Fundamental Questions about $\gamma\delta T$ Cells

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Corresponding Author: Belghali Moulay Yassine Laboratory of Immunology, Center of Clinical Research, University Hospital Mohamed VI, Morocco Email: myassine.belghali@gmail.com **Abstract:** $\gamma \delta T$ cells is a minor subgroup of T lymphocytes expressing $\gamma\delta$ -T Cell Receptor (TCR), with many subsets, dominated by V δ 2 and V δ 1. $\gamma\delta$ T cells recognize antigens independently of the context of MHC class I, MHC class II, or CD1 presenting molecules. However, this recognition requires the expression of the transmembrane Butyrophilin proteins by the presenting cells. Their activation is controlled by many surface receptors, namely, co-stimulatory receptors, cytokines receptors, NK receptors and inhibitory receptors. Once activated, y\deltaT cells polarize into Th1, Th2, Th17, follicular T helper or Treg cells. They can play direct anti infectious and antitumor roles through perforingranzyme molecules, FasL and Tumor-necrosis-factor Related Apoptosis Inducing Ligand (TRAIL), antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity and by IFN- γ and TNF- α cytokine's release. They also exert an indirect antitumor activity by cooperating with B cells, dendritic cells, $\alpha\beta T$ cells and NK cells. Additionally, yoT cells can infiltrate solid cancers and display a selective cytolytic activity. Conversely, $\gamma\delta T$ cells might promote cancer progression either directly through IL17 and/or VEGF, or indirectly by impairing other antitumor immune cell activities. Given its complex functions, yoT cell-based immunotherapy seems efficient and well tolerated, yet needs to overcome many obstacles including those related to the tumor environment.

Keywords : γδT Cells, Antigens, Chemokines, Cytokines, Immunotherapy

Introduction

In 1984, a third chain (γ) of the TCR was accidentally discovered and in 1987 a new subgroup of T cells expressing TCR that contains γ and δ chains termed $\gamma\delta$ T cell subsets were officially described (Zhao *et al.*, 2018; Born *et al.*, 1987). Along the last three decades, a plethora of studies has led to promising findings about these cells (Kabelitz, 2016). However, many aspects of $\gamma\delta$ T cells remain not clearly elucidated, especially their receptors, the antigens they can recognize, the antigen recognition process, their products, the functions of their various subsets and their involvement in infections and malignancies, as well as their utility as an immunotherapy modality. In this review, we attempt to answer some fundamental questions by highlighting the phenotypic characteristics of the main subsets of $\gamma \delta T$ cells, their main functions and their role in the pathomechanism of some diseases.

Methods

This review intended establishing through the available literature, the finest answers to fundamental questions about $\gamma\delta T$ cells. The search strategy aimed to access all accessible studies focusing on these cells and published by peer reviewing indexed journals. The initial search terms was " $\gamma\delta T$ cells ", " $\gamma\delta T$ cells + antigens", " $\gamma\delta T$ cells + chemokines", " $\gamma\delta T$ cells + cytokines", " $\gamma\delta T$ cells + themokines", " $\gamma\delta T$ cells + concer". We explored articles in English, preferentially indexed in



the following databases: Science Citation Index, Web of Science, Medline Cochrane Library Web search and Scopus. The choice emphasis on articles published in the last 10 years. When not found, we considered articles published earlier. In sum, we elected 177 articles containing 128 original research and 49 reviews, all published in 78 journals. Dates of publication correspond on four intervals [2010; 2018], [2000; 2009], [1990; 1999] and [1987; 1989], including 69, 70, 35 and 3 articles respectively.

Are γδT Cells Rare?

 $\gamma\delta T$ cells correspond to a minority of T subpopulations (Zhao *et al.*, 2018; Born *et al.*, 1987). Like $\alpha\beta$ T cells, they derive from multipotent CD4-CD8- precursors in the thymus (Porritt *et al.*, 2004), but they typically range from 1 to 4% of all CD3+ T cells in the peripheral blood of healthy adults). Yet, their proportion largely varies according to age (Table 1) (Schatorjé *et al.*, 2012).

The proportion of $\gamma\delta T$ cells relative to total number of T cells also varies according to the anatomic localization. For example, $\gamma\delta T$ cells are abundant in the gut mucosa and other epithelial surfaces of the intestine and the skin where they represent one of the first lines of defence (Vantourout and Hayday, 2013; De Rosa et al., 2004). Additionally, they respond prior to $\alpha\beta$ T cells and may prime pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory response (Chien et al., 2014). The fluctuations of these cells in blood may reflect their changes and/or their altered circulation between different peripheral sites. However, the proportion of naïve cells in peripheral localizations is quit lower compared to the blood, due to a selective homing of memory and activated cells to those sites. $\gamma\delta T$ cells are also characterized by an earlier activation and conversion to memory cells compared to $\alpha\beta$ T lineages (De Rosa *et al.*, 2004).

How γδ-TCR is Assembled?

The human TCR γ and δ loci are localized in the short arm of chromosome 7 and the long arm of chromosome 14 respectively. During the maturation process of lymphocytes, the rearrangement of the encoding gene segments (V,D,J) generates a large spectre of receptors resulting on various amino-acid sequences and thus distinct molecular surfaces at their

Complementarity-Determining Regions (CDRs) (Fig. 1) (Kabelitz, 2016; Kazen and Adams, 2011; Allison and Garboczi, 2002). The δ locus is embedded inside the α locus and only three $V\delta$ genes are usually expressed (V δ 1, V δ 2 and V δ 3), but other V α genes are rarely used in δ -chain rearrangement, specifically V δ 4 (V α 14), V δ 5 (Vα29), Vδ6 (Vα23), Vδ7 (Vα36) and Vδ8 (Vα38) (Thedrez et al., 2007). The Vy repertoire is also small, with 12 V γ genes; seven of them are functional: V γ 2, $V\gamma3$, $V\gamma4$, $V\gamma5$, $V\gamma8$, $V\gamma9$ and $V\gamma11$ while $V\gamma1$, $V\gamma5P$, Vy6, Vy7 and Vy10 are pseudogenes (Thedrez et al., 2007; Kazen an Adams, 2011). The number of expressed $V\gamma$ and $V\delta$ genes is smaller than $\alpha\beta$ TCR (Kabelitz, 2016) and the limited number of J gene segments encoding for both δ and γ (four and five, respectively) reflects their low diversity (Kazen and Adams, 2011).

The γ and δ genes rearrange like the Immunoglobulin (Ig) genes to form models for numerous TCR protein molecules (Kazen and Adams, 2011; Haas et al., 1993). Despite the low number of Vy and V δ genes compared to IgV and TCR $\alpha\beta$ V genes, the recombinatorial probabilities for producing γδ-TCRs are almost limitless, widely due to the unique capacity of the δ genes to rearrange D segments in tandem and to use all reading frames (Davis and Bjorkman, 1988). This rearrangement provides different γδ T cell subsets (Wu et al., 2014). V82, Vy8 and Vy9 segments are the first rearranged subsets in the foetal liver and thymus (McVay and Carding, 1996). At birth, the range of $\gamma\delta T$ cells in cord blood is wide, with no preferred $V\gamma/V\delta$ tandem (Morita et al., 1994). Four to six months after birth, a shift in the TCR δ and TCR γ loci conducts to changes during the rearrangement and recombination processes of genes encoding Vy2, Vy3, Vy4, Vy5, Vy8 and Vy11 (Adams et al., 2015). Vol and Vo3 yoT cells have minor subsets of δ and γ TCR chains (Wu et al., 2014). Additionally, experimental studies focusing on the structure of CDRs showed a diversity of $\gamma\delta$ -TCR that varies considerably over γ and δ loci and some gene segments show signatures of strong selection at the CDR1 and CDR2 loops encoding regions. The large diversity of the CDR38 loop conditions the type of ligands recognized by the TCRs (Kazen and Adams, 2011; Allison and Garboczi, 2002; Adams et al., 2008).

Table 1: Percentage of γδT cells among total peripheral lymphocyte population according to age (Schatorjé *et al.*, 2012)

¥!	Cord	1 week-	2-5	5-9	9-15	15-24	2-5	5-10	10-16	>16
Population	blood	2 months	months	months	months	months	years	years	years	years
% of $\gamma\delta T$ cells among total	2	2	3	3	3	4	6	7	6	3
peripheral lymphocyte population.	(0.58-5)	(0.27-15)	(1-7)	(0.82-10)	(1-10)	(1-13)	(0.92-38)	(2-24)	(2-17)	(0.83-11)

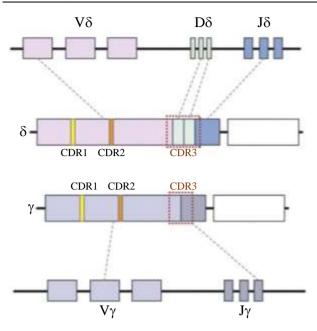


Fig. 1: Mechanism of the genetic rearrangement of TCR (V: variable; D: Diversity and J: Joining encoding genes) (Kazen and Adams, 2011); Top: V-D-J recombination resulting on the δ-chain; Bottom: V-J recombination to resulting on the γ-chain. Regions encoding the CDR1, CDR2 and CDR3 loops are mentioned in yellow, orange and red respectively

Cells expressing these different Vy chains colonize different peripheral tissues (Khairallah et al., 2018). The V γ 9V δ 2 subset (or V δ 2) represents 50 to 95% of $\gamma\delta$ T cells population in the peripheral blood (Hinz et al., 1997); meanwhile Vol subset is present in normal epithelia, spleen, liver, dermis, small intestine and colon. In patients suffering of viral infections and patients with leukaemia, this subset is present in peripheral blood (Almeida et al., 2016; Holtmeier et al., 1997). The distribution of V83 subset is mainly observed in gut epithelium and liver tissue (Ramirez et al., 2015). This distribution usually allows $\gamma \delta T$ cells to interact directly or indirectly with microbiota or the pathogens that invade these locations, which promotes suitable proinflammatory actions. They also represent longlived memory populations upon local infection (Khairallah *et al.*, 2018). Regarding the diversity of $\gamma\delta$ T cell localization, the $\gamma\delta$ -TCR repertoire remains oligoclonal, allowing the recognition of different but limited sets of ligands (Holtmeier et al., 1995). Of note, in healthy adults, there are significant variations in $\gamma \delta T$ cell numbers according to ethnic groups. For example, in peripheral blood of healthy adults from West Africa, V δ 1 cells are more prevalent than V δ 2 (Esin et al., 1996; Hviid et al., 2000). The structure and the subsets of $\gamma \delta T$ cells, as well as their distribution, may determine aspects of their function.

Which Receptors Determine γδT Cell's Functions?

The efficacy of $\gamma\delta T$ cells depends on their activation, expansion and differentiation into effectors that can eliminate infected or mutated cells. This process depends on $\gamma\delta T$ cells expressed receptors including $\gamma\delta$ TCR, costimulatory, cytokine, NK and inhibitory receptors (Table 2) (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2015).

T cell Receptor

The stimulation via $\gamma\delta$ -TCR is crucial for $\gamma\delta$ T cell function (Bonneville *et al.*, 2010). The structure of $\gamma\delta$ -TCR corresponds to a complex containing $\gamma\delta$ -TCR and many CD3 chains (Siegers *et al.*, 2007). $\gamma\delta$ T cell development is directly determined by the assembly of a $\gamma\delta$ -TCR complex in thymic progenitors. Depending on the strength of TCR signal, $\gamma\delta$ T cells likely adopt an IL-17-producing effector profile when there is a relatively weak TCR signal, whereas an intense TCR signal seems to promote an IFN- γ $\gamma\delta$ -T cell profile (Jensen *et al.*, 2008).

Co-Stimulatory Receptors

Co-stimulatory receptors reduce the activation thresholds of T cells and enhance their functions. They include two subsets according to their structure. The first subset is the super family of Immunoglobulin (Ig), namely, CD28 which is constitutively expressed on $\gamma\delta T$ cells and stimulates their own survival and proliferation through IL-2 production (Ribot et al., 2011). The second one is the Tumor Necrosis Factor Receptor (TNFR) super families, such CD27. In naïve mice, it was demonstrated that these receptors are selectively involved in the production of IFN-y. According to CD27 phenotype, $\gamma\delta T$ cells polarize to either IFN- γ + (CD27+) or IL-17+ (CD27-) profiles. Besides, the development of IFNy producing yoT cells requires strong TCR signalling along with CD27 co-stimulation in the thymus (Ribot et al., 2009).

Cytokine Receptors

As demonstrated in murine model, the development and the homeostasis of $\gamma\delta T$ cells depend on IL-7, IL-15 and IL-2 cytokines (Malissen et al., 1997; Baccala et al., 2005). In the dermis, IL-7 supports the development and the survival of resident $\gamma\delta T$ cells and promotes the expansion of human and murine IL-17-producing γδT cells (Zhao et al., 2005). Concerning IL-15, it plays an important role in sustaining the intraepithelial $\gamma\delta$ T cell group present in the gut (Casetti et al., 2005). In a study on human, γδT cells where V δ 1 represented more that 80% it was reported that IL-15 and IL-2 induce IFN-y production in functionally immature $\gamma\delta$ thymocytes. The same result was not reported with IL-7 (Yamaguchi et al., 1998).

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		Intracellular signaling		
Receptor	Ligands	initiators/adaptors	Downstream signaling pathway	Target molecules
CD28	B7.1 (CD80), B7.2 (CD86)	PI3K, ITK, Grb2	PI3K/AKT, Grb2/MEK/ERK	IL-2, NF-κB, AP-1, Bcl-x _L , NFAT
CD27	CD70	TRAF2 TRAF5 Siva	IKK/NF-κB, JNK	NF-κB, Ca ²⁺ , cyclinD2, Bcl2a1, Bcl-x _L
IL-2R	IL-2	Jak1, Jak3	PI3K/AKT, Jak/STAT4/STAT5,	IFNγ, TNF-α, T-bet,
IL-15R	IL-15		MEK/ERK STAT1	eomesodermin
NKG2D	MIC (A–B), ULBP (1–6), H60, MULT1, RAE1	DAP10	PI3K/AKT, Grb2/VAV1/SOS1, PKC0/Ca ²⁺	NF-κB, RelB, Bcl-xL, Bcl-2
PD-1	PD-L1 (B7-H1) PD-L2 (B7-DC)	SHP-1, SHP-2	CK2/PTEN/PI3K/AKT, MEK/ERK	GSK-3, Bcl-xLSmad3, Cdc25A, IFNy, IL-2
BTLA	HVEM	SHP-1, SHP-2	Zap70/ERK	IL-17, TNF, IL-2

Table 2: Co-receptors of $\gamma\delta T$ cells – extracellular ligands and intracellular signaling pathways (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2015)

Similar findings were observed for peripheral $\gamma\delta T$ cells extracted from patients with cancer (Yamaguchi et al., 1998). It was also shown that IL-2 and IL-15 are highly required for the expansion of V δ 2 T cells in response to microbial phospho-Antigens (pAg) and Nitrogencontaining bisphosphonates (N-bis) (Casetti et al., 2005). Inflammatory cytokines, namely IL-12 and IL-18 are also significantly promoting effector $\gamma\delta$ T-cell differentiation which stimulates the production of the IFN- γ , while, IL-1 β and IL-23 induce production of IL-17 cytokine (Yin et al., 2000). On the other hand, the production of antibodies with high affinity against microbial infections is the result of the B-cell helper activity displaying a T follicular helper cell-like phenotype provided to human V82 subset by IL-21 (Bansal et al., 2012).

Natural Killer Receptors (NKR)

 $\gamma\delta T$ cell express NKR, which are essential for the recognition of some ligands. NKG2D is the most studied concerning $\gamma \delta T$ cells. Actually, this receptor modulates their antiviral and antitumor activity, benefitting from the overexpression of various extracellular ligands upon cellular stress induced by such circumstances (Hayday, 2000; Eagle and Trowsdale, 2007; Champsaur and Lanier, 2010) specifically MHC class I chain-related protein A (MICA) and B (MICB) and HCMV UL-16-Binding Protein (ULBP) families. Inside the cell, NKG2D binds to DNAX-Activating Protein (DAP10). The complex of NKG2D/DAP10 may deliver T cells costimulatory signals that synergize with the ITAM based TCR/CD3 molecules (Long, 2002). The co-stimulatory action of NKG2D on V82 T cells is possible by additional effects on TCR-mediated activation. However, it is still controversial whether NKG2D plays a primary stimulatory or co-stimulatory role (Correia et al., 2013; Das *et al.*, 2001). Conversely, it was suggested that $\gamma\delta T$ cells could be activated by NKG2D signals without the TCR engagement (Rincon-Orozco et al., 2005). In addition, when blocked, NKG2D inhibits V\delta2 T-cell cytotoxicity against various types of blood cancers, which is not the same with TCR (Lanca et al., 2010).

Inhibitory Receptors

The return to the homeostasis is necessary after the activation of $\gamma\delta T$ cells. PD-1 or CTLA-4 as inhibitory receptors are necessary for this. Normally, PD-1 is absent or expressed only at low levels on circulating V $\delta 2$ T cells, but it becomes rapidly overexpressed after activation (Iwasaki *et al.*, 2011).

Once phosphorylated, Immunoreceptor Tyrosine based Inhibitory Motif (ITIM) and Immunoreceptor Tyrosine Switch Motif (ITSM) existing on the cytoplasmic tail of PD-1 engage inhibitors of Lck activity downstream the TCR complex (Kulpa et al., 2013). Furthermore, PD-1 captation impairs survival and proliferation of $\gamma\delta T$ cells, as well as IL-2 production through increasing the activity of the Protein Phosphatase and Tensin Homolog (PTEN) which inhibits PI3K/AKT signalling (Pedoeem et al., 2014). The engagement of PD-1 with Herpes Virus Entry Mediator (HVEM) inhibits V82 T-cell proliferation in response to lymphoma cells (Gertner-Dardenne et al., 2013). It was also reported that the expression of PD-L1 on tumor cells inhibits V82 T-cell cytotoxicity and the production of IFNy (Iwasaki et al., 2011). yoT cells expresses another inhibitory receptor, namely B- and T-Lymphocyte Attenuator (BTLA), structurally related to PD-1 and CTLA-4 (Ribeiro et al., 2015).

What Antigens can $\gamma \delta T$ Cells Recognize?

Upon different stress signals, $\gamma\delta T$ cells recognize a diversity of antigens and ligands (Ribeiro et al., 2015; Witherden and Havran, 2012). But in contrast to conventional $\alpha\beta$ T cells, they recognize also lipid antigens presented by CD1 molecules (CD1a, b, c) mainly expressed on the surface of professional Antigen Presenting Cells (APCs) and for which Vol subset has a prominent reactivity, particularly to CD1c (Rincon-Orozco et al., 2005). Besides, γδT cells use multiple other pathways to recognize and clear tumor cells. Supporting this fact, MHC class I-related molecules (MICA and MICB) are recognized by intestinal derived human $\gamma\delta T$ cells . In addition, during other infection, malignancy and environmental

challenges, V γ 4V δ 5 subset can recognize subtle quantitative and qualitative changes of self-molecules like endothelial protein C receptor that appear on cytomegalovirus-infected cells and tumor cells (Witherden and Havran, 2012; Willcox *et al.*, 2012). Independently of TCR, the NKG2D receptor intervene in the recognition of MHC class I related molecules, like MICA/B and UL16 Binding Protein (ULBP), frequently expressed by malignant cells, can trigger $\gamma\delta$ T cells cytotoxicity (Rincon-Orozco *et al.*, 2005). Peripheral $\gamma\delta$ T cells may recognize molecules expressed by epithelial cells via V δ 1 subset. For instance, $\gamma\delta$ infiltrating T cells in lung cancers can recognize the Monomeric Laminin Receptor (MLR) expressed on tumor cells through V δ 1 (Ferrarini *et al.*, 1996).

Additionally, V δ 2 TCR may recognize other surface proteins, for example F1-ATPase-related structure expressed by Daudi Burkitt's lymphoma cells line (Scotet et al., 2005). Some soluble proteins are also considered as yoT cell ligands such as Tetanus toxoid, ESAT-6 (The 6 kDa early secretory antigenic target produced by Mycobacterium tuberculosis) and HSV glycoprotein-1 (Kozbor et al., 1990; Bitter et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 1992). Smaller peptides can also be recognized by $\gamma\delta T$ cells, e.g., the mycobacterial derived Heat Shock Protein-65 (HSP-65), which preferentially stimulates Vy1 T cells (O'Brien et al., 1992). Along the same line of thought, a correlation has been reported between lung tumor cells' HSP-72 expression and the presence of yoT Infiltrating Lymphocytes (TILs) belonging to the Vδ1 subset (Ferrarini et al., 1996). γδT cells also recognize natural non-peptidic antigens belonging to several mycobacteria such as TUBag4 (Tanaka et al., 1994), Isopentenyl Pyrophosphate (IPP) (Tanaka et al., 1995) and the HMBPP (Hintz et al., 2001) a metabolite in the 2-C-methylD-erythritol-4 pathway for isoprenoid synthesis (Fox and Poulter, 2002). Other synthetic antigens like bisphosphonates and alkylamines (Kunzmann et al., 1999; Bukowski et al., 1999) can block Farnesyl Pyrophosphate Synthase (FPS) in the mevalonate pathway, thereby increasing cellular isopentenyl pyrophosphate IPP levels and indirectly stimulate $\gamma\delta T$ cells (Gober *et al.*, 2003). IPP represents a eukaryotic homologue of microbial pAg that is accumulated during the mevalonate process activation and is specifically recognized by the V δ 2 TCR (Gober et al., 2003). For note, n-BP inhibits FPS, leading to the upstream accumulation of IPP (Li et al., 2009). Phospholipids represent another category of ligands that $\gamma \delta T$ cells can recognize, namely, cardiolipin that is detected by $\gamma\delta$ -TCR in the context of CD1d (Dieudé et al., 2011). In addition, it has been reported that peripheral or nasal mucosa yoT cells derived from cypress pollen-sensitive patients was reactive to Phosphatidyl Ethanolamine (PE) after in vitro incubation with pollen. This immune reaction was dependent on CD1d molecule (Russano *et al.*, 2006).

How γδT Cells Recognize Antigens?

As already discussed, $\gamma\delta T$ cells can recognize antigens independently of the context of MHC class I, MHC class II, or even CD1 presenting molecules (Morita *et al.*, 1995) (Fig. 2). In presence of microbial or endogenous pAg, the activation of human $\gamma\delta T$ cells involves Butyrophilin (BTN) proteins (Harly *et al.*, 2012). The type-1 transmembrane BTN proteins belong to the Immunoglobulin (Ig) superfamily. It is composed of an extracellular Ig-like domain, a transmembrane domain and an intracellular B30.2 signaling domain in some cases (Fig. 3) (Rhodes *et al.*, 2016).

Immune cells and epithelial cells widely express BTN proteins that can elicit several immune-regulatory activities (Rhodes et al., 2016). On the other hand, the immune response against infections can be altered consecutively to genetic mutations in BTN genes (Ampuero et al., 2015). It was demonstrated that BTN3A (CD277) expressed on tumor cells could exert positive or negative co-stimulatory signals. Other authors showed that it could exert inhibitory effects on T-cell proliferation and cytokine production when over expressed on antigen-presenting cells (Cubillos-Ruiz et al., 2010). Facing microbial or tumor derived pAg, BTN3A or CD277 has a major role in driving Vo2 subset activity. In fact, the presence of CD277 monoclonal Antibody (mAb) 20.1 promotes Vδ2 cells anti-tumoral cytotoxicity (Harly et al., 2012) while, in the presence of CD277 mAb 103.2 these cells are inhibited (Palakodeti et al., 2012). Other BTN family molecules have been described in murine intestinal epithelial cells such as BTNL1, BTNL6 and BTN3A1. The two first molecules enhance the proliferative activity of intraepithelial $V\gamma 7V\delta 4$ cells and the third one induces the maturation of mouse thymic Vy5Vo1 cells (Lebrero-Fernández and Bas-Forsberg, 2016; Boyden et al., 2008).

Two models are proposed to explain the molecular mechanism of BTN3A for the activation of human $\gamma\delta T$ cell by pyrophosphates (Fig. 4). The first is the 'presenting mechanism' where BTN3A1 extracellular domain serves as an antigen-presenting molecule of pAg that the human V δ 2 TCR can recognize (Fig. 4A) (De Libero et al., 2015). However, this mechanism has not been confirmed by other studies (Sandstrom et al., 2014). The second is the 'pyrophosphate sensing mechanism' where the cytosolic domain (B30.2) is involved. The latter can directly bind numerous $\gamma \delta T$ cell-stimulating pAg via a positively charged surface pocket, which, furthermore, would affect TCR engagement indirectly by changing membrane mobility and/or the structure of extracellular BTN3A1 domains (Sandstrom et al., 2014; Silva-Santos et al., 2015).

Actually, existing data confirm the pyrophosphatesensing function of the cytosolic B30.2 domain. In this mechanism the liaison of pyrophosphate antigens to the BTN3A1's cytosolic domain, which is in contact with periplakin and RhoB molecules, provokes spatial rearrangement of BTN3A1 and leads to TCR-dependent selective activation of $\gamma\delta T$ cell (Gu *et al.*, 2015; Sebestyen *et al.*, 2016) (Fig. 4B). The mystery of how signals are transmitted to T cells via BTN3A1 is still unsettled. In fact, BTN3A2 and BTN3A3 are other isoforms that are implicated in pAg-mediated $\gamma\delta T$ cells activation (Rhodes *et al.*, 2015). This suggests the existence of other actors that might explain the whole mechanism of cell surface-rearranged BTN3A molecules and how pAg particularly activate human $\gamma\delta T$ cells (Kabelitz *et al.*, 2017).

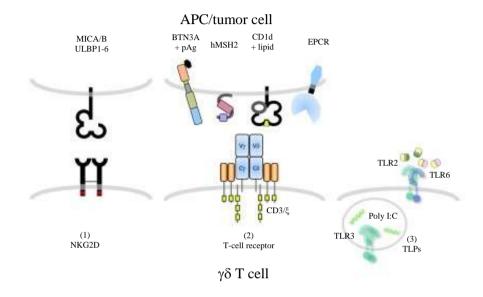


Fig. 2: Categories of receptors regulating the activation of human γδT cells (Kabelitz *et al.*, 2017) NKG2D recognizes stressinducible ligands, (ex. MICA-B and ULBP 1-6), inducing cytotoxic activity and cytokine production via the PI3K pathway. γδ TCR recognizes pAg in a BTN3A-dependent way. Human MutS Homolog 2 (hMSH2) or lipids bound to CD1d and endothelial protein C receptor (EPCR). TLR2 recognizes conserved microbial ligands such as acetylated lipids heterodimer and activate γδT cell via the NF-κB B cell pathway

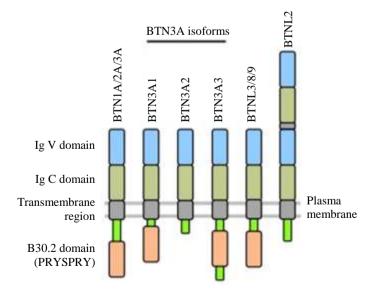


Fig. 3: Structure of BTN proteins (Kabelitz *et al.*, 2017) The structure of BTN proteins corresponding to extracellular (immunoglobulin V (IgV) and IgC-like), transmembrane and a cytosolic (B30.2) domains. B30.2 domain and additional amino acids determine three BTN3A isoforms

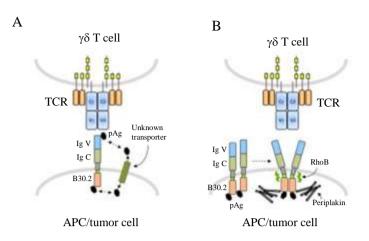


Fig. 4: Alternative roles of BTN3A molecules in pAg-mediated γδ T cell activation (Kabelitz *et al.*, 2017); A: Binding of pAg to IgV domain and their direct recognition by γδ-TCR. Transport of pAg from the cytosol to the extracellular compartment by unknown molecules, to be presented by BTN3A1; B: pAg bind to the B30.2 domain, which recruit linker proteins such as periplakin and activate the RhoB GTPase, leading to a conformation change of BTN3A1 that γδ-TCR could recognize

How do γδT Cells Reach the Tumor Site?

In certain pathophysiological conditions, such as infection, inflammation and tumors, both circulating and resident yoT cells express various patterns of chemokines receptors. This allows their extravasation and migration to reach specific destinations (Kabelitz and Wesch, 2003). For example, the migration of $\gamma\delta T$ cells to the small intestine is guided by CCR9 and the local expression of the corresponding ligand CCL25 (Kabelitz and Wesch, 2003). Vδ2 T cells express multiple chemokines receptors, including CCR1, CCR5 and CXCR4 (Cipriani et al., 2000; Brandes et al., 2003). The expression of CXCR4 transiently increases following pAg stimulation (Brandes et al., 2003). On the other hand, a high production of CXCL12, ligand of CXCR4 by tumor-associated fibroblasts also stimulates $V\delta 2$ T cells infiltration (Orimo et al., 2005). This chemokine is additionally involved in the migration of renal carcinoma-infiltrating Vδ2 T cells (Viey et al., 2008). The Vδ1 γδT cells, which correspond to the resident subset, preferentially express CXCR1, this suggest that its ligand IL-8 might preferentially act on this subpopulation (Glatzel et al., 2002; Roth et al., 1998).

In addition to chemokine receptors, the mobility of resident $\gamma\delta T$ cells also depends on related adhesion molecules. For example, those infiltrating lung tumors express N-Cellular Adhesion Molecules (N-CAM), which allows them to bind to endothelial cells and sub endothelial matrix (Zocchi and Poggi, 1993). In addition, N-CAM might facilitate the extravasation of circulating $\gamma\delta T$ cells and recirculation of resident $\gamma\delta$ Tumor-Infiltrating Lymphocytes (TILs). Similarly, NK cell Receptor Protein 1A (NKRP1A), that may act as an adhesion molecule, is expressed selectively on V δ 2 T cells (Poggi *et al.*, 1999). Thus, NKRP1A seems

important to drive circulating $\gamma\delta T$ cells towards the tumor site. The recirculation of NKRP1A+ $\gamma\delta T$ cells in the damaged tissue is also modulated by IL-12 (Poggi *et al.*, 1999; Ferrarini *et al.*, 2002).

After activation by IPP, V82 cells release large quantities of the β -chemokines MIP-1 α and MIP-1 β . The most robust and rapid response is observed or MIP-1ß (Cipriani et al., 2000). In vitro, human MIP-1a and MIP-1ß recruit different populations of T cells, with MIP-1 α attracting mainly CD4+ T cells and MIP-1 β inducing the chemotaxis of CD8+ T cells (Schall et al., 1993; Taub et al., 1993). MIP-1a activates CCR1, CCR5 and perhaps CCR4, whereas MIP-1ß interacts more selectively with CCR5. Furthermore, MIP-1 α has been shown to activate macrophages, eosinophils and whereas MIP-1 β lacks this basophils, activity (Baggiolini et al., 1993). Taken together, the chemokines released by V82 T cells significantly contribute to a proinflammatory microenvironment during infection or others diseases (Boismenu et al., 1996). Chemokines produced by activated V82 T cells are also involved in T-cell recruitment and subsequently in their activation, as well as in the recruitment of other immune cells. Therefore, $\gamma\delta T$ cells have been considered as an interface between innate and adaptive immune responses (Cipriani et al., 2000).

What Effector Profiles do γδT Cells Polarize to?

V δ 2 T cells display various functional activities. once activated and cultured in the presence of IL-2, naïve V δ 2 T cells (CD27+CD45RA+) can differentiate into central memory T cells (CD27+CD45RA-), effector memory T cells (CD27-CD45RA-) and terminally differentiated

effector memorv cells re-expressing CD45RA (CD27-CD45RA+) cells. Moreover, depending on specific stimulations, V82 T cells may polarize into Th1, Th2, Th17, follicular T helper (Tfh), or regulatory T-cell (Treg) profiles (Dunne et al., 2010; Casetti et al., 2009) (Table 2). Upon pAg stimulation, in presence of IL-21 and IL-2, V82 T cells polarize to Th1 with increased expression of CD56 and various cytolytic molecules and then acquire a higher tumor-induced degranulation capacity (Thedrez et al., 2009). V82 T cells can also polarize into $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells. In neonates, IL-6, IL-1 β and TGF- β are required to generate $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells, while in adults, they require the presence of IL-23, IL-1 β and TGF-β (Wu et al., 2014). It was demonstrated in a colorectal cancer model that activated DCs polarize V\delta2 cells into $\gamma\delta$ Th17 profile, with a release of high amount of IL-17, IL-8, TNF-a and Granulocyte Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor (GM-CSF) (Wu et al., 2014). $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells, especially in the cord blood, can also produce IL-22 (Ness-Schwickerath and Morita, 2011). Interestingly, V δ 2 T cells can secret IFN- γ when they polarize into Th1/Th17 cells. In fact, in neonates, $\gamma\delta$ Th1/Th17 cells differentiation requires IL-6, IL-1β, IL-23 and TGF- β cytokine's environment, while in adults, memory yo Th1/Th17 cells need the same cytokines except IL-6 (Ness-Schwickerath et al., 2010). Wesch et al. (2001) reported that; once stimulated with IPP, V\delta2 T cells can polarize to Th1 profile in the context of Th1-priming conditions (IL-12) and to Th2-cell profile due to Th2-priming conditions (IL4, anti IL-12 Ab). In contrast, it has been shown, that V δ 2 cells can polarize to FOXP3+ $\gamma\delta$ Treg cells (Hu et al., 2013) succeeding stimulation by TGF- β and IL-15 and exert a regulatory activity (Schall et al., 1993). Finally, IL-21 can stimulate the differentiation of V82 T cells to a follicular T helper (Tfh)-like phenotype. These cells express different molecules and receptors such as BCL-6 transcription factor, ICOS (Inducible T-cell costimulator), CD40-L,

Table 3: γδT cells functional plasticity (Lafont et al., 2014)

CXCR5, CD244, IL-21R, CXCL10 and CXCL13 to reach germinal centre lymph nodes. This polarization facilitates the maturation of B cells (Caccamo *et al.*, 2011). It is important to know if this functional plasticity is a feature of all $\gamma\delta T$ cells population or it is restricted to V $\delta 2$ subset, since this plasticity leads to either an anti-inflammatory profile or to a pro-inflammatory one (Yan and Huang, 2014) (Table 3).

What about $\gamma \delta T$ Cells Ambivalence in Cancer?

 $\gamma\delta T$ cells may exert direct antitumor activity through multiple mechanisms like perforin-granzyme pathway (Niu et al., 2015), TRAIL (tumornecrosis-factor related apoptosis inducing ligand) and FasL (Hu et al., 2013), ADCC (Antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity) (Todaro *et al.*, 2009) and by secreting IFN- γ and TNF- α cytokines. These factors enhance antitumor immunity and inhibit cancer angiogenesis (Niu et al., 2015; Todaro et al., 2009; Fisher et al., 2014; Li et al., 2008). They can also interact with B, dendritic, T ($\alpha\beta$) and Natural killer cells and have an indirect antitumor effect in consequence. For instance, in non-immunized mice, Vy4 and Vy6 subsets can modulate B cells, hence the antibody synthesis (Caccamo et al., 2012). Following the same line of thought, after their co-culture with IPP (Caccamo et al., 2012) or HMB-PP (Bansal et al., 2012) and IL-21, the V82 T cells polarize to follicular helper T (Tfh) cells (Caccamo et al., 2012) that can secrete IL-4. IL-10 and CXCL13 and favours B cells antibodies production. $\gamma\delta T$ cells are also able to perform as APCs for $\alpha\beta$ T-cell priming. In fact, after activation, $\gamma\delta$ T cells overexpress HLA-DR, a leukocyte activation receptor (CD69), as well as co-stimulatory and adhesion molecules (CD40, CD54, CD80 and CD86) (Kunzmann et al., 2000; Moser et al., 2005). Another indirect effect is the ability of $\gamma\delta T$ cells to activate DC maturation.

	TCR				
γδT cells subsets activation		Cytokines	Polarization transcription factors	Effector molecules	
Adult blood Vγ9Vδ2	+	IL-12 or IL-18	Th1-like T-bet, eomesodermin	IFN-γ, TNF-α	
T cells	+	IL-4	Th2-like GATA-3	IL-4	
	+	IL-15 ⁺ TGF-β	Treg-like Foxp3	IL-10, TGF-β	
	+	IL-6 IL-23 ⁺ IL-1β ⁺ TGF-β ⁺	Th17-like <i>ROR</i> γt	IL-17	
		Ahr ^a agonists			
	+	IL-23 ⁺ IL-1β ⁺ TGF-β	Th17-like, RORyt Th1/17, like, RORyt,	IL-17 IFN-γ, IL-17	
			T-bet Th22, FOX04	IL-22	
	+	IL-2	APC functions ND	MHC I and II	
Adult blood and tonsillar	+	IL-21	Tfh-like Bcl6	IL-4, IL-10, CXCL13	
Vγ9Vδ2 T cells					
Th1 Vγ9Vδ2 T cells	_	IFN type I	Th1-like ND	IFN-γ	
Cord blood Vγ9Vδ2 T cells	+	IL-6+ IL-1β + TGF-β	Th17-like, RORyt Th22-like, FOX04	IL-17 IL-22	
	+	IL-6 ⁺ IL-1β ⁺ TGF-β ⁺ IL-23	Th1/17 like RORyt, T-bet	IFN-γ, IL-17	
Human V γ 1+ and V γ 2+	_	IL-2 or IL-15	Th1 like T-bet, eomesodermin	IFN-γ, TNF-α	
thymocytes					
Murine $\gamma \delta T$ cells	-	IL-23 ⁺ IL-1β	Th17 RORγt	IL-17, IL-21, IL-22	

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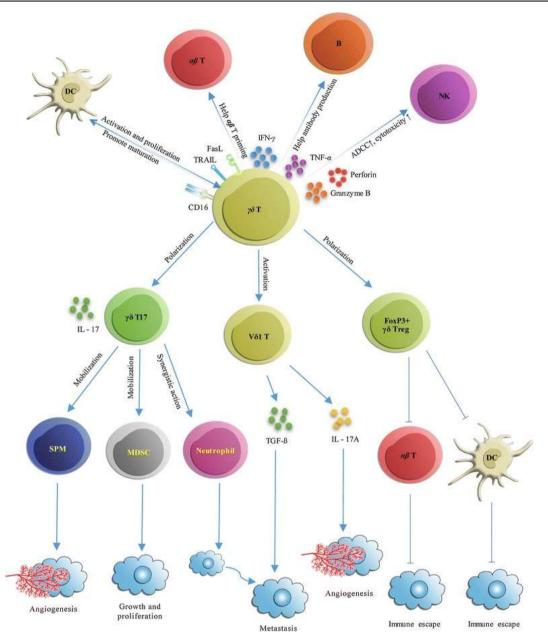


Fig. 5: Antitumoral and protumoral functions of γδT cells (Zhao *et al.*, 2018); Antitumor effect of γδT cells: Direct antitumor effects are mediated by perforin-granzyme pathway, inflammatory cytokines, cytotoxicity on Fas+ and TRAIL-R+ malignant cells and ADCC. Polarized γδ Tfh cells mediate an indirect antitumoral action of γδT cells. This stimulates the antibody production, the γδT cell antigen presentation to αβ T cell, the triggering of DC maturation and the activation of NK antitumor activity. Protumoral effect of γδT cells: γδT cells might polarize into FOXP3+ γδ Treg cells and γδ T17 cells. They can directly impair αβ T cells and DC antitumor functions. They also increase MDSC, SPM and neutrophil immunosuppressive functions. Conjointly, these effects enhance tumor angiogenesis, growth, proliferation, metastasis and immune escape

This maturation is mostly mediated by TNF- α and IFN- γ , which can be provided by $\gamma\delta T$ cells (Conti *et al.*, 2005). Finally, the interaction of CD137 and CD137L expressed successively on NK cells and $\gamma\delta T$ cells may induce solid NK cell-mediated antitumoral cytotoxicity (Kabelitz, 2016) (Fig. 5). However, $\gamma\delta T$ cells can also directly enhance cancer progression. Actually, through

the secretion of IL-17, $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells play an immunosuppressive role; promoting the development of cancer. $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells promote angiogenesis through Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) production, which also helps cancer progression. Such phenomenon has been established in the progression of gallbladder and ovarian cancers (Patil *et al.*, 2016). As demonstrated

in vitro, after the polarization of V δ 2 T cells into FOXP3+ via TGF- β and IL-15, they adopted an analogous function as $\alpha\beta$ Treg cells (Casetti *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, it was shown that V δ 1 Treg cells secrete the chemokine IP-10 and TGF- β in breast cancer (Ye *et al.*, 2013a). When produced, TGF- β may provoke a transition from epithelial into mesenchymal fate, which encourages cancer immune escape. This results cancer invasiveness (Yang and Weinberg, 2008). The same subset of V δ 1 cells, specifically the peripheral ones, seems to have more effective regulatory action than $\alpha\beta$ Treg cells (CD4+ CD25+) (Van Acker *et al.*, 2015). $\gamma\delta$ T cells may also have an indirect pro-tumor effect through additional mechanisms.

One of them is due to an impairment of the function of antitumor immune cells. For example, infiltrating V δ 1 $\gamma\delta T$ cells in human breast tumor may indirectly impair the activation of naïve $\alpha\beta$ T-cells and their differentiation into effector T cells by inhibiting DC maturation and their APC function (Peng et al., 2007). Vδ1 γδT cells in pancreatic ductal adeno-carcinoma were demonstrated to express important levels of PD-L1. This promote T cell suppression and then oncogenesis (Daley et al., 2016). It was also shown that tumor-derived γδ-Treg cells could inhibit T-lymphocytes cellular cycle and induce senescence in DC (Ye et al., 2013b). Another aspect of the pro-tumor activity of $\gamma\delta T$ cells is IL-17 secretion. This cytokine represents a main chemo-attractant factor that recruits Myeloid-Derived Suppressor Cells (MDSCs) (Welte and Zhang, 2015). Thus, the innate $\gamma\delta$ T17 cells might use MDSCs to transform cancer-elicited inflammation into immunosuppression in colorectal cancer (Wu et al., 2014). In a mouse ovarian cancer model, (Coffelt et al., 2015), demonstrated that small peritoneal macrophages (SPMs) are immobilized under the action of IL-17 secreted by Vγ6 CD27-γδ T-cell phenotype which up-regulated pro-tumor and proangiogenic molecular mediators. This in turn enhanced the growth of ovarian cancer. In addition, the production of IL-1 β and IL-17 by $\gamma\delta$ T17 cells increases the expansion and polarization of neutrophils, which inhibits CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes and promote metastasis (Sabbione et al., 2014) (Fig. 5).

How Tumor-Infiltrating $\gamma\delta T$ Cells Influence Cancer Outcome?

Tumor-infiltrating leukocytes comprise myeloid cells (granulocytes, macrophages and myeloid-derived suppressor cells) and different lymphocyte subsets (T, B and NK cells). All of them might have an impact on tumor progression (Gooden *et al.*, 2011). $\gamma\delta T$ cells can infiltrate solid tumors and exhibit a selective antitumoral lytic activity (Haas *et al.*, 1993). It was reported that $\gamma\delta T$ cells belong to Tumor-Infiltrating Lymphocytes (TILs)

in numerous cancers. Nevertheless, because of several controversies their clinical significance remains unclear. In a series of patients suffering from necrotizing choroidal melanoma, the Immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis showed that TILs are present in 76% of samples and that 52% of samples are infiltrated by V δ 1 $\gamma\delta$ T cells (Bialasiewicz et al., 1999). In another series of primary melanoma cases, $\gamma\delta T$ cells have been shown to be the main group of CD3+ T lymphocytes, equally distributed between V δ 1 and V δ 2. Additionally, V δ 2 subset correlated with an early stage melanoma but $V\delta 1$ T cells did not correlate with melanoma prognosis (Cordova et al., 2012). In the context of breast cancer, an IHC study showed that $\gamma\delta T$ cells were detected in 93% of cancer cases versus 3% in normal breast specimens (Ma et al., 2012). The authors, then, showed that the frequency of $\gamma\delta T$ cell correlates positively with cancer in advanced stage, HER2 expression status and high lymph node metastasis, but correlates negatively with relapse-free and overall survival (Ye et al., 2013a). This allowed the authors to suggest that breast tumor infiltrating $\gamma\delta T$ cells are the most significant prognostic factor in assessing the gravity of breast cancer. Along the same line, in breast cancer, V δ 1 TILs can inhibit the activation of CD4 and CD8 T cells and impair DC's maturation and functioning and thus suppress immune responses (Peng et al., 2007). These T and dendritic cells switch to regulatory cells, thus intensifying immunosuppression (Ye et al., 2013a). It is worth mentioning that not the proliferation of resident regulatory Vo1 who is responsible of their accumulation in the context of breast cancer but it is due to their attraction by IP-10 issued from breast cancer cells (Peng et al., 2007). Another study conducted on colon cancer samples, indicated that 80 and 20% of y8 Th17 cells corresponded to V δ 1 and V δ 2 subsets respectively. Based on these observations, the authors considered the infiltration of human colon cancer by $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cell as a prognostic factor since it correlates with cancer stages and other pathological features (tumor size and infiltration, lymphatic and vascular invasion, lymph metastasis and serum (Carcinoembryonic node Antigens (CEA) levels). On the other hand, among the tumor-infiltrating Vδ1 subset, γδ Th17 cells represent about 25% and secrete TNF-a, IL-8 and GM-CSF, which are responsible for the recruitment, the survival, the activation and the proliferation of MDSC, known to mediate immunosuppression and promote tumor growth (Wu et al., 2014).

On the contrary, other authors did not find any correlation between the presence of infiltrating $\gamma\delta T$ cells and prognosis factors (Inman *et al.*, 2008). The tumor type, as well as its localization, the specific $\gamma\delta T$ cells profiles infiltrating the tumor and the tumor microenvironment perhaps condition the biologic effects

of $\gamma\delta T$ cells. Linked to some of these aspects, the *ex vivo* expanded colon, ovary, lung, breast, renal and pancreatic cancer derived $\gamma\delta T$ cells possess an efficient antitumor cytolytic effect and Vo1 subset is generally considered more cytotoxic than V82 one (Groh et al., 1999). Moreover, it was reported that infiltrating $\gamma\delta T$ cells selectively produce IL-17 but not IFN-y on a transplantable mouse tumor model (Wakita et al., 2010). The lack of IL-17 generally avoids tumor growth, which correlates with reduced tumor angiogenesis and VEGF and Ang-2 expression in tumor cells. This shows that tumor-infiltrating $\gamma \delta 17$ T cells enhance angiogenesis and therefore the tumor growth. The same effect was reported in a mouse model of hepatocellular carcinoma but has been attributed to the MDSC recruitment. Once at the tumor site, IL-17 induces the production of IL-1 β and IL-23 by MDSC, which amplify the differentiation of $\gamma\delta$ Th17 cells. Finally, this mechanism sustains immunosuppression and promotes tumor growth (Ma et al., 2014).

What are the Challenges for γδT Cell-Based Immunotherapy?

Clinical trials of y\deltaT cell-Based Immunotherapy (y\deltaT-BI) have been reported in multiple cancers with efficacy and good tolerance (Zhao et al., 2018; Zou et al., 2017). This immunotherapy depends either on the in vivo activation or the ex vivo expansion of yoT cells. The first approach consists on the stimulation of $\gamma\delta T$ cells by systemic administration of pAg or N-bis (Bennouna et al., 2008). The second one is based on their expansion using synthetic pAg or N-bis (mostly used as drug, ex: Zoledronate, pamidronate and alkylamine) before the administration of the cultured yoT cells (Zhao et al., 2018; Dieli et al., 2007). Interestingly, the capacity of $\gamma\delta T$ cells to be easily and specifically stimulated either by pAg (HMBPP and IPP) or by factors that induce IPP accumulation represent an important characteristic for their use in research (Dieli et al., 2007). Thus, in several clinical trials, $\gamma \delta T$ cells displayed an efficacy in diverse tumors, including renal cell carcinomas (Kobayashi et al., 2011), lung carcinomas (Johnson et al., 2003), melanomas (Body, 2006), breast cancer (Jemal et al., 2005) and many others (Zou et al., 2017). In a series of metastatic renal cell carcinoma that underwent $\gamma\delta T$ cells therapy, 60% of patients displayed a Stable Disease (SD) (Bennouna et al., 2008). A Complete Remission (CR) was observed in a patient with advanced renal cell carcinoma who underwent six monthly cycles of autologous $\gamma\delta$ T cell therapy and was disease free for more than 3 years without supplementary treatment. In a second time, the authors proceeded to phases I/II clinical trial, using 2-methyl-3-butenyl-1-pyrophosphate associated to zoledronate and IL-2. The findings of the study revealed

an increased "Tumor Doubling Time", with 1, 5 and 5 cases of complete remission, stable disease and progressive disease respectively (Kobayashi et al., 2010). Numerous in vitro and in vivo experiments have demonstrated that $\gamma\delta T$ cells could be suitable for possible exploitation in the transplantation of Hematopoietic Stem Cells (HSCT). Indeed, there is a positive correlation between the allogeneic graft $\gamma\delta T$ cells and the disease-free survival (Lamb Jr et al., 1996; 1999; Godder et al., 2007). They are also unlikely to initiate Graft-Versus-Host Disease (GVHD), with an ability to attenuate the GVHD activity of $\alpha\beta$ T cells (Drobyski et al., 1999; Ellison et al., 1995). Moreover, allogeneic transplantation studies give evidences that $\gamma\delta T$ cells may facilitate alloengraftment (Drobyski and Majewski, 1997; Kawanishi et al., 1997; Henslee et al., 1987).

However, $\gamma\delta$ T-BI still encounters many obstacles linked to many factors:

- The difficulty to infiltrate tumors by Vδ2 T cells, which may explain the poor results in cancers (Olive *et al.*, 1997). In fact, this infiltration is negatively impacted by the significantly low expression of adhesion molecules such as ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 on human tumors as well as the overexpression of the endothelin B Receptor (ETBR), which inhibits ICAM-1 expression on human endothelium (Buckanovich *et al.*, 2008; Hamzah *et al.*, 2008)
- The existence of inhibitory factors produced by cancer cells or their microenvironment, mainly TGF-β, Prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), tumor derived adenosine and NKG2D-L:
 - TGF-β alters Vδ2 T cell antitumor activity by inducing a Treg profile (Ribot *et al.*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2006)
 - Prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) is also an important regulator of Vδ2 T cells since they highly express PGE2 receptors EP2 and EP4 and many human cancers express high levels of PGE2 due to up-regulation of COX 2 (a key enzyme of prostaglandin biosynthesis). This may explain the limited efficacy of Vδ2 T cell-based immunotherapy in patients with high levels of PGE2 or COX2 (Martinet *et al.*, 2009; Kunzmann *et al.*, 2009)
 - \circ Increased production of tumor-derived adenosine, highly secreted in various types of tumors, may alter V δ 2 T cells cytotoxicity (Blay *et al.*, 1997)
 - The potential limitation of Vδ2 T cells, because of the proteolysis and the shedding of NKG2D-L (MICA/B and ULBP1-4) from the surface of tumor cells (Rincon-Orozco *et al.*, 2005; Groh *et al.*, 2002; Doubrovina *et al.*, 2003)

The $\gamma\delta$ T-BI may also face other challenges related to the activity of immunosuppressive cells. For instance, $\gamma\delta T$ cells antitumor immune responses are downregulated by Treg cells that act through IL-10, TGF-B and IL-35 (Strauss et al., 2007). Additionally, Tregs can also express high levels of perforin and granzyme B exerting a cytotoxic activity against γδT cells (Cao et al., 2007). Moreover, Mesenchymal Stem Cells (MSCs) can also display an important immunosuppressive effect on activated V δ 2 T cells (Krampera *et al.*, 2003; Prigione et al., 2009). This inhibition is mediated by their COX2-dependent production of PGE2. Additionally, MSCs have the ability to migrate towards different types of tumor in vivo including glioma (Sonabend et al., 2008), colon carcinoma (Hung et al., 2005), ovarian carcinoma (Komarova et al., 2006), breast carcinoma (Karnoub et al., 2007) and melanoma (Studeny et al., 2002). This is possible since several MSC chemoattracting factors are released from tumor cells and surrounding stromal cells, such as MCP-1 (Dwyer et al., 2007), SDF-1 (Menon et al., 2007), PDGF, EGF and VEGF (Beckermann et al., 2008). On the other side, it was noticed that neutrophils are able to suppress $\gamma \delta T$ cells impairing their antitumor activity. This suppression would be due to the release of vesicular components of the neutrophils (serine proteases, elastase, cathepsin G) which catalyse the shedding of IL-2 and IL-6 receptors on γδT cells (Bank et al., 1999; Bank and Ansorge, 2001). Neutrophils also inhibit yoT cells by producing Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) and releasing arginase, provoking down regulation of TCR ζ on $\gamma\delta T$ cells with a halt of their cell cycle in the GO-G1 phase. Consequently, the up regulation of PD-L1 expression on voT cells is associated with interferon-dependent PD1mediated γδ T-cell apoptosis (Sabbione et al., 2014; Leliefeld et al., 2015).

Conclusion

The current synthesis aims to provide global answers on central questions on $\gamma\delta T$ cells, specifically about their structure, their functions and their clinical applications. $\gamma\delta T$ cells are characterized by diverse subsets among which $V\delta 2$ is the most prevalent and well studied with more clinical applications. The way these cells recognize various antigens-either directly or through antigen presenting cells-widens their contribution to both innate and adaptive immune responses. Functionally, these cells show an interesting plasticity to polarize to diverse immune profiles and then display an anti-inflammatory or a pro-inflammatory fate. Thanks to the diversity of their receptors, these cells play a potent role in both infections and malignancies. Additionally, their proven anti-tumoral potential has allowed γδT cells to enter the immunotherapy universe in some cancers, using multiple strategies. Namely, the use of antibodies to activate Fc receptor-dependent ADCC, the development of $\gamma\delta T$ cellbased cancer vaccines and the promotion of their IFN γ secretion and not IL-17, with encouraging results. However, some obstacles remain challenging to overcome, mainly due to poor infiltration of target tissues, soluble inhibitory molecules and immunosuppressive cells in the tumor microenvironment. In addition, current and future researches are focusing on the implication of $\gamma\delta T$ cell in infections particularly the identification of bacterial ligands they can recognize and their behaviour in viral infections especially with HIV and cytomegalovirus. Finally, after decades of investigations, $\gamma\delta T$ cells still hide many of their characteristics and much remains to be learned.

Author's Contributions

Moulay Yassine Belghali and Brahim Admou: Design, writing and revision of the manuscript.

Saadia Ba-M'hamed: Writing and revision of the manuscript.

Mouna Khouchani: Revision of the manuscript.

Ethics

This article is original and contains unpublished material. The corresponding author confirms that all of the other authors have read and approved the manuscript and no ethical issues involved.

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