [31,32]. CXCL9 and CXCL10 are produced in response to IFN-γ in the TME, participate to T cell
recruitment to hyperplastic epidermis via CXCR3 [33], and associate to prognosis improvement in
estrogen receptor-negative breast tumors[34], but promotes progression in tongue cancer[35]. CCL5
allows T cell, immature DC and monocyte/macrophage recruitment[36,37], but also allows angiogenesis
and tumor growth [38], through the recruitment of macrophages [39], which could be prevented by
neutralizing the chemokine [40] or its signaling pathway[38].

Consequently, a TLS[+] microenvironment is associated with enriched immune cell proportions,
which is common among cervical cancer and other HPV[+ (19)] and HPV[-] tumors[15,17,41,42]. As expected,
the analysis of the B cell compartment showed an enrichment in overall B cells within TLS^{+} samples.
More specifically, we found an increase in CD138^{+} plasma cells within the stromal compartment of these
samples. Plasma cells were associated with cytokine production, chemotaxis and carcinogenesis in a
single cell RNA seq study of cervical tumors[43]. In our study, plasma cell enrichment was associated
with an increased abundance of intra-tumoral IgEs and IgGs in TLS[+] samples. Tumor specific IgEs are
currently investigated as therapeutic strategies [44]. Their relation with TLS[+] TME and activated
macrophages will be discussed in the adapted paragraph. To our knowledge, no previous studies exist on
the intra-tumoral IgE and IgG presence in cervical tumors. In cervical cancer, anti-HPV neutralizing IgGs
mark vaccination efficiency preventing HPV-induced malignancies [45]. While natural HPV clearance only
allows protection against a specific strain of HPV and generates low IgG titers vaccination allows the
targeting of multiple HPV strains and are more abundant[46,47]. Therefore, the increased presence of
intra-tumoral IgGs in TLS[+] tumors could be linked to a better response to HPV and/or tumor antigens,
which would contribute to improved prognosis in TLS[+] patients.

Myeloid cells contribute to the regulation of immune responses in tumors[48-52]. aDC
infiltration is usually associated with a better T cell activation and overall better control of tumor
progression [53,54]. Here, we show an enrichment of CCR2^{+}CD40^{+} aDCs in TLS^{+} samples compared to TLS^{-}
samples within cervical tumor and stroma. Here, CCR2 indicates an increased recruitment of aDCs from
the blood to the TME. In TLS^{+} samples, aDCs accumulated in the stroma where they interact closely with
CD8^{+} T cells. Similarly, Ruffin *et al.* demonstrated that cell-cell neighborhoods are composed of myeloid

cells, CD8^{+} T cells, B cells, and conventional T cells in HNSCC tumors that exhibited mature GC^{+}TLS and

had improved prognosis (19). In ovarian tumors, the presence of antigen presenting cell niches where

CD11c^{+} myeloid cells interact with CD8^{+} T cells potentiates anti-CD28 therapy and improves

prognosis(55). By analyzing CD8^{+} and CD4^{+} T cell phenotypes we observed a more diverse infiltrate. EM,

TEMRA, naïve, CM CD4^{+}, and CD8^{+} T cells were all enriched in TLS^{+} tumors, while remaining at low levels

in TLS^{-} tumors.

TAMs are often associated with a negative outcome. Indeed, CD204^{+}, CD206^{+} and CD163^{+} TAMs

are associated with decreased prognosis in cervical cancer (48) and many other tumor types (56-59).

Here, we report an increase in the expression of immune checkpoints and ligands (PD-L1, CD40) and

chemokine receptors (CCR2 and CCR5) in TLS[+] tumors. CCR2 and CCR5 expression indicates the blood

monocyte origin of TAMs in TLS[+] tumors. TLS are known to improve response to immunotherapies(60,61)

which fits with an increased expression of immunotherapy targets, such as CD40, PD-L1, CCR2 and CCR5,

on TAMs and aDCs. This has been clearly established for immune checkpoint inhibitors such as anti-PD-1,

anti-PD-L1, and anti-CTLA-4(60,61). Recently, PD-L1^{+} TAM were associated with PD-1^{+} T cells, which

appeared to improve survival when the ratio is in favor of CD8^{+} T cell infiltrate in cervical tumors (11-13)

and when PD-L1^{+} TAMs were forming niches with T cells rather than being in contact with tumor cells in

breast tumors (62), which correspond to features of TLS[+] TMEs and our Cox regression results. Agonistic

anti-CD40 mAbs allow DCs to improve anti-tumoral responses (63-66). We observed increased

expression of CCR2 and CCR5 on TAMs from TLS[+] cervical tumors. Targeting these chemokine receptors

represent an innovative strategy to limit TAM infiltration. Indeed, CCR2/CCR5 inhibitors are currently

being investigated in colorectal and pancreatic cancers (67). In addition, the CCR5 inhibitor Maraviroc

improved the immune response in HNSCC and chordoma (39,68), while a CCR2 inhibitor in combination

with bevacizumab reduced tumor size in mouse models of ovarian cancer by inhibiting the MAPK

pathway (69). Interestingly, the activation of TAM also fits with an increased presence of IgE. Indeed,

anti-tumoral IgEs were shown to increase macrophage inflammatory properties and cytokine production

(70). This probably occurs to the FCεRI, which is used to identify TAMs (71). Taken together, the

increased expression of immunotherapy targets on myeloid APCs may offer more therapeutic options,

and their proximity to a greater CD8^{+} T cell may potentiate the response to immunotherapies in TLS^{+}

tumors.

TLS maturation segregated patients into 3 distinct groups, TLS^{-}, TLS[imm.] and TLS[mat.], and were

logically associated with increasing B cell and DC densities and numbers. TLS[mat.] tumors were associated

with improved PFS, compared to TLS[imm.] and TLS[-] tumors. These results are in accordance with previous

studies showing that TLS maturation is associated with better prognosis (15,41,72) and often helps

stratify patients when used as an independent prognostic marker (20) or therapy response marker

(60,61). Indeed, TLS presence has refined the molecular classification of patients with endometrial

tumors, by sub-stratifying those with MSI into an MSI[+]TLS[+] patient group with improved prognosis (20).

In HNSCC, melanoma and sarcoma, B cell-alone mediated survival rates similar to those seen in TLS[+]

tumors (19,60,61).

In conclusion, our results show that TLS in cervical cancer arise from a microenvironment which

is more prone to anti-tumoral response. Indeed, TLS[+] tumors are enriched in B cells, aDCs, activated

macrophages and immune checkpoint positive T cells. Furthermore, activated DCs and macrophages

express a greater diversity of costimulatory molecules, are in close proximity of CD8^{+} T cells, which

indicates a greater potential for T cell stimulation. Altogether, our results provide a comprehensive

characterization of the immune microenvironment in cervical tumors, in terms of phenotype, spatial

organization, and immune cell interactions. Furthermore, our results highlight that TLS are associated

with well-differentiated cells expressing immunotherapy targets, raising the possibility of TLS as a

predictive marker for patient response to specific therapies.

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Declarations:

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Human cervical tumor samples were obtained from patients, who were included in the prospective XAC-03 (NCT02875990) and GC-Bio-IPC (NCT01977274) clinical trials, conducted from 2013 to 2023. The XAC-30 and GC-Bio_IPC trials were approved by the institutional review board (Comité d'Orientation Stratégique (COS), Marseille, France) of the Paoli-Calmettes Institute and the Assistance Publique des Hopitaux de Marseille (AP-HM), respectively. In accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, written informed consent was obtained from all patients.

Data Availability

All data presented in the manuscript are original results and are available upon reasonable request to daniel.olive@inserm.fr. The publicly available TCGA CESC dataset, used for TLS cell enrichment and signature associated survival, is available on the TCGA data portal https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/projects/TCGA-CESC.

Competing interests

D.O. is a cofounder and shareholder of Imcheck Therapeutics, Alderaan Biotechnology, Emergence Therapeutics, and Stealth IO, which did not take part in any part of the manuscript.

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Author contributions

L.G. and D.O. designed the project. L.G., J.S., C.D., and N.B., dissociated tumor samples.

L.G., M.S.R., N.B., A.B.A., and J.S. performed the phenotyping experiment. L.G., N.B., and O.Q.

performed the soluble factor dosages and analysis. M.P. performed the IF staining and

acquisitions. E.B performed and interpreted LASSO analysis. M.P. and L.G. performed spatial

analyses. L.G. analyzed CyTOF and flow cytometry experiments. X.C., R.S., E.L., and O.Q. enrolled

patients in the studies, performed patient follow-up, extracted clinical data and obtained tumor

samples. S.G., L.G. and S.F. performed the statistical analyses on cervical tumors. L.G. and A.S.C.

performed the statistical analyses and the MFA analysis of clinical data. L.G., M.P. and M.C.D.N.

interpreted the data. M.C.D.N. and D.O. supervised the project. L.G. drafted the manuscript and

designed the figures. J.A.N aided in manuscript corrections. All authors reviewed the manuscript

and provided insights. We declare that all authors contributed to the study and accept

accountability of the data herein, and fulfil the authorship criteria.

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1: TLS are associated with B cell density and dendritic cell activation as well as with a higher

inflammatory profile in cervical tumors. A, Immunohistochemistry (IHC) for DC-LAMP, CD3, CD20 and

CD21 was performed on n=34 cervical tumor FFPE samples. TLS were detected in 17/34 samples. **B**, Dot

plots show DC density against the TLS maturation classification **C**, Dot plots show B cell density against

the TLS maturation classification **D**, Dot plots show TLS counts against the TLS maturation classification in

the 34 FFPE samples. **E**, Images show a representative TLS, stained by multiplex IHC for CD20, CD3, DAPI,

DC-LAMP, CD21 and PNAD. **F**, soluble factors were detected in tumor supernatants by Luminex. Dot plot

represent the concentration of each proteins in healthy cervix, TLS^{-}, TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^{mat.}$ tumors in pg/ml.

Statistical analyses were performed using Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn, multiple comparison

post-test (*p-val<0.05, **p-val<0.01, *** p-val<0.005, **** p-val<0.001).

Figure 2: TLS^{+} tumors exhibit a higher B cell infiltrate characterized by an enrichment of plasmablasts

in the stromal compartment and exacerbated IgG presence. A, Manual gating of tumor infiltrating B cell

subpopulations in n= 6 TLS^{-} and n=3 TLS^{+} samples. **B**, B cell absolute count normalized by gram of tumor

sample. **C**, B cell subpopulation frequencies in n= 6 TLS^{-} and n=3 TLS^{+} samples. **D**, Memory B cell

phenotyping in n= 6 TLS^{-} and n=3 TLS^{+} samples. Frequencies of parent population are shown only when

parent population contained enough events (>30 cells). **E**, Multiplex IF was performed for CD20, CD138,

CD3, CD8, and PanCk on TLS^{-} (left, n=6) and TLS^{+} (right, n=6) FFPE samples. **F**, B cells (CD20^{+}CD138^{-}) and

ASCs (CD138^{+}CD20^{+}, CD138^{+}CD20^{-}PanCk^{-}) were quantified in the tumor (PanCk^{+}) compartment. **G**, B cells

(CD20^{+}CD138^{-}) and ASCs (CD138^{+}CD20^{+}, CD138^{+}CD20^{-}PanCk^{-}) were quantified in the stromal (PanCk^{-})

compartment. **H**, immunoglubulins were measured in healthy cervix, TLS^{-}, TLS$^{imm.}$ and TLS$^{mat.}$

supernatants. Statistical analyses were performed using Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn, multiple

comparison post-test (*p-val<0.05, **p-val<0.01, *** p-val<0.005).

Figure 3: CD163$^+$ macrophages and mature cDC2 are enriched in TLS$^+$ cervical tumors. A, Tumor infiltrating myeloid cells were analyzed by mass cytometry on n= 14 samples, h-SNE and density clustering. Clusters were annotated according to the expression of markers in **Supplementary Table 5**. **B**, TAMs were gated and quantified in n=14 samples and plotted according to the presence or absence of TLS. **C**, multiplex IHC was performed to identify CD163$^+$CD68$^+$ and CD163$^-$CD68$^+$ TAMs in TLS$^+$ (n=6) and TLS$^-$ (n=6) tumors. Representative images are shown (top) and cell quantities were assessed (bottom). **D**, cDC2, CD1a^{hi} LCs and CD1a^{lo} DCs were gated and quantified in n=14 samples and plotted according to the presence or absence of TLS. **E**, multiplex IHC was performed to identify mDCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^-$), mLCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^+$) and iLCs (DC-LAMP$^-$CD1a$^+$) in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors. Representative images are shown (top) and cell quantities were assessed in the tumor nest (center) and stroma (bottom). Statistical analyses were performed using Mann-Whitney test (*p-val<0.05)

Figure 4: LASSO analysis highlights macrophage and DC activation in TLS$^+$ tumors. A, Individual marker frequencies (PD-L1, CD40, CD86 …) was assessed in each myeloid cell subtype identified by CyTOF per patient (n=14). Then, data were filtered to retain frequencies in cell cluster with a count > to 30 cells as well as an average expression > to 10%. This led to 101 identified variables, which were then analyzed by LASSO to identify specific variables to either TLS$^-$ or TLS$^+$ TME. **B**, LASSO selected variables associated with TLS$^+$ TME. **C**, LASSO identified variables associated with TLS$^-$ TME. **D**, univariate analysis of the 101 variables. Volcano plot shows distribution of variables in TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ TME.

Figure 5: Spatial analysis reveals increased interactions between mDCs and CD8$^+$ T cells, which exhibit higher diversity in TLS$^+$ tumors. A, multiplex IF was performed to identify mDCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^-$), mCD1a$^+$ DCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^+$) and nmCD1a$^+$ DCs (DC-LAMP$^-$CD1a$^+$) in TLS$^+$ (n=6) and TLS$^-$ (n=6) tumors. **B**, schematic representation of proximity analysis. **C**, mCD1a^{hi} proximity to CD8$^+$ T cells was quantified within 10μm, 10-20μm and 20-30μm range in TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. **D**, mDCs proximity to CD8$^+$ T cells was quantified within 10μm, 10-20μm and 20-30μm range in TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. **E**, CD8$^+$ T cells subsets (naïve, EM, CM, TEMRA) were gated and quantified by mass cytometry (n=14). Absolute counts are shown as dot-plots. **F**, CD4$^+$ T cells subsets (naïve, EM, CM, TEMRA) were gated and quantified by mass cytometry. Absolute counts are shown as dot-plots. **G**, CD4$^+$ T cell analysis by h-SNE and density clustering. The heatmap represent maker expression per cluster and each cluster annotation. Violin plot represent the frequency of each cluster in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ samples. "Checkpoint$^-$" EM CD4$^+$T cells did not

express any immune checkpoint present in our panel. **F**, CD8$^+$ T cell analysis by h-SNE and density

clustering. The heatmap represent maker expression per cluster and each cluster annotation. Violin plot

represent the frequency of each cluster in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ samples. "Markerless" CD8$^+$ T cell did not

express any of the markers present in our Lymphocyte mass cytometry panel other dans CD3 and CD8.

Statistical analyses were performed using Mann-Whitney test (*p-val<0.05).

Figure 6: TLS$^+$ tumors with high B cell and DC density are associated with improved prognosis. A. MFA

was performed on 34 patients and highlighted TLS maturation, FIGO stages and Relapses and death as

significant discriminating factors. **B,** Waterfall chart displays the follow up of n=34 patients, annotated in

function of the absence of TLS (red, TLS$^-$), presence of immature TLS$^+$ (orange) or mature TLS (blue).

Crosses represent deaths and R represent relapses. **C,** Kaplan-Meier plot represent relapse free survival

of patients in the 3 groups defined in **B**. **D**, Immune cell enrichment algorithm CIBERSORTx was used to

investigate TIL infiltrate in TCGA CESC cohort (306 patients). Kaplan-Meier curves were generated for

scored TLS related cell types (CD8$^+$ Tcells, B cells and activated DCs). A high score of enrichment for these

cell types was annotated TLS$^+$ (green) and lower scores were annotated TLS$^-$ (black). *p<0.05. Coppola et

al. (**E**) and Goc et al. (**F**) gene signatures were applied to the CESC dataset from TCGA. The signatures

were then scored using quartiles (**E**) or median (**F**) and Kaplan-Meier curves were generated. Statistical

differences were calculated using the Log-rank test. *p-val<0.05, **p-val<0.01, ***p-val<0.005, ****p-

val<0.001.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

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Table 1: Clinical characteristics of cervical cancer patients

Characteristic	-	Tumor samples* n=34	Healthy samples n=5
Age, median (range)	Current (years)	58 (37-80)	
	At diagnosis (years)	53 (32-77)	
Histology, n	SCC**	28	NA
	ADK**	5	NA
	Other**	1	NA
FIGO stages, n	IB1	4	NA
	IIA1	2	NA
	IIA2	1	NA
	IIB	14	NA
	IIIA	1	NA
	IIIB	3	NA
	IIIC1	5	NA
	IVA	2	NA
	IVB	2	NA
Emboli, n	Positive	3	0
	Negative	31	5
LN invasion, n	Positive	14	0
	Negative	20	5
Adverse events, n	Metastasis	4	0
	Relapses	5	0
	Deaths	2	0
Treatments, n	RCT*** + Barytherapy	26	NA
	Radio-Chemotherapy	5	NA
	Chemotherapy	1	NA
	Barytherapy	2	NA

*Note: cervical tumors are considered 100% HPV+
** Note: SCC: squamous cell carcinoma; ADK: adenocarcinoma; Other: mixed origins, serous, clear cell carcinomas
***Note: RCT: Radio-chemotherapy

Patient	DC density (cell/mm²)	B cell density (cell/mm²)	TLS counts	fDCs in B cell zone	TLS maturity scoring
GC1282	8.05122E-05	0.000332744	33	NO	IMMATURE
GC1322	1.8465E-05	0.000177513	15	NO	IMMATURE
GC1471	0.00010261	6.02821E-05	13	NO	IMMATURE
XACI11	2.87553E-05	0.000133947	17	NO	IMMATURE
XACI16	2.75875E-05	0.000238909	16	NO	IMMATURE
XACN12	4.92789E-05	0.000551579	22	NO	IMMATURE
XACN14	8.10343E-05	0.000322344	9	NO	IMMATURE
XACN2	3.68913E-05	4.13829E-05	31	NO	IMMATURE
XACN3	0.000116616	7.35915E-05	25	NO	IMMATURE
XACN7	4.69993E-05	0.000114184	6	NO	IMMATURE
GC1389	8.07186E-05	0.000274351	48	YES	MATURE
GC1468	1.26599E-05	0.000127847	59	YES	MATURE
XACC1	3.64324E-05	0.000276118	64	YES	MATURE
XACN11	2.53324E-05	0.000443208	29	YES	MATURE
XACN15	6.09574E-05	6.25658E-05	19	YES	MATURE
XACN8	9.5982E-05	0.001264506	12	YES	MATURE
GC1323	2.89623E-06	2.13661E-05	3	NO	NEGATIVE
GC1358	1.82409E-05	2.31198E-05	2	NO	NEGATIVE
GC1364	3.59181E-07	0	0	NO	NEGATIVE
GC1374	7.8166E-06	1.87018E-05	6	YES	NEGATIVE
GC1393/XACI15	1.05998E-05	2.03246E-06	1	NO	NEGATIVE
GC1409	1.95797E-05	0.000100016	1	NO	NEGATIVE
GC1483	1.06908E-05	8.33479E-06	2	NO	NEGATIVE

XACI06	0	0	0	NO	NEGATIVE
XACI07	3.48074E-06	0	0	NO	NEGATIVE
XACI14	0	0	0	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN10	1.88341E-05	0	0	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN13	2.3648E-06	2.38441E-06	1	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN16	7.10688E-05	6.31852E-06	2	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN4	6.30323E-06	1.95452E-06	1	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN5	6.98434E-06	1.71416E-05	5	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN6	2.35104E-05	2.47682E-05	1	NO	NEGATIVE
XACN9	4.19883E-06	1.44199E-05	2	NO	NEGATIVE

Table 2: TLS scoring parameters and values