We investigated the role of amino acid metabolism (AAM) in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) tissues to explore its prognostic value and potential therapeutic strategies. A risk score based on four AAM-related genes (AMG) was constructed that could predict the prognosis of HNSCC. These four genes were up-regulated in HNSCC tissues and might act as oncogenes. Internal validation in The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) by bootstrapping showed that patients with high-risk scores had a poorer prognosis than patients with low-risk scores, and this was confirmed in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) cohort. There were also differences between the high-risk and low-risk groups in clinical information and different anatomical sites such as age, sex, TNM stage, grade stage, surgery or no surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, no radiotherapy, neck lymph node dissection or not, and neck lymphovascular invasion, larynx, overlapping lesion of lip, and oral cavity and pharynx tonsil of overall survival (OS). Immune-related characteristics, tumor microenvironment (TME) characteristics, and immunotherapy response were significantly different between high- and low-risk groups. The four AMGs were also found to be associated with the expression of markers of various immune cell subpopulations. Therefore, our comprehensive approach revealed the characterization of AAM in HNSCC to predict prognosis and guide clinical therapy.

KEYWORDS
amino acid metabolism, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, bootstrap, prognostic, immune, tumor microenvironment
Introduction

Head and neck cancer is a tumor type with a significant global economic burden, especially in low and middle income countries (1, 2), with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) accounting for approximately 90% of the total cases (3). HNSCC is one of the most common malignancies and has the sixth highest mortality rate among cancers worldwide (3). Despite the great efforts invested in the treatment of HNSCC, many patients experience recurrence and metastases, which severely limit the 5-year survival rate to <50%, and radiotherapy/chemotherapy does not improve prognosis (4). Thus, an in-depth understanding and discovery of the cellular and molecular biological mechanisms are key to advance HNSCC therapy. Amino acids (AAs) are essential for tumor growth because they serve both as building blocks and as a source of cellular energy. Thus, AA depletion strategies show great promise in treatments (5). Its main advantages over other therapies are its limited toxicity and the absence of tardive effects caused by DNA damage (6). However, the role of AA metabolism (AAM) in HNSCC has not been fully elucidated.

To address different clinical problems, multiple studies have stratified patients with HNSCC according to different biomarkers. For example, due to the low response rate and the high cost of immunotherapy, a previous study constructed an immune-related lncRNA signature that supports the identification of patients with HNSCC who may benefit from anti-PD-1 treatments (7). Because ferroptosis plays an important role in the development and treatment of HNSCC, Lu et al. (8) built a ferroptosis-related gene signature that could predict clinical outcome and obtain sensitivity of common chemotherapy drugs. A fibrosis-hypoxia-glycolysis-related model for overall survival (OS) was established in a recent bioinformatics study, and the association with the immune landscape in patients with HNSCC has also been investigated (9). Among these, bioinformatics analyses can be used to predict prognosis and to devise treatment strategies that are tailored to individuals (10). Furthermore, existing studies usually examine traditional clinical characteristics such as age, sex, pathological stage, and American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) stage, while parameters such as human papilloma virus (HPV) 16 infection and lymph node vascular invasion are lacking (11, 12). However, patients with HNSCC not only have many different clinical characteristics, such as HPV 16 infection, lymph node metastasis or vascular invasion, but can also receive different treatment strategies—including surgery, radiation therapy, and chemotherapy, all of which can lead to different prognoses (4, 10–13). Besides, HNSCC are a heterogeneous group originating in different anatomic locations. And the clinical outcomes of HNSCC vary greatly depending on the anatomic location of the tumor (14, 15). Lin et al. (16) reported the distinct differences in survival among the different subsites of oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma. Janik et al. (17) found the anatomic origin of nasal SCC has significant impact on clinical outcomes. Therefore, the prognosis should be explored in patients with different clinical features and anatomical sites. Understanding these influencing factors can be helpful in individualized programming and in understanding the relationship between AAM and HNSCC. Immunotherapy treatment harnesses the body’s natural immune system to fight cancer. Although recent decades have seen immunotherapy emerging as one of the most successful cancer treatments, the low overall response presents a major barrier to successful treatment (18). The tumor microenvironment (TME) has recently been shown to be crucial for immunotherapy (19). Reprogramming of various metabolic mechanisms affects cancer progression and inflammatory, immune, and metabolic processes in local lymphoid tissues, leading to impaired immune function and reshaping of the TME in patients (20). Therefore, enhancing cancer immunotherapy by targeting tumor metabolism to reshape TME is a reasonable strategy (21). Elevated catabolism of AAs tryptophan and arginine has been observed as a common marker of TME during clinical manifestations of cancer (22). Furthermore, the effects of AA interventions are highly dependent on the TME (23). It was also found that deficiency of specific AA and immunosuppressive effects of some AAM can compromise the function of immune cells, in particular effector T cells in the TME (20). However, it remains unclear whether AA metabolism-related genes (AMG) are involved in immune regulation and the TME and tumor immune environment (TIME) of HNSCC.

We established a reliable and robust signature rooted in four AMGs (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, SLC38A7) based on publicly available databases and systematically evaluated its predictive power for OS and progression-free survival (PFS) in patients with HNSCC. The expression of four genes (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, SLC38A7) was further verified by reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT–PCR) in patients with HNSCC and in vivo to validate their oncogenic role, and their relationships with the expression of immunological cell markers were also explored. Furthermore, the characteristics of TME cell infiltrating and the immunotherapy response between high- and low-risk groups were investigated. Thus, we established a scoring model to quantify the characteristics of AMG and analyzed the relationship between the prognostic risk score model and prognosis, immune regulation, TME characteristics, and treatment sensitivity. These results could provide a multifaceted and feasible model to predict the prognosis and potential benefits of treatment for patients with HNSCC.

Materials and methods

Specimens and data

Supplementary Figure 1 illustrates the methods used to collect and analyze the data. A total of 503 HNSCC specimens and 44 normal tissues with raw data and clinical information were
obtained from the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) database as the discovery cohort (https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/, accessed 1 March 2022). Furthermore, 270 HNSCC samples were obtained from GSE65858 based on GPL10558 (Illumina HumanHT-12 V4.0 expression bead chip) in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database as validation cohort (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/, accessed 1 March 2022). Tumors located in other unspecified parts of the tongue, larynx, other poorly defined sites in the lip, oral cavity and pharynx, floor of the mouth, tonsil, other poorly defined parts of the mouth, base of the tongue, gum, oropharynx, palate, lip, other poorly defined sites, and other and unspecified major salivary glands were selected. The formats of the downloaded TCGA HNSCC and GSE65858 data were HTseq-FPKM and normalized microarray data, respectively. The raw data from TCGA HNSCC and GSE65858 were transformed and normalized in logarithmic 2 (x + 1) prior to analysis. The clinical characteristics of TCGA and GSE65858 are shown in Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Table 2, respectively. Among the inclusion criteria included: For the construction of risk signature, only the tumor samples and OS of more than 30 days in TCGA HNSCC, and GSE65858 cohorts were enrolled. Exclusion criteria included: For the construction of nomogram model and analysis of the relationship between risk scores and clinical characteristics and anatomical sites. (a) In the training set, patients without clinical characteristics such as survival time, survival status, age, gender, clinical stage, histologic grade, T stage, N stage, M stage, HPV16, dissection of the neck lymph nodes, presence of lymphovascular invasion, and previous chemotherapy, radiotherapy, or surgery were excluded. (b) In the training set, patients without anatomical sites and the number of patients less than 10 were excluded. (c) In the validation set, patients without clinical characteristics such as survival time, survival status, age, gender, clinical stage, T stage, N stage, M stage, HPV16. Besides, the patients with the TX stage and NX stage and MX stage, and GX were also excluded due to the disturbance to grouping.

Construction and validation of a prognostic risk model for AMG

In total, 354 AMGs were obtained from the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) (AMINO_ACID_AND_DERIVATIVE_METABOLIC_PROCESS, GOBP_ACIDIC_AMINO_ACID_TRANSPORT, GOBP_AMINO_ACID_BETAINEMETABOLIC_PROCESS) (MSigDb version 7.4, https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/, accessed on March 1, 2022). The original cohort samples from the TCGA were used as the training group and a test group with the same number of cases as the training group, and the model was constructed using the bootstrap method. GSE65858 samples were used as the validation group. First, in the training group, 149 AMG with differential expression in tumor tissues and normal tissues were obtained using the R package ‘limma’ (version: 3.52.1) with the criteria of |log ‘fold change (FC)| = 0.585 and false discovery rate (FDR)< 0.05 (24), 149 AMG were clustered using the R package ‘pheatmap’ (version: 1.0.12). Then the AMGs associated with prognosis that were analyzed by univariate Cox regression with P<0.05 in the training group and the validation group were intersected, using the VennDiagram R package (version:1.7.3) (25), and finally the ‘glmnet’ R package (version:4.1-4) was used to further process the genes related to prognosis using Cox regression analysis from the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) to develop a prognostic risk score model to predict OS of patients providing HNSCC samples (26). A tenfold cross-validation was applied to the formula below to calculate each sample risk score. Where ‘i’ is the name of the gene, ‘ni’ is the number of genes, ‘Expi’ is the level of gene expression and ‘Coefi’ is the regression coefficient derived from the LASSO regression model.

\[
\text{Risk score (R S)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\text{Expi} \times \text{Coefi})
\]

The samples were divided into high- and low-risk groups according to median risk scores. Kaplan–Meier (K-M) analysis and the log-rank test were used to compare the difference in OS and PFS between the high- and low-risk groups. In the training group, the relationship between risk scores and clinical information was explored, including sex, age, pathological stages, stages of tumor metastasis of AJCC tumor nodes (TNM), and HPV16, dissection of the neck lymph nodes, presence of lymphovascular invasion, and previous chemotherapy, radiotherapy, or surgery using the package ‘limma’ in R(version: 3.52.1). In the validation group, clinical information including age, sex, AJCC TNM stages, and HPV16, was collected to clarify the relationship between risk model scores and clinical characteristics. The time-dependent ROC curve was plotted using the ‘survival ROC’ package in R (version:1.0.3) to evaluate the predictive accuracy of the prognostic risk score (27). Finally, the reliability and applicability of the prognostic risk score model were further validated in the test and validation sets.

Comparison of principal component analysis before and after prognostic risk score modeling

The ‘limma’ package (version:3.52.1) in R was used to perform a principal component analysis (PCA) of gene expression profiles before and after generating the prognostic risk score model to determine whether the difference between the low-risk and high-risk groups was significant. PCA was first performed on the four AMGs of the prognostic risk score model, and then all AMGs and gene expression profiles were analyzed sequentially using PCA, the ‘prcomp’ function of the “stats” R package (version 4.2.0) was used to employ PCA (28). Finally,
were displayed on a two-dimensional graph using the 'ggplot2' R package (version 3.6.6), and the PCA results were displayed on a three-dimensional graph according to the 'scatterplot3d' R package (version 0.3-41) (29, 30).

### Gene set variation analysis

The gene set variation analysis (GSVA) method, based on a non-parametric unsupervised approach, can identify variations in pathways or biological processes by the expression matrix (31). To compare the differences in biological processes between low-risk scoring groups and high-risk scoring groups, GSVA was conducted using the “GSVA” R package (version 1.44.0) (31). The sets of genes 'c2.cp.kegg.v7.2' were used as reference sets obtained from MSigDb (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb, accessed on 1 March 2022). This enrichment was statistically significant when FDR was less than 0.05.

### Construction of a nomogram model

The nomogram model was constructed by combining risk scores and other clinical characteristics. In the training group, the calibration curves were used to assess the accuracy of predicting OS for patients with HNSCC at 1, 3, and 5 years, and also in the validation group. The calibration curves were then used to assess the accuracy of predicting OS for patients with HNSCC at 3 and 5 years.

### Immunity and tumor microenvironment

To compare differences in immune cell infiltration in the high- and low-risk groups in the HNSCC samples, the CIBERSORT algorithm was used to calculate the abundance of 22 types of immune cells, including subpopulations of T cells (32). The enrichment scores were calculated using the single-sample gene set enrichment analysis algorithm (ssGSEA) using the package R “GSVA” (version 1.444.0) to indicate the relative extent of expression of each immune-related feature in each sample, and to compare the difference in enrichment scores between the low- and high-risk groups (33). The immune checkpoints (ICs) were derived from the literature. Differences in IC expression were analyzed in the high- and low-risk groups. Furthermore, in the training group, the ‘ESTIMATE’ algorithm in the package R (version 1.0.13) was used to evaluate differences in stromal infiltration and immune microenvironment in the high- and low-risk groups (34). The proportion of components in the TME is shown in terms of the stromal score, immune score, and ESTIMATE score. To investigate the relationship between the four AMGs and immune cell markers, we performed a Gene_Cor_module analysis in the Tumor Immune Estimation Resource (TIMER) database (https://TIMER2.0 (cistrome.org), accessed on 3 September 2022) (35). Finally, the Tumor Immune Dysfunction and Exclusion (TIDE) algorithm (http://tide.dfci.harvard.edu/, accessed on 11 March 2022) was used to predict response to immune checkpoint inhibitors for PD-1 and CTLA4 at statistically significant levels (P < 0.05) (36). In the training set, we also compared differences in patient OS between stromal scores, immune scores, and ESTIMATE scores in the high- and low-risk groups.

### Protein-protein interaction network

Differentially expressed genes (DEG) in the high- and low-risk groups were first obtained using the R package (version: 3.52.1), with results expressed as |logFC| > 0.585 and FDR < 0.05. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) analyses were performed on these 97 genes. These differential genes were analyzed using the STRING online database (version 11.0; https://string-db.org/, site accessed on 1 March 2022) to generate a protein–protein interaction (PPI) network data with interaction scores > 0.70. The PPI networks were then further processed and displayed using Cytoscape software (version: 3.7.2). The central nodes were constructed using the Maximal Clique Centrality (MCC) algorithm (37). As a plugin in Cytoscape, cytoHubba was used to calculate each MCC node (37). Finally, the genes with the top 10 MCC values were considered key genes. Furthermore, all samples were divided into low- and high-expression groups based on the median expression values of the central genes. K-M analysis was used for the TCGA and GSE65858 data to determine whether there were differences in OS and PFS between the low- and high-expression patient groups. In the TCGA cohort, the package 'ggcor' R (version:0.9.8.1) was used to analyze the correlation between the expression levels of the core genes in HNSCC samples and the expression levels of immune cells and IC.

### Cell cultures and transfection

The SCC-4 HNSCC cell lines were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, USA) and were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM; Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). SCC-4 cells were cultured in DMEM/F12 medium (Gibco) with 10% FBS. All cells were grown in an incubator at 37°C with 5% CO2. Cells were allowed to acclimate for 24 h prior to any treatment in all experiments. Overexpressing/luciferase reporter plasmids were purchased from Gene Chem (Shanghai, P. R. China). Cells were transiently transfected with the corresponding plasmids using Lipofectamine 3000 transfection reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the
manufacturer’s instructions. After transfection for 48 h, cells were collected for further analysis. The mutations and relevant genomic alterations are shown in Supplementary Table 3.

Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction

Reverse transcription was carried out according to the instructions of the Prime Script TMRT reagent kit (Takara Bio Inc., Kyoto, Japan), and SYBR Premix ExTaqII (Takara) was used for RT-PCR. We used several sequences: HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7. The primer sequences are shown in Supplementary Table 4.

Western blotting

Protein samples were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) with 6% to 15% and then transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes. After blocking in 5% skim milk for 1 h at room temperature, the blots were then probed with a primary antibody against TXNRD1 (1:1000, Proteintech, Chicago, IL, USA) at 4°C overnight. A corresponding horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody was applied to the PVDF membranes for 1.5 h at room temperature. The signal was detected with an ECL chemiluminescence kit.

Colony formation and invasion assays

For cell formation assays, cells were seeded in six-well plates and cultured for 10 days with RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS medium. At the end of the experiment, the number of colonies was used to evaluate the ability of colony formation. For cell invasion assays, cells were seeded in the upper chambers precoated with 100% Matrigel (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). The upper chamber was filled with HNSCC cells that had undergone different interventions in serum-free medium (polycarbonate-coated Transwell chambers with 8-μm pore size in Matrigel), and RPMI-1640 medium was then supplemented with 10% FBS was filled in the lower chamber. The incubation time was 24 hours and then the membrane was stained with cells that had invaded the membrane with 0.2% crystal violet. Finally, the number of invaders was manually counted using a light microscope.

Statistical analysis

Wilcoxon tests were used to compare differences between groups. The Kaplan-Meier (K–M) test was used to compare three or more groups and to assess differences in patient survival between groups. The relationship between the expression of the hub gene and the degree of immune cell infiltration, as well as the expression content of the ICs, was analyzed using Pearson’s correlation. Multifactorial regression analysis was performed to identify independent influences that predict OS in patients with HNSCC. The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were plotted to assess the predictive effect of the prognostic risk score and the nomogram models. All statistical analyzes were performed using R software version 4.2.0 and a \( P \)-value< 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Construction of risk signatures for AMGs

From 503 HNSCC tumor tissues and 44 normal tissues obtained from the TCGA database, 149 AMGs were found to be differentially expressed, of which 91 were up-regulated and 59 were down-regulated (expression differences >1.5-fold, false discovery rate, FDR< 0.05). The resulting heatmap and volcano map are plotted in Supplementary Figures 2A, B, respectively. We used the original TCGA dataset as the training group and constructed a test group with the same number of cases as the training group using bootstrapping. Furthermore, we found that 33 AMGs were significantly associated with the patient’s prognosis by univariate Cox analysis of the training group \( P< 0.05 \), and the forest plot is shown in Supplementary Figure 2C. In addition, we found that 20 AMGs were associated with patient prognosis by univariate Cox analysis in GSE65858 (270 patients with HNSCC) from the GEO database, and the forest plot is shown in Supplementary Figure 2D. By intersecting 33 prognostic AMGs in TCGA and 20 prognostic AMGs in GEO, we finally obtained four prognostic AMGs (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT and SLC38A7) in HNSCC, and the plotted Venn diagram is shown in Supplementary Figure 2E. A prognostic model associated with four AMG was constructed based on the training group (Supplementary Figures 2F, G). The equations of the risk model were as follows: \( \text{risk score} = (0.617055294471356 \times \text{HPRT1 expression content}) + (-0.532328659441075 \times \text{CTNS expression content}) + (-0.245090646290337 \times \text{SHMT1 expression content}) + (0.4876976025548 \times \text{SLC38A7 expression content}) \).

Validation and evaluation of risk models for AMG

We used the GSE65858 dataset as the validation group. Using the formula obtained above, we calculated risk scores for each patient in the training, test, and validation groups, and classified patients into high- and low-risk groups based on the median scores. Survival analysis showed that OS was worse in
high-risk patients than in low-risk patients ($P = 2.006e-09$, $P = 1.299e - 10$ and $P = 0.010$) in the training, test and validation groups, respectively (Figures 1A–C), and PFS was also found to be worse in high-risk patients than in low-risk patients ($P = 5.603e–06$, $P<0.001$ and $P = 0.007$; Figures 1D–F). This result suggests that the risk model has a better prognostic value for patients with HNSCC. The 1-, 3-, and 5-year area under the ROC curve (AUC) values were 0.605, 0.693, and 0.688; and 0.660, 0.704, and 0.691 in the training and test groups, respectively, and the 3- and 5-year AUC values were 0.593 and 0.709 in the validation group. The prognostic ROC curves for the three groups are shown in Figures 1G–I. Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses revealed that the four AMG risk models were independent prognostic factors in all three groups. Furthermore, higher AUC values were observed at 5 years than for other factors (i.e., age, sex, tumor stage, and positive HPV16 rate), which also validated their effective prognostic value (Figure 2). Furthermore, we compared the differences between the low- and high-risk groups according to PCA. First, in the training group, the differences between the low- and high-risk groups were compared according to the risk models of the four AMGs, 328 AMGs and 59427 genes in the TCGA cohort, respectively, used to constructed for the model. Second, in the validation group, we compared differences based on the genes that followed the constructed models in the training group, as well as the AMGs and the group of 21,973 genes in the GSE65858 data set. The results showed that the high- and low-risk groups were distributed differently (Figures 3A–F), respectively. Figure 3 shows risk curves and scatter plots to indicate risk scores and associated survival status of patients. The occurrence of mortality in HNSCC patients depended on the risk score. Furthermore, we evaluated the training group, according to clinical information and anatomical sites including age, sex, age, clinical stage, TNM grade stage, HPV16 status, radiotherapy, chemotherapy, surgery, neck lymph node dissection, and lymph node vascular invasion, cheek mucosa, gum, larynx, mouth, overlapping lesion of lip, oral cavity and pharynx, tongue, and tonsil. As shown in Figures 4A–Q, OS was significantly better in the low-risk group than in the high-risk group, with results for age ≤ 65 years ($P = 3.554e–05$), age >65 years ($P = 2.843e–05$), male sex ($P = 3.799e–07$), female sex ($P = 0.002=)$, G1-2 ($P = 2.918e–05$),

![FIGURE 1](https://example.com/figure1.png)

**FIGURE 1**
The OS of high-risk and low-risk groups. (A) Training set, (B) test set, and (C) validation set (C). The PFS of high-risk and low-risk groups in the training set (D), test set (E) and validation set (F). The ROC curves of risk signatures predicting performance for 1-, 3-, and 5-year OS for patients with HNSCC in the training set (G) and test set (H), and 3- and 5-year OS for patients with HNSCC in the validation set (I). OS, overall survival; PFS, progression-free survival; ROC, receiver operating characteristic curve; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.
G3-4 ($P = 2.0875 \times 10^{-05}$), tumor stage I–II ($P = 0.0130$), tumor stage III–IV ($P = 1.731 \times 10^{-07}$), surgical intervention ($P = 0.014$), neck lymph node dissection ($P = 1.006 \times 10^{-07}$), no neck lymph node dissection ($P = 0.004$), no lymphovascular invasion present ($P = 0.001$), no chemotherapy ($P < 0.001$), radiotherapy ($P = 0.001$), or no radiotherapy ($P = 0.013$), larynx ($P < 0.001$), overlapping lesion of lip, oral cavity and pharynx ($P = 0.013$), and tonsil ($P = 0.033$).

**Construction of a predictive nomogram model**

The risk score, age, sex, pathological grade, and tumor stage together were used to construct a nomogram model to predict the clinical outcome of HNSCC in the training set (Figure 5A). Clinicopathological parameters and their corresponding scores for each patient were obtained as a total nomogram-based score. The nomogram model was used to predict 1-, 3-, and 5-year OS in patients with HNSCC. The calibration curve showed that the nomogram had good agreements in predicting OS in patients with HNSCC in training set and validation set (Figure 5C, D). In addition, we constructed a nomogram model to predict the clinical outcomes of HNSCC by risk score, age, sex, clinical grade, and HPV16 infection status in the validation set to predict the clinical outcome of HNSCC (Figure 5B). Furthermore, we found that the nomogram model was a prognostic factor with independent prognostic impact in both the training and the validation set of patients with HNSCC by univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis (Figures 6C–F). The AUC values at 5 years for the training and the validation sets were 0.787 and 0.739, respectively (Figures 6A, B).

**Differences in immunity and the TME**

To explore the relationship between the risk score and tumor immune cell infiltration, we compared the differences in the proportions of 22 immune cell types in the high- and low-risk groups of patients in the training set. Patients with HNSCC in the low-risk group had higher ratios of naïve B cells ($P < 0.05$), plasma cells ($P < 0.001$), helper T cells ($P < 0.05$), regulatory T cells (Tregs) ($P < 0.05$), mast cells, and resting eosinophils ($P = 0.002$; Figure 7A). Considering the importance of immunotherapy in the treatment of cancers, we also compared the difference in IC expression levels between the two groups of patients. There were higher levels of CD44 and CD276 in the high-risk group than in the low-risk group, while BTLA,
FIGURE 3
Characterization of different status and risk scores of AMGs signatures in high- and low-risk groups. Principal component analysis (PCA) of risk models between low and high-risk groups based on the four AMGs (amino acid metabolism-related coding genes) (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, SLC38A7) (A) and 328 AMGs (C) and genome-wide profiles (E) in training set and validation set (B, D, F). The respective survival times, status of patients (G), and risk scores (I) in the training set and validation set (H, J). AMGs, amino acid metabolism-related genes; PCA, principal component analysis.
FIGURE 4
Stratification analyses by age, sex, histological tumor grade, TNM stage, history of surgery, neck lymph node dissection, HPV16 status, presence of lymphovascular invasion present, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, tumor anatomical site. K–M curve analysis of OS in high-risk and low-risk groups for younger patients (age ≤ 65 y) and older patients (age > 65) (A). Male or female (B). Early-grade patients (histological grades 1 or 2) and late-grade patients (histological grades 3 or 4) (C). Early-stage patients (TNM stages I or II) and late-stage patients (TNM stages III or IV) (D). Surgery: yes or no (E). Neck lymph node neck dissection: yes or no (F). HPV16 status positive or negative (G). Lymphovascular invasion present: yes or no (H). Chemotherapy use: yes and no (I). Radiotherapy use: yes or no (J). Cheek mucosa (K). Gum (L). Larynx (M). Mouth (N). Overlapping lesion of lip, oral cavity and pharynx (O). Tongue (P). Tonsil (Q). K–M, Kaplan–Meier.
ADOR2A, CD200, ID02, CD160, TNFRSF14, CD28, TNFRSF4, TNFRSF25, CD244, CD27, TNFSF14, CD40LG, KIR3DL1 and HHLA2 yielded opposite results (P < 0.05; Figure 7B). The CCR, checkpoint, HLA, T cell co-inhibition, T cell co-stimulation, and Type II IFN response pathways showed higher activity in the low-risk group than in the high-risk group (P < 0.05; Figure 7C). Furthermore, we compared differences in mutational load between the two groups and showed that the risk score for TP53 mutations was higher than for wild-type TP53 (P < 0.001; Figure 8A). Additionally, given the importance of the TME, we compared STROMAL, IMMUNE, and ESTIMATE scores between the two groups, showing that IMMUNE scores and ESTIMATE scores were higher in the low-risk group than in the high-risk group of patients (P < 0.01; Figure 8B). In addition, the TIDE score was higher in low-risk patients than in high-risk group patients (P < 0.01; Figure 8C). We also explored the relationship between TP53 mutations and the prognosis in the high- and low-risk groups.
Survival analysis showed that patients in the TP53 mutation/high group had lower OS than those with groups ($P < 0.01$; Figure 8D). To investigate the effects of TME on patient prognosis, we divided patients into a high STROMAL score group, a high immune score group, and a high ESTIMATE score group when above the median scores and divided patients below the median score into a low STROMAL score group, a low immune score group, and a low ESTIMATE score group. Finally, the results showed that patients with a low Stomal score/low risk score had longer OS than the other three type groups ($P < 0.05$; Figure 8E), patients with a high immune score/low risk score had higher OS than the other three type groups ($P < 0.05$; Figure 8F), patients with a low ESTIMATE score/low risk score had higher OS than the other type groups ($P < 0.05$; Figure 8G). These data indicated that our AMG risk signature could be a possible prognostic indicator, and the combination with the TP53 mutation status, the STROMAL score, the immune score and the ESTIMATE score could further refine the prognostic prediction for patients with HNSCC.

**FIGURE 6**
Univariate and multivariate Cox analysis to evaluate the independent prognostic value of the nomogram model. The AUC of nomograms. Shown are the AMG risk scores, and clinical characteristics: age, sex, grade stage, TNM stage in the training set (A) AMG risk scores, age, sex, TNM stage and HPV16 status in the validation set (B). Univariate Cox analysis in the training set (C) and validation set (D). Multivariate Cox analysis in the training set (E) and validation set (F). AUC, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; AMGs, amino acid metabolism-related genes.
FIGURE 7  
Differences in the degree of infiltration of 22 immune cell types and expression of ICs between the low- and high-risk groups. (A) Immune cells; (B) ICs; (C) Single-sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA). *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001. ICs, immune checkpoints.
Correlation between HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7 and immune cell marker expression

Considering the heterogeneity and complexity of the TME, further exploration of the association of AMG expression with various immune-infiltrating cells is meaningful and necessary. Using TIMER databases, we examined the correlation between HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7 expression and representative markers of different immune infiltrating cells in patients with HNSCC. Expression of HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7 were correlated with markers of particular immune cell subsets in the TIMER database. As shown in Supplementary Table 4, the adjusted results based on tumor purity revealed a significant correlation between HPRT1 and monocyte markers (CD8B), T cell (general) (CD3D), B cell (CD19, CD79A, CD68), macrophage M1 (NOS2, IRF5, CCR7, KIR2DS4), dendritic cells (HLA-DPB1, BDCA-1, BDCA-4), Th2 (GATA3, STAT6, TGFβ), Th1 (IFNγ, IL-12, TCRαβ), Th17 (IL-17F, RORγt), Tfh (BCL6, STAT5B, TGFβ), and Treg (IL-10, FoxP3, TGFβ) in 520 HNSCC samples. CTNS was also shown to be closely related to markers of some immune cells, including M2 macrophage, dendritic cells, Th1, Th2, Th17, Treg SHMT1 for CD8+T, B cell, M1 macrophage, neutrophils, Th2, Th1, Th17, TREC, T cell exhaustion; SLC38A7 for T cell (general), monocyte, tumor associated macrophages (TAM), M2 macrophage, neutrophils, Th2, Th17, TREC Insertion of HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1 and SLC38A7 and markers TAM (CD68), dendritic cells (BDCA-1), Th2 (STAT6, GATA3), Th1 (BDCA1), Treg (STAT3B, TGFβ) (Supplementary Table 5).

Gene set variation analysis and four types of AMG in HNSCC specimens

GSVA enrichment was performed using the gene sets of ’c2.cp.kegg.v7.2’ downloaded from the MSigDB resource to explore biological behaviors in the high- and low-risk groups. Most metabolic pathways such as alanine, aspartate, and glutamate metabolism, and glutathione metabolism were enriched in the high-risk group (Supplementary Figure 3A), and oncogenic pathways such as the P53 signaling pathway were also found to be enriched in the high-risk group. Furthermore, the genes HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1 and SLC38A7 were upregulated in HNSCC tissues (Supplementary Figure 3B).

RT-PCR and in vitro experiments on four AMGs

We verified that HPRT1 was found to be expressed at elevated levels in 10 clinical specimens of HNSCC tumors compared to normal tissue (P < 0.05; Supplementary Figure 4A). After in vitro overexpression assays, HPRT1 mRNA and protein expression levels increased significantly in HNSCC cells (P < 0.05; Supplementary Figure 5A; Figures 9A, E). Clone formation and invasion ability were elevated (P < 0.05; Figures 10A, E, 11A, E). The same results were also found for CTNS, SHMT1 and SLC38A7 (Supplementary Figures 4; 5B-D, Figures 9, 10, 11B–D, F–H).
Functional enrichment analysis and PPI network

For a more detailed understanding of this risk score model, we selected DEGs between high- and low-risk groups and then performed functional annotation. We obtained 552 DEGs (logFC absolute value ≥0.585; FDR< 0.05) between the high-risk and low-risk groups in the training set and further explored the biological functions of these using GO enrichment and KEGG analysis. The results showed that the enrichment of the GO pathway was mainly in the immunoglobulin-mediated immune response, B cell-mediated immunity, the humoral immune response mediated by circulating immunoglobulin, and the adaptive immune response based on the somatic recombination of immune receptors built from the immunoglobulin superfamily domains (Figure 12A). The KEGG results showed the interaction of the cytokine-cytokine receptor and the interaction of viral proteins with cytokines and cytokine receptors and lipid metabolism (Figure 12B). String-based and PPI networks showed 552 DEGs comprising 153 nodes and 317 edges (Figures 12C, D). The hub genes of these 552 differential genes were then investigated using the CytoHubba application in Cytoscape software (Figure 12E). In this network, we obtained 28 nodes and 193 edges. Survival analysis showed that LCE2B mRNA expression was closely related to the prognosis of patients with HNSCC, and LCE2B mRNA expression level ≥ the median was defined as the high expression group; expression below the median was defined as the low expression group. The results showed that in the training group, patients in the LCE2B high expression group had better OS and PFS than in the low expression group (P< 0.05; Figures 13A, B). The same results were obtained in the validation group (P< 0.05; Figures 13C, D). Pancancer analysis revealed that LCE2B was differentially expressed in normal and tumor tissues in HNSCC, lung adenocarcinoma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, prostatic adenocarcinoma, and skin cutaneous melanoma (P< 0.05; Figure 13E). Further correlation analysis of the TCGA database showed that LCE2B was negatively correlated with ICs such as PDCD1, CD276, and CD200 (P< 0.05; Figure 14). Further analysis revealed that LCE2B was positively correlated with plasma cells, macrophages, and neutrophils (P< 0.05) and negatively.
correlated with CD8 T cells, plasma cells, and monocytes (P<0.05; Figure 14).

**Discussion**

In the present study we established a risk profile for AMGs to predict the prognosis of patients with HNSCC. To improve the accuracy of the model, the RNAseq expression data of 503 patients from TCGA cohort and associated clinical data were used as the training set. To avoid the impact of the reduced sample size of study subjects on the prediction performance of the constructed model, we used bootstrapping instead of an internal validation method of scaled random grouping to obtain a test set with the same number of samples as the training set, and the data for 270 HNSCC samples from the GEO database were used as the validation set. To improve the reliability of AMG risk profiles, we first obtained four AMGs (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7) that were significantly different in both the training group and the validation group using univariate Cox regression analysis. In the training group, LASSO Cox regression analysis was then applied to these four genes and finally a four-gene risk signature (HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1 and SLC38A7) was obtained to analyze AAM in HNSCC samples. The results showed that in the three HNSCC study cohorts, OS, and PFS were worse in high-risk patients than in the low-risk group (P<0.05). This suggests that AAM might present potential differences in biological function in HNSCC tissues. As a therapeutic target for cancer, many valid studies have been conducted investigating the mechanisms of AAM in multiple types of cancer (38). For example, in the ability to promote the development of cell death in human acute myeloid leukemia (AML) cells through pharmacological inhibition of AAM (39).

Silencing of JMJD2B in colorectal cancer cells inhibits asparagine, phenylalanine, and histidine production and subsequently suppresses the viability of colorectal cancer cells.
by inhibiting autophagy (33). We also found that the expression of all four genes were higher in tumor tissues than in normal tissues by RT-PCR. In vitro experiments revealed that the overexpression of all four genes promoted the proliferation and invasion of HNSCC cells. Furthermore, we explored the functions and mechanisms of action of these four genes in HNSCC tissues by searching the literature. Thus, a TCGA-based bioinformatics analysis revealed that patients with HNSCC with HPRT1 overexpression had a poor prognosis. Patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) with high levels of HPRT1 had a worse prognosis (40), and both in vitro and in vivo experiments revealed that HPRT1 overexpression improved the resistance of patients with OSCC to cisplatin by activating the MMP1/PI3K/Akt axis (41). The function and mechanism of action of CTNS in HNSCC is not supported by the results of earlier studies. One study showed that the SHMT1 C1420T polymorphism was associated with laryngeal squamous carcinoma (LSC) (42), and although there are no studies on the function and mechanism of action of SHMT1 in HNSCC, SHMT1 has been shown to be an oncogene in both lung and ovarian cancers (43, 44). Analysis of RNA sequencing and the TCGA data set reveals SLC38A7 as a potential therapeutic target for lung squamous cell carcinoma (45). Taken together, the present study suggests that these four genes have a tumor-promoting role in HNSCC, whose exact mechanism of action requires further study.

Despite the growing body of evidence that reveals the role of AAM in cancer, its role in tumors is a complex process and factors present in the environment can influence this interaction. These include (but are not limited to) sex, age, lymph node metastasis, surgery, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy. Besides, HNSCC is a heterogeneous collection of malignancies arising from the tongue, larynx, oral cavity, oropharynx, palate, and lips. HNSCCs have varied behaviors, clinical presentations, treatments, and prognoses depending on their anatomic sites (46). Given this, understanding these influencing factors could be helpful in the development of individualized protocols for HNSCC. Therefore, in the training group, we analyzed the predictive ability of the risk model for OS in different clinical groups from multiple perspectives, and the results showed that in all clinical parameters except for the presence of lymphovascular invasion, chemotherapy, and HPV16 infection, the OS of high-risk patients was lower than that of low-risk patients. It is well known that HNSCC is closely
related to HPV16 infection. However, our study did not find any differences in OS in patients positive or negative for HPV16 infection. Taking into account the excessive missing data regarding HPV16 infection status in the training set and the fact that some studies found significant differences in prognosis between HPV16 positive and negative patients with HNSCC (47), further refinement of additional data and exploratory studies should be performed. Besides, the OS of high-risk patients was lower than that of low-risk patients in tumor arising larynx, overlapping lesion of lip, oral cavity and pharynx, and tonsil. A previous study shows that the high expression of amino acid transporters was closely associated with lymph node metastasis in patients with advanced laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma and cell proliferation in vitro (46). However, studies on mechanisms of the association between AAM and oropharyngeal cancer are rare. Therefore, it is worthy of further in-depth study about the relations between AMM and HNSCC originating in different anatomic locations. Furthermore, we adjusted for other clinical parameters using univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses in three HNSCC cohorts, and the results still showed that our model was an independent factor for predicting OS of patients with HNSCC (all \( P < 0.05 \)). Thus, the risk model we constructed for the four AMGs has a comprehensive and reliable predictive ability for OS in HNSCC. We also developed a predictive nomogram for the training group that included age, sex, T (tumor size), N (positive nodes), M (distant metastasis), and AJCC stage, and evaluated the utility of the designed nomogram by C-index, calibration plots. The results showed satisfactory predictive discrimination in monitoring OS in patients with HNSCC. Because there were too many missing values of HPV16 infection status for 503 HNSCC samples in TCGA, we developed the prediction nomogram that included all parameters in the training group and HPV16 infection in
the validation group considering the close relationship between HPV16 infection and HNSCC.

The AUCs for the nomogram model were 0.787 and 0.739 at 5 years of OS in the training and validation groups, which were higher than those for the risk scores model (0.687 and 0.709), respectively. The nomogram model was also identified as an independent prognostic indicator in both the training and validation groups even after adjustment for other clinical variables by univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis. Recently, multiple biomarker profiles and prognostic nomograms have been established and used in several studies to make clinical decisions and evaluate prognosis in a variety of tumors such as gastric cancer, colon cancer, and bladder cancer (48–50). However, unlike previous studies (51), we included HPV16 infection status in the construction of the nomogram, which provides a more detailed and reliable clinical evaluation index for clinical decision making and prognostic evaluation of HNSCC.
Activation of TP53 mutations is driven by oncogenes regardless of their source. We found that patients with high-risk TP53 mutations had worse OS than other groups of patients. This allowed our prediction model to further refine the grouping criteria to accurately and comprehensively predict OS in HNSCC patients with different parameters. Given the importance of immunotherapy and TME in the treatment of HNSCC, and to explore the immunological profile of TME in different risk AAM patterns, we further estimated the level of tumor-infiltrating immune cell infiltration, the expression of genes encoding ICs, and the activity of tumor-related immune pathways. In the training set, naïve B cells, plasma cells, follicular helper T cells, Tregs, resting NK cells, resting mast cells, and eosinophils with differential expression in high and low-risk groups were identified, except for resting NK cells, which showed greater infiltrated in the low-risk group. A previous study found that patients with high expression of naïve B cells in HNSCC had a good prognosis (52). Chen et al. (53) found that HNSCC patients with high expression of CXCR5 mRNA had good OS and plasma cells correlated with the expression of CXCR5 mRNA. Similar results were also found in follicular helper T-cells, T-regs, resting mast cells, and eosinophils (54–57). NK cells are often thought to play an antitumor role, but a meta-analysis that performed a systematic search in PubMed/Medline and Embase and included 46 studies showed that NK cells play a better prognostic role in HNSCC. However, some findings yielded conflicting results, suggesting a delicate balance between the pro and antitumor functions of NK cells (58). Furthermore, related functions based on ssGSEA of a higher response in the low-risk group suggested that patients with low-risk scores might be suitable for immunotherapy. Although subsequent studies showed that patients in the low-risk group had higher TIDE scores than those in the high-risk group, considering that TIDE mainly assesses patient response to anti-PD1 or anti-CTLA4 therapy (59). We compared the differences in the expression levels of IC between patients in the high- and low-risk groups. In the low-risk group, ICs, such as CD200 and CD44, were highly expressed, but others, such as CD44 and CD276, were only weakly expressed. Therefore, the response of patients in high- and low-risk groups to immunotherapy should be explored and supported by specific clinical trials and data.

Higher immune scores and ESTIMATE scores were also revealed in patients in the low-risk group. Taken together, our results fully demonstrate the differences in immune cell infiltration, immune-related functions, and TME between the high- and low-risk groups. Previous studies demonstrated that AAM suppresses the immune function of cancer patients, as well as alters the TME (22, 60). We found that the AAM was more active in the high-risk group by GSEA. Furthermore, according to TIMER, the expression of HPRT1, CTNS, SHMT1, and SLC38A7 was closely associated with multiple immune cell markets such as TAM, dendritic cell, Th2, Thh, Treg. Thus, the pro-carcinogenic role of AAM in HNSCC and its effects on immune function and TME warrant further in-depth study and exploration. Furthermore, our results revealed that there were differences in OS between patients in the STOMAL, immune,
and ESTIMATE score groups and AMG risk scores, demonstrating that our constructed AMG risk signature also had a better predictive capacity for OS in patients with HNSCC combined with different characteristics.

We also investigated the functions associated with differential genes in high- and low-risk groups and GO enrichment analysis revealed that these differentially expressed genes were primarily enriched in immune functions. In a previous study, LCE2B was identified as the central gene for the PPI network analysis, which and was shared with five other genes (SHH, SLC18A3, LCE3E, LCE3D and DSG-1), and was found to contributed to a risk signature model able to predict OS in patients with LSC (61). In both the TCGA and GEO cohorts, patients with HNSCC with high LCE2B expression had better OS and PFS than the low expression group. Interestingly, LCE2B had an upregulated expression in HNSCC compared to normal tissues. Furthermore, the correlation of LCE2B with IC expression and immune cell content revealed its potential target for immunotherapy in patients with HNSCC. However, the mechanism of action of LCE2B in HNSCC needs to be further studied.

Limitations

This study had some limitations that need to be further investigated. Although the risk signature model constructed in this study was validated in both TCGA and GEO datasets, additional data is still needed to ensure its reliability and replicability. Although we validated the gene functions of the constructed risk model through in vitro experiments, its specific mechanism still requires further study. Furthermore, the response of high- and low-risk groups to immunotherapy must be supported by clinical data, and how AAM alters TME also must be clarified experimentally.

Conclusions

This newly proposed AAM signature is a comprehensive and important biomarker for predicting OS and PFS in patients with HNSCC and could provide novel insights into effective therapeutic strategies. Additionally, the profile shows differences in HNSCC immune cell infiltration, immune function, and TME, and will be a useful predictive tool to identify patients who could benefit from appropriate immunotherapy.

Data availability statement

The raw data of this study are derived from the TCGA database and the GEO data portal (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo; Accession number: GSE65858), which are publicly available databases.

Ethics statement

The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Hubei Cancer Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology (approval number KYLLB2017002). The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

Author contributions

WL was the principal investigator. WL and ZZ conducted statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript. XX and MW performed data management and bioinformatics analysis. ZM edited and revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fonc.2022.996222/full#supplementary-material
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