Tertiary lymphoid structures are associated with enhanced macrophage and dendritic cell activation and proximity to CD8+ T cells, which better predict the clinical outcome of cervical cancer patients

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Abstract

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. 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. 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 independent prognostic

marker. 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 may provide predictive clues for patient response to targeted immunotherapies.

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. The latter respond to HPV oncogenic protein E7 or viral capsid proteins in the tumor microenvironment and usually improve patient outcome by killing HPV-releasing cells[4, 5, 6]. The myeloid compartment is less well studied, with research focusing on the Tumor-Associated Macrophage (TAM) infiltrate and phenotype in the tumor bed and how these associate with survival. Overall, whether they express CD163, CD206, or CD204, TAMs are associated with advanced FIGO stages[7, 8, 9, 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, 12, 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, of a tumor type is now critical to understanding tumor-specific treatment responses. Indeed, the organization of the immune infiltrate, particularly into tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS) within the tumor, 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 secondary lymphoid organs[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].

Given these findings in other tumor types, 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.

Results

TLS in cervical tumors are associated with B cell density, dendritic cell activation, and a higher

inflammatory profile.

We evaluated the presence of TLS in 34 cervical cancer samples. TLS-positive tumors represented

50% (17/34) of the studied specimen (**Fig. 1A**). TLS-positive (TLS[+]) tumors showed an increased density of

aDCs and B cells, compared to TLS-negative (TLS^{-}) tumors, and a correlation between the two cell types

(**Fig. 1B, 1C, 1D**). **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, by measuring secreted cytokines, soluble effectors and chemokines in TLS[+]

tumor, TLS[-] tumor and healthy cervix dissociation supernatants, we determined that TLS presence is

associated with inflammation. IFN-α2, IL2-Rα, IL-16, TNF-α, TRAIL, CCL3, CCL4, CCL5, CXCL9 and CXCL10

104 concentration increased in TLS$^+$ tumors compared to healthy cervix, while only IL2-Rα, TRAIL, CCL3, CCL4

105 and CXCL10 increased in TLS$^-$ tumors compared to healthy cervix (**Fig. 1F**). We observed no significant

106 differences between TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors, although CCL3, IL-16 and TNF-α tended to increase in TLS$^+$

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

108 associated with higher densities of B cells and aDC, and tends to be associated with a more inflammatory

109 profile.

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

112 **stromal compartment and exacerbated IgG presence**

113  We analyzed the B cell, myeloid, and T cell compartments in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors by flow

114 cytometry. First, we investigated the B cell compartment by flow cytometry and unsupervised analysis.

115 We mapped B cells using h-SNE (hierarchical stochastic neighborhood embedding) and assessed the

116 clustering by cell density. In total, we identified 8 B cell clusters and annotated them according to the

117 differential expression of CD5, IgD, CD27, CD24, CD38, and CD21 (**Fig. 2A**). The absolute number of B

118 cells was higher in TLS$^+$ tumors as compared to TLS$^-$ tumors (**Fig. 2B**). The density clustering defined

119 CD5$^+$IgD$^+$ B cells, CD5$^+$CD69$^+$IgD$^-$ B cells, naïve B cells (CD27$^-$IgD$^+$), CD69$^-$ resting memory (RM) B cells,

120 CD69$^+$ activated memory (AM) B cells, tissue-like memory B cells (TLM, CD21$^-$CD27$^-$), germinal center B

121 cells (GC, CD38^{lo}IgD$^-$), and plasmablasts (IgD$^-$CD86$^+$CD38^{hi}). None of these subset frequencies were

122 significantly different in TLS$^+$ vs. TLS$^-$ tumors (**Fig. 2C**). As subsets did not seem to vary, we investigated

123 the spatial localization of B cells within the cervical tumor and stroma by multiplex immunofluorescence

124 (IF) as shown in **Fig. 2D**. Briefly, we applied the tumor nest region of interest (ROI), determined as pan-

125 cytokeratin positive (PanCk$^+$), to all samples (6 TLS$^+$ and 6 TLS$^-$). The absence of PanCk staining identified

126 the stroma ROI. We observed no significant differences in CD20$^+$CD138$^-$ B cells, CD20$^+$CD138$^+$

127 plasmablasts, and CD20$^-$CD138$^+$ plasma cells between TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ samples in the tumor nest (**Fig. 2E**).

128 Plasmablasts infiltrated TLS$^+$ stroma significantly more than TLS$^-$ stroma (**Fig. 2F**). Notably, CD20$^-$ plasma

129 cells and B cells did not vary between TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ stroma (**Fig. 2F**). Considering the increase in

130 plasmablasts in TLS$^+$ stroma, we assessed the presence of soluble immunoglobulins (Ig) in TLS$^+$, TLS$^-$ and

131 healthy cervix supernatants, and found significant increases in IgG1, IgG2, IgG3, IgA, IgM, IgD and IgE in

132 TLS$^+$ sample supernatants compared to those of healthy cervix (**Fig. 2G**). However, TLS$^-$ sample

133 supernatants were also enriched in IgG3, IgD, IgA and IgM compared to healthy cervix samples. We

134 observed no statistically significant differences between the TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ samples, although there were

trends for increased IgG1, IgG2 and IgG3 levels in TLS[+] supernatants (**Fig. 2G**). Altogether, these results

suggest enrichment of the B cell compartment in TLS^{+} tumors, in terms of the infiltrating cell number and

a greater diversity of Igs secreted.

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

The myeloid compartment is known to regulate TLS formation (macrophages)[21, 22] and to

participate in their T cell-activation function (aDCs)[23]. Therefore, we characterized the myeloid

compartment by mass cytometry and used hSNE and a density cluster analysis to map myeloid cell

subsets. We 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. 1A, 1B**). We also divided TAMs

according to CD163 expression (**Fig. 3A; Suppl. Fig. 1A**). 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**). Localization of TAMs by multiplex IF 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 TLS^{+} sample stroma compared to TLS^{-} stroma.

Notably, iLCs and aLCs tended to increase in TLS[+] stroma (**Fig. 3E**). In summary, our results show an

increase in differentiated 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 the 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 obtained 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 a

between-group analysis (BGA) to obtain each variable contribution to either a TLS$^+$ or TLS$^-$ profile (**Fig.**

4A). The segregation plot in **Fig. 4B** (left) shows a clear separation between TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumor states

with no overlap between samples for each group, suggesting that myeloid cells are a critical component

of TLS$^+$ tumors. CD163$^+$ TAMs were the most highly represented cell type in the TLS$^+$ group top 10

variables (45% of the contribution to the TLS$^+$ group), with six of the top 10 variables corresponding to

the contribution of CD1d, CXCR4, PD-L1, CCR2, CCR5, and CD40 expression (**Fig. 4B**; **Supplementary**

Table S6). The expression frequency of these six markers on CD163$^+$ TAMs confirmed the BGA results,

except for CD40 which only trended towards an increase in TLS$^+$ tumors (**Fig. 4C**). cDC2 also contributed

to the TLS$^+$ environment with the expression of CD40, confirmed by measuring its expression frequency

on cDC2 (**Fig. 4B, 4C**). Early MDSCs contributed to the TLS$^+$ group with the expression of PD-L1, CD40 and

CCR5 (**Fig. 4B**). However, none of these marker frequencies significantly differed from those seen in the

TLS$^-$ group (**Fig. 4C**). 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, CCR2, CCR5)

by TAMs also indicates an increase in the recruitment of these cells. The top 10 contributors to the TLS$^-$

group (70% of contribution) were LCs, mMDSCs, pDCs, eMDSCs, CD1a^{lo}DCs, CD163$^+$ TAMs and cDC2 (**Fig.**

4B). Here, we found intracellular IL-6 expression in cDC2 and mMDSCs, indicating a non-cytotoxic

inflammation. The expression of CD80 on cDC2 and CD1a^{lo} DCs contributed to the TLS$^-$ group (**Fig. 4B**).

Overall, 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 the TLS$^+$ tumor characteristics was associated with

their proximity to CD8$^+$ T cells, and could contribute to a better immune response. Therefore, we

performed a proximity analysis by staining pathology slides for DC-LAMP (aDCs), CD3 and CD8 (CD8$^+$ T

cells) and CD1a (LCs) (**Fig. 5A**). Briefly, we performed cell segmentation and identified aDCs (DC-

LAMP$^+$CD1a$^-$), activated CD1a$^+$ DCs (aCD1a$^+$ DC, DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^+$), and CD8$^+$ T cells. 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 range of an aCD1a$^+$ DC tended to

increase in TLS$^+$ compared to TLS$^-$ tumors, although the difference was not significant. We observed

similar results within a 10–20 μm and a 20–30 μm range (**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 decreased 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 contribute to improved

tumor control (**Fig. 5D**).

To further dissect the T cell response between TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors, we mapped T cell subsets by

CyTOF. 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

expression by annotating each density cluster according to marker expression (heatmaps) and

quantifying 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** "Markerless") and

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

CD8$^+$ T cells, one EM specific cluster was enriched in TLS$^+$ tumors and was marked by the expression of

CD69 and PD-1 and the absence of CD28 (EM CD69$^+$CD28$^-$PD-1$^+$ CD8$^+$ T cells) (**Fig, 5H**). In summary, these

results show increased aDC/T cell crosstalk as well as T cell activation and immune checkpoint expression

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

TLS with higher B cell and aDC densities 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, tumor size) and qualitative parameters (FIGO stage, LN status, emboli presence, DC and B

cell density, TLS density), and assesses the impact of these parameters on patient survival (**Suppl. Fig.**

2A). The MFA represents these factors on a PCA (principal component analysis) and quantifies the

involvement on the two axes (Dim1 and Dim2) of the PCA (**Suppl. Fig, 2B**). We identified that patients are

well-segregated by the presence of TLS on Dim1. This segregation is enhanced by the DC and B cell

density parameters, allowing subdivision of patients into three groups: TLS⁻, TLS⁺B-DC density^{lo}, and

TLS⁺B-DC density^{hi} (**Fig. 6A**). Notably, LN invasion also segregated patients but according to Dim2 (**Suppl.**

Fig. 2C). B cell and DC count also increased according to Dim 1, and corresponded to increases in B cell

and DC densities (**Suppl. Fig. 2C**). Qualitative parameters such as FIGO stage did not allow patient

segregation (**Suppl. Fig. 2C**). Next, we studied patient PFS according to TLS, TLS⁺B-DC density^{lo} and TLS⁺B-

DC density^{hi}, and found that the TLS⁺B-DC density^{hi} group (n=10 patients) did not include any patients

with death or relapse, while the TLS⁺B-DC density^{lo} group (n=6 patients) included one death and one

relapse, and the TLS⁻ group (n=16 patients) included one death and four relapses (**Fig. 6B**). **Fig. 6C**

(Kaplan-Meier curve) shows better PFS in the TLS⁺B-DC density^{hi} group, and similar PFS curves in the

TLS⁺B-DC density^{lo} and TLS⁻ groups. To validate these results, we performed an immune cell enrichment

analysis on the cancer genome atlas CESC dataset (TCGA) using the CIBERSORT algorithm, 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

(**Suppl. Fig. 2D**). Finally, we scored the enrichment for TLS presence, where TLS⁺ tumors are enriched for

B cells, aDCs and CD8⁺ T cells. We found that TLS⁺ tumors are associated with better survival compared

to TLS⁻ tumors, which validates the results from our cohort (**Fig. 6D**). In summary, TLS are associated with

improved PFS in cervical cancer, which correlates with B cell and aDC density.

Discussion

Our study demonstrates that TLS are associated with an overall more inflammatory profile and

immune infiltrate in cervical tumors. We showed that 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.

We used an integrated approach to investigate TLS and the immune infiltrate in cervical tumors.

First, we determined an increased cytokine and chemokine signature composed of IL-16, TNF-α, IFN-α,

CCL5, CXCL9 and CXCL10, which has already been associated with TLS in multiple tumor models. Indeed,

these cytokines and chemokines were first linked to TLS in a transcriptomic signature[24] in lung cancer,

and were associated with better prognosis. These signatures, while marking TLS presence, also mark a

diverse immune cell infiltrate. TNF-α and IL-16 participate in maintaining local chronic inflammation. IL-

16 is described as the ligand of CD4 and as a chemoattractant for CD4^{+} T cells, but also macrophages and

DC subsets[25, 26]. CXCL9 and CXCL10 are produced in response to IFN-γ presence in the tissue

microenvironment, and participate to T cell recruitment to HPV protein E7[+] hyperplastic epidermis via

CXCR3[27]. It has been reported that the CXCL9-10/CXCR3 axis participates in prognosis improvement in

estrogen receptor-negative (ER[-]) breast tumors[28], but promotes progression in tongue cancer[29]. CCL5

allows T cell, immature DC and monocyte/macrophage recruitment[30, 31], which contributes to the

diversity of the immune cell infiltrate and therefore the presence of TLS. However, CCL5 was also shown

to participate in angiogenesis and tumor growth[32], through the recruitment of macrophages[33] and

cancer-associated fibroblasts, which could be prevented by neutralizing the chemokine[34] or its signaling

pathway[32].

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, 35, 36]. 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 HSILs and cervical tumors[37]. In our study, plasma cell enrichment was

associated with an increased abundance of intra-tumoral IgGs in TLS[+] samples. To our knowledge, no

previous studies exist on the intra-tumoral IgG presence in cervical tumors and its association with

prognosis. In cervical cancer, neutralizing IgGs directed against HPV are a good marker for the efficacy of

vaccination, as they prevent the formation of HPV-induced low and high grade squamous intraepithelial

lesions (LSILs and HSILs) and tumors[38]. However, the spontaneous clearance of HPV natural infection

does not necessary lead to a strong antibody-mediated protection compared to vaccination. Indeed,

after natural HPV clearance, IgG will only be directed against a specific HPV strain and with lower titers,

compared to after vaccination where IgGs are directed against more HPV strains and are more

abundant[39, 40]. Still, this antibody response allows protection against a secondary infection with the same

HPV strain, if neutralizing antibody titers are high enough[39, 40]. 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[41, 42, 43, 44, 45]. aDC
infiltration is usually associated with a better T cell activation and overall better control of tumor
progression[46, 47]. In our study, we show an enrichment of CCR2+CD40+aDCs in TLS+ samples compared to
TLS- samples within cervical tumor and stroma. Here, CCR2 indicates the blood origin of aDCs and
increased recruitment to the tumor microenvironment. In TLS+ samples, aDCs seem to accumulate 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[48]. By analyzing the CD8+ and CD4+ T cell phenotype using mass
cytometry 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[41] and many other tumor types[49, 50, 51, 52]. 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 and that
they are continuously being recruited. TLS are known to improve response to immunotherapies[53, 54]
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[53, 54]. Moreover, agonistic anti-CD40 mAbs allow DCs to improve anti-tumoral
responses[55, 56, 57, 58]. Given our observation of increased expression of CCR2 and CCR5 on TAMs from TLS+
cervical tumors, targeting these chemokine receptors might represent a new therapeutic strategy to
limit immunosuppressive macrophage infiltration. Indeed, CCR2/CCR5 inhibitors are currently being
investigated in colorectal and pancreatic cancers[59]. In addition, the CCR5 inhibitor maraviroc improved
the immune response in HNSCC and chordoma[33, 60], while a CCR2 inhibitor in combination with
bevacizumab reduced tumor size in mouse models of ovarian cancer by inhibiting the MAPK pathway[61].
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 diversity may potentiate the response to
immunotherapies in TLS+ tumors.

The presence of TLS segregated patients into two very distinct groups. Indeed, TLS+ tumors
segregated patients according to immune variables, independently of FIGO stage, presence of emboli,
and LN invasion. Furthermore, TLS+ and TLS- tumor groups could be subdivided according to B cell and

aDC densities. This highlights the immune infiltration organization as a critical marker of patient

outcome. Indeed, we demonstrated that B cell and aDC density, which increase with TLS maturity[15],

refines patient segregation. TLS[+] tumors with high B cell and aDC densities were associated with

improved PFS, compared to TLS[+] tumors with lower B cell and aDC densities and TLS[-] tumors. These

results are in accordance with previous studies showing that TLS maturation is associated with better

prognosis[15, 35, 62] and often helps stratify patients when used as an independent prognostic marker[20],

therapy response marker[53, 54], or for refining existing patient stratification approaches. 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]. The improved patient

prognosis driven by TLS presence seems to be mainly due to a much higher infiltrate of B cells, and its

organization around aDCs in connection with CD8^{+} T cells. Indeed, in HNSCC, melanoma and sarcoma, B

cell-alone mediated survival rates are similar to those seen in tumors with TLS presence[19, 53, 54].

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

is more inflammatory and prone to anti-tumoral response. Indeed, we show TLS[+] tumors are enriched in

B cells, aDCs, macrophages and T cells. Furthermore, aDCs and macrophages are better activated and in

close proximity of CD8^{+} T cells, which indicates increased myeloid activation as well as 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.

Methods

Human tumor samples

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 2020. 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**.

Immunohistochemistry staining of FFPE slides

All reagents and antibodies used for multiplex immunohistochemistry assay are listed in **Suppl.**
Table S1–3. After deparaffinization of two slides for each 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).

Immunofluorescence staining of FFPE slides

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 added as an amplification system and 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 procedure was repeated several times to label the same tissue

sections with various antibodies using tyramide conjugated to different fluorochromes. 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 Seg Artificial

Intelligence algorithm allowed identification of cells based on their nuclei staining by DAPI. 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) 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 1–2 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.

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
1–2 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.

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. Aspecific 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 **Supplementary Tables S4–5**. 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).

Cytometry High-dimensional analysis

Flow cytometry analysis

B cells were gated as CD20$^+$, CD19$^+$ or CD20$^+$CD19$^+$. h-SNE, which allows a better clustering of rare

populations such as tumor infiltrating cells (30 perplexity and 1,000 iterations, Cytosplore V2.2.1[63, 64]),

was then performed using CD5, IgD, CD38, CD86, CD21, CD27, and CD24 as clustering markers. Density

analysis was performed to identify and quantify B cell subpopulations. Clusters were secondarily

annotated according to marker expression.

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 (using default settings of 30
perplexity and 1,000 iterations, Cytosplore V2.2.1)[63, 64], 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.

Between-group analysis (BGA)

To assess the contribution of each variable to the discrimination of TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ patient groups, a
BGA was performed, as previously described[65, 66]. Myeloid cells were identified by unsupervised
clustering, as described above. Variables with mean expression <5% and cell subsets with <30 cells were
excluded to avoid any assessment of background noises. BGA was performed using RStudio V1.3.1093, R-
4.0.3 (made4 package). R scripts performing BGA are provided in **Suppl. File S1**.

Pagès Multiple factor analysis (MFA)

To compare both clinical (FIGO, 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, 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 to
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). MFA was performed using RStudio V1.3.1093, R-4.0.3. R scripts
performing BGA are provided in **Suppl. File S2**.

Cell enrichment analysis

CIBERSORT (Stanford University) was used for the immune cell enrichment analysis of the CESC
TCGA database. The individual gene expression file was uploaded to CIBERSORTx[67], and run using both
the relative and absolute modes, signature: LM22, 500 permutations, and disabled quantile
normalization (recommended for RNAseq 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). Samples with high

enrichment in every cell subset were considered TLS$^+$.

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$^+$.

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 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.

Figure legends

Fig. 1: TLS in cervical tumors are associated with B cell density, dendritic cell activation and a higher

inflammatory profile. A, Immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining for DC-LAMP, CD3, CD20 and CD21 in

n=34 cervical tumor samples. Tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS) were detected in 17/34 samples. **B**, B

cell density and mDC density in TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) and TLS-negative (TLS$^-$) cervical tumor samples. **C**, Bar

chart representing B cell and mDC numbers in TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. **D**, Plot showing the correlation

between B cell and mDC numbers in n=34 cervical tumor samples. **E**, Images showing a representative

TLS, stained by multiplex IHC for CD20, CD3, DAPI, DC-LAMP, CD21 and PNAD. **F**, Soluble factors detected

in tumor supernatants by Luminex. The dot plot represents the concentration (pg/mL) of each protein in

healthy cervix, TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p<0.005)

Fig. 2: TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) tumors exhibit a higher B cell infiltrate characterized by an enrichment of

plasmablasts in the stromal compartment and exacerbated IgG presence. A, Tumor-infiltrating B cells

characterized by flow cytometry. Data were analyzed by hierarchical stochastic neighborhood

embedding and density clustering. Clusters were annotated according to the expression of CD20, CD19,

CD21, CD27, IgD, CD24, CD86, and CD38. **B**, Number of gated B cells in TLS-negative (TLS$^-$) and TLS$^+$

tumors. **C**, Dot plot representing the B cell subpopulation within TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. **D**, Multiplex

immunofluorescence for CD20, CD138, CD3, CD8, and PanCk on TLS$^-$ (left, n=6) and TLS$^+$ (right, n=6)

tumor samples. Arrows in red squared regions highlight tumor nest B cells of interest. Arrows in yellow

squared regions highlight B cells of interest. **E**, Quantification of B cells (CD20$^+$CD138$^-$) , plasmablasts

(CD138$^+$CD20$^+$) and plasma cells (CD138$^+$CD20$^-$PanCk$^-$) in the tumor (PanCk$^+$) compartment. **F**,

Quantification of B cells (CD20$^+$CD138$^-$), plasmablasts (CD138$^+$CD20$^+$) and plasma cells (CD138$^+$CD20$^-$

PanCk$^-$) in the stromal (PanCk$^-$) compartment. **G**, Concentration of immunoglobulins in healthy cervix,

TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumor supernatants. (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p<0.005)

Fig. 3: CD163$^+$ macrophages and activated cDC2 are enriched in TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) cervical tumors. A,

Tumor-infiltrating myeloid cells analyzed by mass cytometry, 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. The plots show

higher frequency of CD163$^+$ TAM infiltrate in TLS$^+$ tumors. **C**, Multiplex immunohistochemistry (IHC)

results showing CD163$^+$CD68$^+$ and CD163$^-$CD68$^+$ TAMs in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ 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

results showing aDCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^-$), aLCs (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). (*p<0.05)

Fig. 4: Myeloid cells are more activated and better differentiated in TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) tumors. A, The

flow chart represents myeloid population gating, marker extraction and filtering to assess each variable

contribution to TLS-negative (TLS$^-$) or TLS$^+$ tumors. **B**, Segregation biplot (left) showing the dispersion of

TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ samples and the contribution of 44 variables to TLS$^+$ and 57 variables to TLS$^-$. The top 10

variables for TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ tumors are represented on the waterfall plot. **C**, Plots showing quantified

frequencies of the top 10 variables from the TLS$^+$ group. (*p<0.05). **D**, Plots showing quantified

frequencies of the top 10 variables from the TLS$^+$ group. (*p-val<0.05).

Fig. 5: Spatial analysis reveals increased interactions between aDCs and CD8$^+$ T cells, which exhibit

higher diversity in TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) tumors. A, aDCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^-$), aCD1a$^+$ DCs (DC-LAMP$^+$CD1a$^+$)

and iCD1a$^+$ DCs (DC-LAMP$^-$CD1a$^+$) identified by multiplex immunofluorescence (IF) in TLS$^+$ and TLS-

negative (TLS$^-$) tumors. **B**, Schematic representation of proximity analysis. **C**, Quantification of aCD1a^{hi}

proximity to CD8$^+$ T cells within 10 µm, 10–20 µm and 20–30 µm ranges in TLS$^-$ and TLS$^+$ tumors. **D**,

Quantification of aDCs proximity to CD8$^+$ T cells within 10 µm, 10–20 µm and 20–30µm ranges in TLS$^-$ and

TLS$^+$ tumors. **E**, Dot plots showing absolute counts of CD8$^+$ T cells subsets (naïve, EM, CM, TEMRA), which

were gated and quantified by mass cytometry. **F**, Dot plots showing absolute counts of CD4$^+$ T cells

subsets (naïve, EM, CM, TEMRA), which were gated and quantified by mass cytometry. **G**, CD4$^+$ T cell

analysis by hSNE and density clustering. The heatmap shows marker expression per cluster and each

cluster annotation. The violin plot shows the frequency of each cluster in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ samples. **F**, CD8$^+$ T

cell analysis by hSNE and density clustering. The heatmap shows marker expression per cluster and each

cluster annotation. The violin plot shows the frequency of each cluster in TLS$^+$ and TLS$^-$ samples.

(*p<0.05).

Fig. 6: TLS-positive (TLS$^+$) tumors with high B cell and DC densities are associated with improved

prognosis. A. Plots of MFA in 32 patients highlighting TLS, B cell density and DC density as significant

discriminating factors. Left panel: MFA plot showing TLS$^-$ (green) and TLS$^+$ (brown). Center panel: MFA

plot showing very low (green), low (brown), intermediate (blue) and high B cell density (pink). Right

panel: very low (green), low (brown), intermediate (blue) and high DC density (pink). **B,** Chart display of

the follow up of n=33 patients, annotated according to the absence of TLS (black, TLS$^-$), presence of TLS$^+$

B-DC density^{hi} (red) or TLS$^+$B-DC density^{lo} (blue). Crosses represent deaths and R represents relapses. **C,**

Kaplan-Meier plot showing progression-free survival (PFS) for patients in the 3 groups defined in **B**. **D,**

Immune cell enrichment algorithm Cibersort was used to investigate TIL infiltrate in TCGA CESC cohort

(309 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 labeled TLS$^+$ (green) and lower

scores were labeled TLS$^-$ (black). *p<0.05.

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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. 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. designed the BGA analysis, and L.G. and S.F. performed the analysis 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. 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
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Competing interests

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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**	24	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

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

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6