Tumour immunology I

Problem with tumour	Evidence of immune system function	
- Tumours result from uncontrolled growth of self-tissue	- Lymphoid infiltrates found in tumours + tumours more	
- The immune system is programmed to be self-tolerant	frequent in immunosuppressed individuals	
	 In vitro T-cells respond to tumour cells 	

Mechanisms of immune recognition & prevention of cancer

Control of tumorigenic infections

- Epstein-Barr virus: widespread in human, latent infection for life & normally controlled by immune system
 - Infection of B-lymphocytes present antigen to CTL >> kill infected B-lymphocytes
 - APCs present antigens to Th >> production of Abs to eliminate extracellular antigens
- EPV can cause lymphoma, often associated immune suppression
 - NO effective T-cell responses >> infected B-cells are not killed >> oncogenic gene translation creates B-cell tumour

Types of virally induced cancers in immunosuppressed individuals

- Transplantation & autoimmune patients usually take drugs to suppress their immune system >> immunosuppresseds
- AIDs/transplantation can develop multiple types of tumours caused by multiple viruses
- Kidney transplant patient: 50 100 relative risk of developing Kaposi's sarcoma, whereas only 1 2 relative risk of developing lung cancer c.f. healthy individuals

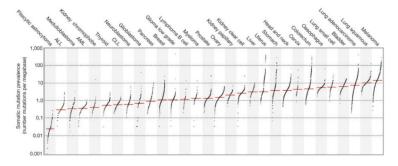
ause of immunodeficiency	of immunodeficiency common tumor types viruses involved		nunodeficiency common tumor types viruses involve		Relative risk for kidney trans	plant patient
inherited immunodeficiency	lymphoma	EBV	Tumour type	Relative risk		
immunosuppression for	lymphoma	EBV	Kaposi' s sarcoma	50-100		
organ transplants or due to	cervical cancer	papilloma viruses	Non-Hodgkin lymphoma	25-45		
AIDS	skin cancer liver cancer	probably papilloma viruses hepatitis B and C viruses	Liver carcinoma	20-35		
	Kaposi's sarcoma	human herpes virus 8	Skin carcinoma	20-50		
			Cervical carcinoma	2.5-10		
malaria	Burkitt's lymphoma	EBV	Melanoma	2.5-10		
autoimmunity	lymphoma	EBV	Lung cancer	1-2		

Evidence for existence of tumour antigen:

- a. Immunise mice with **irradiated** tumour cells (type A) that cannot divide to causing cancer BUT still introduce tumour antigens to the mice
- b. Inject viable tumour cells into the mice with type A or type B >> mice is resistant to type A tumour but NOT type B

Types of tumour antigens – foreign or mutated

 Products of mutated genes: cancers typically carry many mutations (1000+) that are often associated with oncogenes controlling cell growth – Ras, Bcr/Abl, p53 & Myc >> mutated p53 is expressed by 50% of human tumours >> 'altered self' proteins hence immunogenic



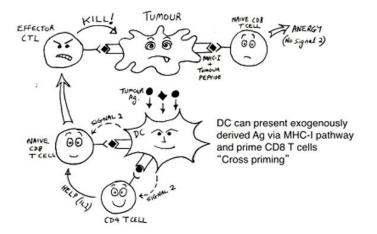
of mutations per megabase of DNA:

- Leukemia: low number of mutations
- Melanoma: high number of mutations
- Products of oncogene virus: oncogenic virus-derived proteins >> e.g. E6 & E7 proteins from HPV16 common to HPVinduced tumours AND EBNA-1 protein from EBV common to EBV-induced lymphomas >> 'foreign' proteins hence VERY immunogenic
- Altered glycolipid/glycoprotein antigens: abnormal forms/levels >> e.g. MUC-1 glycoprotein is altered form expressed by breast carcinoma AND GM2 & GM3 glycolipids are overexpressed in melanoma >> immunogenic to immune cells that are able to recognise glycolipid/glycoprotein – NKT cells

Types of tumour antigens – unmutated

- 4. Aberrantly expressed antigens: cancers overexpress antigens that are normally silent in adult tissue >> e.g. MAGE, MART & NY-ESO1 antigens that are expressed during development but not in adult melanocyte tissue, however re-expressed in adult tissue during melanoma >> these antigens often expressed in testes collectively named C/T (cancer/testes) antigens
- 5. Tissue specific differentiation antigens: cancers overexpress molecules that are normally present on cells of origin >> e.g. CD20 & CD30 are expressed on mature & activated B-cells respectively BUT also on B-cell cancers >> treatment: rituximab (anti-CD20) is used for B-cell leukemia/lymphoma in combination with chemotherapy double survival rate

Adaptive immunity to tumours:



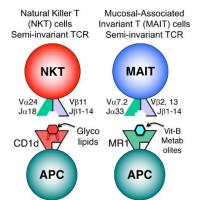
T-cells:

- a. CTL is the main player in anti-tumour response & directly recognise tumour antigens presented on MHC-I > without signal 2, CTL becomes anergic
- b. Tumour cells shed antigens that are picked up by DCs >>
 1. Cross-presenting to CTL via MHC-1 + providing signal 2
 2. Provide to Th via MHC-2 >> releasing IL2 & IFN-gamma cytokines + can also release TNF & LT tumoricidal cytokines >> help CTL
- c. Effector CTL lyse tumour cells

B-cells: 1. Activation of NK cells: Abs bind to tumour antigen >> Fc region of Ab recognised by FcR – CD16 on NK cells >> ADCC (antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity) 2. Activation of complement cascade 3. Ab blockage of key receptors

NK cells:

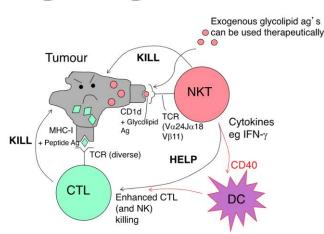
- Stimulatory receptors: FcR (CD16), CD2 & NKG2D
 - NKG2D can recognise stressed cells that express stress ligands MIC-A, RAE-1 & ULBP >> activate NK cells in the presence of MHC-1
- Inhibitory receptors: MHC-1 binding receptors KIR (killer cell Ig-like receptors), NKG2A (human) & Ly49 (mice)



Unconventional T-cells:

- **NKT** cells: **semi-invariant** TCR with **fixed** $V\alpha 24 \& J\alpha 18$ α -chain >> recognise glycolipids presented via MHC-class 1 like molecule **CD1d**
 - **MAIT** cells: **semi-invariant** TCR with **fixed** V α 7.2 & J α 33 α -chain >> recognise VitB **metabolites** presented via MHC-class 1 like molecule MR1 >> up to 40% MAIT cells in some tissue

NOTE: **CD1d** & **MR1** are non-polymorphic Ag-presenting molecules >> everyone has same **CD1d** & **MR1** >> recognised by all people



NKT cells:

- Express αβ TCR & NK1.1 molecules >> recognise glycolipids presented via CD1d >> exogenous glycolipids added to enhance patient's responses of NKT cells
- Express CD40 enhance DC maturation
- Potent cytokine production IFNγ, TNF, IL-4 & IL-17 >> provide helps for NK & CTL in vivo
- Kill tumours in a perforin-dependent manner in vitro

NOTE: in vivo, NTK cells have been shown to enhance tumour protection

Diagnosis tool: NKT <u>contributes</u> to the <u>surveillance</u> & <u>represents</u> one of the most important prognosis factors</u> to determine if the patient is going to progress or remain stable with **chronic lymphocytic leukemia**

Mechanisms of tumour escape

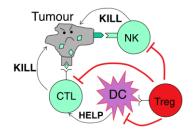
Mechanisms by which tumors avoid immune recognition					
Low immunogenicity	Tumor treated as self antigen	Antigenic modulation	Tumor-induced immune suppression	Tumor-induced privileged site	
No peptide:MHC ligand No adhesion molecules No co-stimulatory molecules	Tumor antigens taken up and presented by APCs in absence of co-stimulation tolerize T cells	T cells may eliminate tumors expressing immunogenic antigens, but not tumors that have lost such antigens	Factors (e.g.,TGF-β, IL-10, IDO) secreted by tumor cells inhibit T cells directly. Expression of PD-L1 by tumors	Factors secreted by tumor cells create a physical barrier to the immune system	
T cell CD28 LFA-1 TCR tumor	T cell DC	T cell apoptosis			

Antigenic modulation:

- Tumours tend to genetically unstable: lose antigens by mutation OR generate escape mutants that evade recognition >> may kill 99.9% cancer cells BUT one loses its antigen hence survived from immunotherapy AND reproliferate
- Tumours lose MHC-I allele: very common with colon cancer more than 50% colon cancer tumours lose one or more MHC-I allele >> if lose all MHC-1 molecule, may become NK targets >> if lose only some MHC-1, may evade CTL & NK

Tumour-induced immunosuppression:

- Tumours produce **immunosuppressive factors**:
- 1. TGF-beta: first identified in the culture supernatant of a tumour AND suppresses cell-mediated immunity
- 2. IL-10: produced by a range of tumours including melanoma & B lymphoma AND reduces DC activity & suppresses antigen presentation
- 3. **PD-L1**: produced by a range of tumours including melanoma, renal & ovarian AND binds to **PD1** on T/B/NK cells to inhibit their action & associated with poor outcome
- Recruit T-reg cells:



- CD25+, CD4+ & FoxP3+ >> function via the production of TGF-beta & IL-10 that suppress immune response for DC, CTL & NK cells
- **Treg** often found at **high frequency** in tumour infiltrates >> elimination of Treg can promote **spontaneous** tumour rejection

Three Es of tumorigenesis

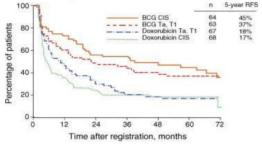
- Elimination: when a tumour arises in a tissue, a number of immune cells can recognise & eliminate them
- Equilibrium: variant tumour arises that are more resistant to being killed AND over time, a variety of different variants develop >> people may stay in equilibrium stage without realising it & can be transferred from organ donor to recipient
- Escape: one variant may escape the killing mechanism or recruit Tregs to protect it >> spread unchallenged

Tumour immunology II

Immunotherapy

Origin of immunotherapy:

Bladder Cancer patients – time to treatment failure



- William Coley noticed cancer remission after bacterial infection >> inject bacterial extracts into tumours >> sporadically induced tumour rejection >> caused an adjuvant like effect that initiated/enhanced immune response
- A similar form BCG (Bacillus Chalmette Guerin) is used to treat bladder cancer >> enhance immunity via TLR >> patients have a better survival rate

Tumour immunotherapy:

Preventative immunotherapy - anti-viral vaccines

- Many tumours are virally induced >> vaccine prevents infection of those viruses >> e.g. Gardasil – HPV vaccine

Antibody based immunotherapy

- Monoclonal Ab generated against tumour antigens to be injected to kill tumours
- Either alone or coupled to reagents that kill target: 1. mAb alone block important growth receptors OR activate FcR of NK cells 2. mAb-toxin conjugate Ricin gets internalised by the tumour & kills it 3. mAb-radioisotope conjugate deliver local radiation near the tumour >> advantage: kill the escape mutant neighbouring tumour
- Challenges: 1. Specificity of Ab >> not bind to non-tumour cells 2. Penetration of large tumour mAb therapy is most effective for liquid tumours 3. Instability of tumours constantly modulate its antigens 4. Limited knowledge of dominant tumour antigens
- Examples:
 - Rituximab (anti-CD20): kill CD20 expressed by non-hodgkin's B lymphoma & B leukemias >> twice survival over 8 yrs c.f. control group
 - Trastuzumab/Herceptin (anti-HER2): kill human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 expressed by 25% breast cancer associated with poorer prognosis, as those breast cancer replies on HER2 to receive growth signal allowing them to grow >> cell cycle arrest: blocks EGF driven tumour growth
 - Brentuximab/Adcetris (anti-CD30): kill CD30 expressed by many lymphoma cells >> Antibody-drug conjugate component Vedotin targets microtubule formation killing dividing cells >> 94% of 102 patients with hodgkin's B lymphoma had tumours shrink AND 73% objective response partial/complete remission

Cytokine based immunotherapy

Many cytokines have been used for tumour therapy

IL12	Melanoma	Increase NK & CTL activities
IL2	Melanoma, colon & renal cancer	Increase NK & T activities
IFN-alpha	Melanoma, lymphoma & renal cancer	Increase NK activities & MHC-I
TNF	Melanoma, malignant ascites & sarcoma	Increase macrophage & lymphocytes activities

- Problems: 1. Toxic when used systematically 2. Limited success rate – IL2 gives 10% success 3. Short half-life

Immunisation with tumour cells/antigens

- **Approach**: immunise with 1. Killed tumour cells 2. Purified tumour Ag + adjuvants like **BCG** 3. Tumour Ag loaded on patient's DCs
- Results: 1. Prophylactic works in animal model prior to tumour exposure 2. Therapeutic less effective with
 established tumours 3. Ongoing in many clinical trials with variable success 4. If delivery or better adjuvants known, it
 may enhance its effects
- Problems: 1. Dominant tumour Ag may be underrepresented in whole tumour population 2. Dominant tumour Ag may be patient specific MHC-restricted Ag presentation e.g. MAGE1 only in HLA-A1 patients 3. Antigen modulation outgrowth of escape mutants 4. Risk of autoimmunity due to non-tumour Ag in preparation immunised with certain self cells that may cause autoimmunity e.g. vitiligo, destruction of normal melanocytes

Immunisation with immunogenically enhanced, viable tumour cells

- Alternative approach: isolate tumour cells & transfect with immunogenic molecules
- Examples:
 - B7 (CD80) transfected-tumour cells able to activate tumour specific naïve T-cells to generate effector CTL that 1.
 Firstly, reject B+ transfected tumour cells 2. Then, reject the original B- tumour cells
 - Cytokine GMCSF transfected tumour cells GMCSF is a powerful cytokine of recruiting DCs to present tumour Ag to immune system >> more effective than B7 transfected tumour cells
 - Other cytokines transfected tumour cells tested enhance cell mediated immunity BUT limited success

Adoptive cell therapy

- Method: 1. Isolate tumour infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL) from tumour 2. Expand in culture with IL-2 & TCR stimulation 3.
 Select tumour specific CTL on IFN-gamma ELISA after reacting CTL with tumour antigen (more IFN-gamma produce if CTL is specific) AND enrich tumour specific CTL 4. Precondition chemotherapy to reduce the endogenous immune cells allowing space for the transferred T-cells to expand 5. Transfer back to the patients
- Results: dramatic improvement 50% partial/complete response with metastatic melanoma in the absence of radiations

Adoptive CAR T-cell therapy

- Method: 1. T-cells infected with retrovirus containing CAR (chimeric antigen receptor) genes to express modified tumour-Ag specific Ab receptor that is fused to intracytoplasmic T-cell signalling domain (CD3zeta) & costimulatory domains (CD28) 2. Expand in vitro >> transfer back to the patients
- Results:
 - Serial killer, capable of potent tumour destruction with possible lethal side effects (2 patients died due to toxicity) >> effective in both established & metastatic tumour
 - Clinical trials: 1. most effective on CD19 antigen of B cell with acute lymphocytic leukemia 90% remission with chemotherapy-resistant patients >> less effective with solid cancers

Checkpoint blockade inhibitors

- Method:
- 1. Anti-CTLA-4: Ipilumumab/Yervoy, CTLA-4 upregulated after T-cell activation & binds B7.1/7.2 more avidly than CD28 to deliver inhibitory signals to activated T-cells >> Anti-CTLA-4 is the frontline therapy for metastatic melanoma
- Anti-PD1: Nivolumab/Pembrolizumab, PD-1 (55kDa member of Ig superfamily) upregulated after T-cell activation & binds PD-L1/2 of tumour cells to receive inhibitory signals >> approved treatment for melanoma
- Results:
 - Much better c.f. conventional chemotherapy
 - After 4 doses of Anti-CTLA-4 within the first year, it gives **20%** long-term survival in melanoma
 - Combination of Anti-PD1 & Anti-CTLA-4 is more effective than Anti-CTLA-4 alone for melanoma
- Side effects:
 - Combination of Anti-PD1 & Anti-CTLA-4 gives **91%** adverse effects with **54%** experiencing severe adverse effects

Tumour immunology III

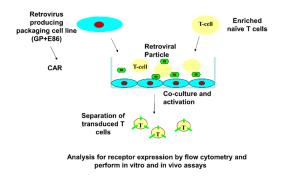
History of adoptive immunotherapy

- Demonstrated that the transfer of LN cells or solenocytes could mediate some responses against sarcoma >> however, those responses are ONLY achieved against early & small tumour AND those cells are non-specific
- Steven Rosenberg observed **tumour regression** with **infection** near tumour >> **intratumoral** injection of **BCG** is effective
- In 1980's, the discovery of IL-2 allowed adoptive immunotherapy investigation using cultured lymphocytes:
 - Lymphokine activated killer (LAK) cells & IL-2 could inhibit 3-day lung metastases of methylcholanthrene (MCA) induced tumours >> LAK cells are taken from blood not specific
 - Tumour infiltrating lymphocyte (TIL) & IL-2 could eradicate established lung/liver metastases of MC38 colon adenocarcinoma
- 1985 2004: adoptive transfer of cultured lymphocyte + IL2 gives 30% response & 7% complete responses on melanoma
- 2004 2006: response rate increased to 50% by prior non-myeloablative conditioning on melanoma
- 2006 2017: response rate increased to 70% with deeper precondition chemotherapy + whole body radiation on melanoma

Adoptive immunotherapy using gene-engineered cells

- Normally, cannot isolate enough endogenous tumour-specific lymphocytes >> genetical modification to generate large number of CAR-T-cells
 - First generation CAR: Ab receptor + T-cell signalling domain >> not effective
 - Second generation CAR: Ab receptor + T-cell signalling domain + costimulatory domains
 - Second generation CAR: Ab receptor + T-cell signalling domain + 2 costimulatory domains >> little activity

Retroviruses as gene vehicles:



- Co-culture retrovirus-producing packaging cell line & naïve T-cells >> activate T-cells with IL-2 & TCR stimulation
- 2. Separation of transduced T-cells that expresses CAR
- 3. Analysis for receptor expression by
 - a. Flow cytometry
 - b. In vitro & vivo assays
 - c. Live cell microscopy
- T-cell flashes green upon calcium influx caused by recognition
- Tumour cell flashes red upon apoptosis when perforin pores form

CAR T-cell trial on Acute Myeloid Leukaemia:

- 5-year survival < 10%, new cases USA is 12,000 per year & located in marrow & blood
- CAR T-cells: humanised scFv Ab with affinity 4.19x10^6 M
- Targeting the Lewis-Y tumour-associated antigen: Lewis-Y is a fucosylated carbohydrate on a variety of proteins & lipids >> expression associated with poor prognosis >> overexpression on approximately 60% carcinoma (good target for solid cancer) AND 10% of AML & myelomas >> expression to varying degrees on some cells in normal tissues
- Clinical protocol:
 - Phase I clinical trial on 5 AML patients, selection based on their Lewis-Y expression received 5x10^8 1.3x10^9 Tcells, including 10% cells labelled with indium-111, with preconditioning by chemotherapy drug fludarabine
 - Primary objective safety AND Secondary objective cell persistence + trafficking, serum cytokines & anti-cancer activity
- Results:
 - Well tolerised either NO or minor adverse effects
 - Biological responses observed in AML patients due to the persistence of T-cells reflected from qPCR measurements
 - Traffic to diseases sites reflected from indium-111 & qPCR demonstrating that CAR T-cells travel to the site of metastatic tumour

Checkpoint blockade therapy

- Effective in VERY immunogenic cancers high level of T-cells >> melanoma (objective response 28%), non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) (OR 18%) & renal cancer (OR 27%)
- Not effective in prostate & colon cancers low level of T-cells

Combination therapy

Anti-CTLA-4 & anti-PD-1:

- Anti-CTLA-4 & anti-PD-1 work in different ways >> Enhanced immune activity c.f. either therapy alone >>
 immune related toxicities increased
 - Anti-CTLA-4 increases the priming of T-cells in the lymph nodes
 - Anti-PD-1 increases the activation of T-cells at the tumour sites >> high level of T-cells required to be present at the tumour site for effective responses

CAR T-cells & anti-PD-1:

- CAR T-cells & anti-PD-1 enhance regression of tumour c.f. either therapy alone
- For patients who are resistant to CAR T-cells, injection of anti-PD-1 can reactivate those T-cells again
- Except inhibitory Rs, T-cells also have stimulatory Rs like 4-1BB or OX40 >> can be targeted by CAR T-cells