

Chapter 1

Overview of Basic Immunology for Clinical Investigators

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Abstract Tumor exists as a complex network of structures with an ability to evolve and evade the host immune surveillance mechanism. The immune milieu which includes macrophages, dendritic cells, natural killer cells, neutrophils, mast cells, B cells, and T cells are found in the core, the invasive margin, or the adjacent stromal or lymphoid component of the tumor. The immune infiltrate is heterogeneous and varies within a patient and between patients of the same tumor histology. The location, density, functionality, and the cross talk between the immune cells in the tumor microenvironment influence the nature of immune response, prognosis, and treatment outcomes in cancer patients. Therefore, an understanding of the characteristics of the immune cells and their role in tumor immune surveillance is of paramount importance to identify immune targets and to develop novel immune therapeutics in the war against cancer. In this chapter, we provide an overview of the individual components of the human immune system and the translational relevance of predictive biomarkers.

Keywords Adaptive • CTLA-4 • Immune checkpoints • Tumor immunotherapy • Innate • PD-1 • T cells

The human immune system is an elaborate and dynamic network of cells that work together to defend the human body against attacks by foreign agents including malignant cells. There are two levels of immunity: the innate immunity and the adaptive immunity. The innate immunity constitutes the first line of defense against pathogens, which includes the anatomic and physiologic barriers, phagocytic leukocytes, dendritic cells (DC), natural killer (NK) cells, and the circulating plasma proteins [1]. Elie Metchnikoff, a pathologist and Father of natural immunity, was

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the first to describe the concept of leukocyte recruitment and phagocytosis of microorganisms [2]. The adaptive immune system is a more versatile mechanism of defense provided by the B lymphocytes and the T lymphocytes, which has been attributed to Paul Ehrlich, the physicist who described the side-chain theory of antibody formation [3]. The innate and adaptive immune systems are distinct but interactive components of the human immune system that collectively contribute to the defense operations against foreign proteins [4]. In this chapter, we will discuss the fundamental components of the immune system and their development, how innate immunity interfaces with adaptive immune responses to eliminate tumor cells, and the development of immunotherapeutic strategies to combat cancer.

1.1 Innate Immune System

An association between inflammation and tumorigenesis has long been described, but has been established with the turn of the century [5]. The human body is constantly exposed to a highly diverse world of foreign proteins every day, which are rapidly eliminated in a normal healthy individual by the components of the innate immune system. Speed is the essence of innate immune response; however, they are nonspecific in nature, of limited duration, and lack immunologic memory [6]. Traditionally, the cellular components of the innate immune system, which includes the macrophages, neutrophils, eosinophils, basophils, mast cells, NK cells, and DCs, are associated with elimination of microbial agents and activation of the more efficient, antigen-specific adaptive immune response in the event of failure [4, 6]. And, the humoral elements of the innate immune system that includes the complement proteins and C-reactive protein are considered as a regulator of inflammatory process [4]. However, accumulating evidence suggests that the innate and adaptive immune system, triggered by the tumor antigens, play a significant role in the recognition and elimination of malignant cells as well [7]. In the process, several noxious reactive chemicals, cytokines, and chemokines are released, which damages the surrounding healthy tissue [8]. The inflammatory microenvironment also induces genomic instability and enhances rate of molecular alterations [9]. The resultant process of repeated cell renewal and proliferation sets the stage for chronic inflammation that produces a microenvironment conducive for malignant transformation of cells [10]. For this reason, tumors are sometimes described as “wounds that do not heal” [11].

1.1.1 Cellular Components of the Innate Immune System

All the cells of the immune system originate from the pluripotent hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) in the bone marrow. The HSCs divide to produce the common lymphoid progenitor (CLP) and the common myeloid progenitor (CMP) cells.

The CLP gives rise to the T and B lymphocytes that are responsible for adaptive immunity, and the NK cells; while, the CMP give rise to the cells of the innate immune system, leukocytes (neutrophils, monocytes, basophils, and eosinophils), mast cells, DCs, erythrocytes, and the megakaryocytes.

1.1.1.1 Leukocytes

The primary function of the leukocytes is to protect the body against invading microorganisms. However, microenvironmental factors at the site of inflammation produces substantial changes in the phenotype and functional status of individual cells that favor initiation and progression of tumor [12, 13].

Neutrophils

They account for 50–70% of circulating leukocytes [14] and form the indispensable first line of defense against pathogenic microorganisms. They originate from the CMP cells in the bone marrow in response to several cytokines including granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) and granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) [14, 15]. They circulate in the blood as dormant cells and are recruited to sites of infection by specific chemokines, cytokines, and cell adhesion molecules [16]. The microbes are then taken up by the process of phagocytosis and destroyed by high concentrations of microbicidal granules or by respiratory burst associated with production of highly toxic reactive oxygen species in the pathogen-containing vacuole [14]. In addition, the activated neutrophils, upregulates the production of cytokines [including tumor necrosis factor- α , interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-1R α , IL-12, and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)] and chemokines (including IL-8) critical for chemotaxis and recruitment of additional neutrophils, macrophages, and T cells [17, 18].

Beyond the classical role of professional phagocytes, neutrophils play a significant role in tumor biology [1, 19]. Neutrophils are recruited to the tumor microenvironment (TME) through local production of chemokines such as IL-8, macrophage inflammatory protein-1 α (MIP-1 α /CCL3), and human granulocyte chemotactic protein-2 (huGCP-2/CXCL6) [20]. Tumor-associated neutrophils (TANs) are markedly different from naïve neutrophils. TANs exhibit dual conflicting roles at the molecular level [20]. They either take up an antitumorigenic (N1) versus a protumorigenic (N2) phenotype [14, 21]. In untreated tumors, the regulatory cytokine transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β) in the tumor cells drives the differentiation of TANs towards N2 phenotype [13]. These neutrophils locally produce neutrophil elastase (ELA2) [22], oncostatin M [23], and alarmins S100A8/9 [24] that promotes proliferation, survival, metastasis, and resistance of tumor cells to chemotherapy. In addition, N2 TANs promote immunosuppression and tumor progression by releasing growth-stimulating signals, angiogenic factors, and matrix-degrading enzymes [13, 20, 25]. Neutrophils thus assume multiple roles in development and

progression of tumor cells [26]. However, under certain conditions such as TGF- β blockade, TANs assume an N1 phenotype, which are more cytotoxic due to enhanced expression of immune-activating cytokines and chemokines, and lower levels of arginase [13]. N1 TANs also communicate with DCs to trigger an adaptive immune response [27]. In addition, they facilitate intratumoral CD8+ T-cell infiltration and activation through production of chemokines (like CCL3, CXCL9, and CXCL10) and pro-inflammatory cytokines (i.e., IL-12, TNF- α , GM-CSF, and VEGF) [28]. This phenotype has the potential to inhibit progression of the tumor, indicating the possibility of immunostimulation through TGF- β blockade [13]

Monocytes and Macrophages

Monocytes are derived from the CMP cells. They are large, mononuclear cells that account for 5–7% of circulating leukocytes. These monocytes migrate into the tissues, where they differentiate rapidly and mature into distinct macrophages depending on tissue of activation, the Langerhans cells in the epidermis, Kupffer cells in the liver, and microglial cells in the central nervous system [29]. Macrophages perform many functions. Primarily, they engulf and destroy the invading microorganisms. They also release cytokines and chemokines to recruit other cells of the immune system to the site of inflammation. Macrophages also induce expression of co-stimulatory molecules on the antigen-presenting cells (APCs) to initiate adaptive immune response and help in the disposal of pathogens destroyed by adaptive immune response [2].

Similar to TANs, monocytes are attracted to the TME by tumor-derived chemokines such as CCL2, CCL5, CCL7, and CCL8 or cytokines such as VEGF, platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), TGF- β , GM-CSF, and M-CSF [30–33], where they differentiate into tissue-resident macrophages [34]. The tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) assume either antitumorigenic M1 phenotype (classically activated) or pro-tumorigenic M2 phenotype (alternatively activated) reflecting the functional plastic nature of these cells [35]. The cytokine profile of the TME plays a central role in the phenotype orientation of the differentiating macrophages [36]. In general, M-CSF, TGF- β , and IL-10, the principal cytokines present in the TME strongly inhibits IL-12 production and NF- κ B activation in TAMs [37]. This skews the differentiation of monocytes to macrophages M2 phenotype, characterized by IL-12^{low} IL-10^{high} [30, 38]. These macrophages migrate to hypoxic areas within the tumor and promote tumor progression by inducing angiogenesis through expression of factors such as VEGF, angiopoietins, pro-angiogenic cytokines, and IL-1; remodeling of stromal matrix by producing a variety of matrix metalloproteinases (MMP) such as MMP1 and MMP9; and by suppressing adaptive immunity through production of prostaglandins, IL-4, IL-6, IL-10, TGF- β , indoleamine dioxygenase (IDO) metabolites, and induction of T regulatory (Treg) cells [33, 38]. This enables the tumor cells to escape into surrounding stroma and ultimately metastasize to distant sites. However, classical macrophage activation occurs under certain conditions, for example, in the presence of GM-CSF, microbial products, lipopolysaccharides

(LPS), or interferon- γ (IFN- γ), where TAMs are educated to assume the more cytotoxic, antigen presenting, IL-12^{high} IL-10^{low} M1 phenotype [33]. They kill microbes and tumor cells by producing copious amounts of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-12 and IL-23, toxic intermediates—nitric oxide, reactive oxygen intermediates (ROI), and TNF [30, 33]. The cytokines also initiate T-helper 1 (Th1) adaptive immunity. Though high macrophage content is often correlated with poor patient prognosis in breast [39, 40], bladder [41], endometrial [42], and cervical cancers [43], TAMs in tumor tissue confer survival advantage to patients with prostate cancer [44] and colon cancer [45]. Pharmacological skewing of macrophage polarization from M2 to M1 phenotype is likely to provide therapeutic benefit to cancer patients.

Eosinophils

Eosinophils are derived from the CMP cells, and they constitute less than 5% of circulating leukocytes [2, 46]. Traditionally, eosinophils are associated with host defense against large, multicellular parasitic helminths and fungi with allergic conditions [47]. Eosinophils express a number of receptors such as chemokine receptors, cytokine receptors, immunoglobulin (Ig) receptors, Toll-like pattern recognition receptors, and histamine receptors [48]. Engagement of these receptors causes the release of highly cytotoxic proteins, such as major basic protein, eosinophil-derived neurotoxin or eosinophil peroxidase (EPO), pro-inflammatory cytokines and growth factors (IL-2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -10, -12, and -13, IFN- γ , TNF- α , GM-CSF, TGF- α/β), chemokines, including RANTES (CCL5), eotaxin-1 (CCL11), CXCL5, and lipid mediators (platelet-activating factor and leukotriene C4) from the large, highly cytotoxic, secretory cytoplasmic granules at the sites of allergic inflammation [48, 49].

In addition, eosinophils are found in the tumor-infiltrating area [1]. Tumor-associated tissue eosinophilia has been associated with improved patient outcomes in a variety of solid tumors including colorectal cancer [50], oral squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) [51], laryngeal, and bladder carcinoma [52]. Though an understanding of the function of eosinophils in cancer has remained elusive, it has become apparent that eosinophils express major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II and co-stimulatory molecules [CD40, CD28/86, cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4)] [53, 54], whereby they function as APCs and initiate antigen-specific immune responses by the T cells [55]. Kinetic studies have demonstrated that chemotactic factors such as eotaxins and damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), high mobility group box 1 (HMGB1) released by necrotic tumor cells, preferentially induces eosinophilic migration to tumors [56, 57] prior to infiltration by CD8+ T cells [58]. Tumor-associated tissue eosinophils in its active form release chemokines such as CCL5, CXCL9, and CXCL10 that attracts CD8+ T cells to the tumor [59]. Tumor-associated tissue eosinophilia in the presence of tumor-specific CD8+ T cells produces significant changes in the TME such as polarization of TAM to M1 phenotype and vascular normalization of the tumor, resulting in increased T-cell infiltration, enhanced tumor rejection, and improved patient survival [58].

Basophils

They originate from the CMP cell in the bone marrow and are released into circulation as mature cells [2]. They account for less than 1% of circulating leukocytes and were therefore considered redundant to mast cells functionally till about 15 years ago [60]. Basophils travel to the sites of allergic inflammation and microbial assault in response to cytokines and chemokines released locally [60]. IgE-mediated activation of basophils induces proliferation and rapid release of several inflammatory mediators such as histamine, leukotriene C4, prostaglandins, and significant amount of IL-4 and IL-13 [61]. IL-4 and IL-13, released within an hour of stimulation, serve as chemoattractants for other immune cells and direct the differentiation of naïve T cells towards Th2 phenotype resulting in Th2 (allergic)-type immune responses in an IgE-dependent and IgE-independent manner [62, 63]. Further, basophils express CD40 ligand, which on binding with CD40 on B cell, induces transformation of B cells to plasma cells and promotes production of IgE antibodies [63].

Though the role of basophils in tumorigenesis has not been clearly understood, it is believed that basophils promote neoplastic angiogenesis [64]. Basophils express Angiopoietin-1 and Angiopoietin-2 messenger RNAs in the cytoplasmic vacuoles, and VEGFR-2 and Tie-1 receptors on the cell surface. And, activation of basophils releases pro-angiogenic factors VEGF-A and VEGF-B through a cross talk between the basophils and the mast cells, contributing to neoplastic angiogenesis. Further, the correlation between basophils in the tumor-draining lymph node with Th2 inflammation in patients with pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas and the emergence of basophils as an independent prognostic factor of poor survival after surgery suggests a role for basophils in tumor development and disease recurrence [65].

1.1.1.2 Mast Cells

Mast cells are tissue-based inflammatory cells of hematopoietic origin [66]. The origin of mast cell has long been debated. Recently, Qi et al. identified pre-basophil and mast cell progenitors (pre-BMP), a population of granulocyte-macrophage progenitors (GMPs) with a capacity to differentiate into basophils and mast cells while still retaining a limited capacity to differentiate into myeloid cells [67]. The pre-BMPs circulate in the blood and reach the peripheral tissue, where they get differentiated into basophils and mast cells in the presence of mutually exclusive transcription factors, C/EBP α and MITF, respectively [67]. Basophils and mast cells share many characteristics such as expression of IgE receptors, presence of same granules, and secretion of similar mediators of immune response and cytokines when stimulated. Both offer protection against parasites and are key players in the Th2 (allergic)-type immune responses [68, 69]. However, mast cells show marked differences in their histochemical, biochemical, and functional characteristics based on their phenotype and the cytokine milieu, a phenomenon called “mast cell heterogeneity” [70]. Mast cells express several surface receptors including KIT IgG receptor and Toll-like receptors (TLRs) [70]. The characteristic feature of mast cells is the

presence of dense metachromatic granules in the cytoplasm containing histamine and heparin which are explosively released on contact with allergens [71]. Tissue mast cells besides being the largest storehouse of histamine, with the exception of gastrointestinal tract and central nervous system, also contain several preformed mediators such as heparin, serotonin, tryptases, and chymases; lipid mediators; cytokines such as TNF- α/β , IFN- α/β , IL-1 α/β , IL-5, -6, -13, -16, and -18; chemokines such as IL-8 (CXCL8), I-309 (CCL1), MCP-1 (CCL2), MIP-1 α S (CCL3), MIP1 β (CCL4), MCP-3 (CCL7), RANTES (CCL5), eotaxin (CCL11), and MCAF (MCP-1); and growth factors such as SCF, M-CSF, GM-CSF, bFGF, VEGF, NGF, and PDGF [71], which are synthesized and rapidly released on activation by IgE- or IgG-dependent mechanisms. Strategic location of the mast cells at the interface between mucosal and environmental surfaces, for example, near blood vessels, nerves, glands, and beneath epithelial surfaces [68, 70], and their ability to store TNF- α in a preformed state allows mast cells to orchestrate the first response to invading pathogens [66]. Different stimuli activate different pathways resulting in different cocktail of molecules released by mast cells, which significantly influences T-cell differentiation and the subsequent adaptive immune response [66].

Increased number of mast cells found in many tumors may have a double-edged function in tumor development. Infiltration of tumor by mast cells has been associated with poor prognosis in some cancers such as prostate cancer [72], lip cancer, [73], and diffuse large B cell lymphoma [74]. This may be because intratumoral mast cells, which are a rich source of pro-angiogenic and tumor growth stimulatory mediators, stimulate or modulate angiogenesis and peritumoral mast cells, which are rich sources of tryptase and chymase, promote extracellular matrix degradation and tumor invasion, resulting in tumor progression [73, 75, 76]. On the contrary, mast cell infiltration has been associated with good prognosis in breast [77], ovarian [78], lung [79], and colorectal cancers [80]. This is due to the release of several antitumoral factors by stromal mast cells including cytotoxic endogenous peroxidase, cytokines like IL-1, IL-4, IL-6, and TNF- α that induces apoptosis of endothelial cells, chymase, which inhibits angiogenesis, and tryptase leading to tumor fibrosis [78, 81, 82]. It is therefore evident that the density and location of mast cells within the tumor samples and the cross talk between mast cells and stromal cells are better predictors of patient survival as they modulate the immune response [1].

1.1.1.3 Dendritic Cells

DCs are professional APCs that are resident in most tissues of the body and concentrated in the secondary lymphoid tissues [83]. In the steady state, they originate from the monocyte and dendritic cell progenitor (MDP) derived from the CMP cells in the bone marrow [84]. The MDPs give rise to monocytes and common DC progenitors (CDPs) in the bone marrow [85]. The CDPs give rise to pre-DCs, which migrate from the bone marrow through the blood to lymphoid and non-lymphoid tissues, where they differentiate to produce conventional DCs (cDCs). The pre-DCs lack the form and function of DCs but, with microbial or inflammatory stimuli they

develop into DCs [86]. Plasmacytoid DCs is an example of pre-DCs found in blood, thymus, bone marrow, and secondary lymphoid tissue, which produce type I IFN- α in response to viral exposure. The cDCs are broadly classified into migratory DCs and lymphoid tissue-resident DCs. The migratory DCs (Langerhans cells and dermal DCs) are immature DCs present in the peripheral tissue, which are very effective in capturing antigens. They sample the environment using several receptors including the TLRs and (NOD)-like receptors (NLRs). On encountering a pathogen, endocytosis is upregulated transiently to facilitate accumulation of large quantities of antigens by the immature DCs that are phagocytic and macropinocytic in the peripheral tissue [3]. Immature DCs are relatively inefficient in presenting the peptide-MHC complexes at the surface due to reduced formation of antigenic peptides [3], ubiquitination of MHC class II molecules in the lysosomes and poor expression of co-stimulatory ligands (CD80, CD86) [3, 87]. Shortly thereafter, functional maturation of DCs ensues triggering the antigen-presenting machinery, which is the critical link between innate and adaptive immunity [88]. Endocytosis by the DCs decreases and expression of MHC-I, MHC-II, and co-stimulatory molecules increases at the surface possibly due to cessation of ubiquitination of MHC class II molecules [87]. As a result, the mature DCs degrade the pathogen and present the antigenic peptides on MHC Class I or II molecules on the cell surface to naïve T cells, express co-stimulatory ligands (CD80, CD86) simultaneously, and migrate to the T-cell zones of the lymphoid tissue [3]. Binding of the ligands to the co-stimulatory molecules on T cells leads to activation of T cells [87]. Based on the type of pathogen and other maturation signals received, the activated T cells are educated to proliferate and differentiate to become potent effector cytotoxic T cells or helper T cells [3]. DCs can also directly present the intact antigen to activate the antigen-specific B cells [3]. The lymphoid tissue-resident DCs (CD8+ and CD8- splenic cDCs and thymic cDCs) are immature DCs uniquely located in regions where naïve T cells are activated [87]. They present the antigens in the lymphoid organ to the T cells [86]. They are likely responsible for maintaining peripheral tolerance in the steady state. Under inflammatory conditions, some DCs may arise from the CLP cells and from the monocytes [2]. An example of inflammatory DC is the tumor-necrosis factor- and inducible nitric oxide synthase-producing DCs (Tip DCs) [86].

Under normal conditions, DCs are responsible for maintaining immune tolerance to host cells [3] DCs are generally phenotypically and functionally immature in the steady state. Immature state is characterized by ubiquitination and intracellular accumulation of MHC class II molecules and low levels of co-stimulatory molecules [83]. Therefore in the absence of infections, though DCs continuously present self-antigens and nonpathogenic environmental antigens to T cells, this induces the production of Tregs instead of effector T cells. In the development of cancer, where the tumor cells are more similar to normal cells, DCs are therefore more likely to induce peripheral tolerance in the absence of inflammation. Further, other mechanisms of immune suppression such as expression of PD-L1 and PD-L2, TGF- β , and IDO inhibit DC and T-cell function facilitate escape of tumor cells from immune recognition. This may explain why vaccines did not succeed as an effective

treatment modality in cancer patients [3]. DCs are aptly called the gatekeepers of the immune system because of their ability to inspect the microenvironment, interpret the cues in the environment, and instruct the immune cells to respond quickly and appropriately between tolerogenic and immunogenic function [83].

1.1.1.4 Natural Killer Cells

NK cells are the most powerful lymphocytes of the innate immune system with robust cytotoxic activity. They originate from the CLP cells in the bone marrow and account for 15% of all the circulating lymphocytes [1]. Besides, they are located in many peripheral tissues. Though NK cells do not express antigen-specific surface receptors such as the classical membrane bound Igs of B cells or the T-cell receptor (TCR) of the T cell, they express a wide range of activating and inhibitory cell surface receptors. As the primary function of NK cells is to identify and eliminate cells that fail to produce self-MHC class I molecules, NK cells during the process of maturation, are educated to identify “missing self” through the expression of several cell surface inhibitory receptors such as killer cell inhibitory receptor-L (KIR-L), which specifically binds with MHC class I ligands [89]. Engagement of these receptors by cognate MHC class I ligands constitutively expressed in normal cells in steady-state conditions ensures self-tolerance by transducing inhibitory signals [90]. It is the absence of these MHC class I ligands on tumor cells and cells in distress as in viral infection that marks them for destruction by NK cells [89].

The effector function of NK cells is triggered by the engagement of cell surface-activating receptors including the potent NKG2D receptor, killer cell Ig-like receptors (KIR-S), TLR, and NLR that identifies non-self-infected cells and self-cells under stress by recognizing pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) [91]. However, activation of the NK cells is dependent on cellular cross talk with accessory cells such as DCs, neutrophils, macrophages, and mast cells, and/or a cytokine microenvironment that includes IL-2, IFN- α/β , IL-12, IL-15, IL-18, or IL-21 [92, 93]. The DCs, which are key partners to NK cells, lie in close proximity to the NK cells and prime the NK cells either directly by contact or by secretion of the cytokines, IFN- α , IL-2, IL-12, IL-15, or IL-18 [94]. Activated NK cells induce cytotoxicity and/or promote cytokine production [94]. NK cells kill tumor cells by releasing cytoplasmic granules containing perforin and granzymes or by expressing Fas ligand (CD95) or TNF- α -related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) that binds with death receptors on the tumor cells triggering apoptosis [95]. Tumor cells however evolve and evade destruction by NK cells [95]. A common escape mechanism used by tumor cells is the proteolytic shedding of NKG2D ligands [96]. Further, chronic stimulation of NKG2D pathway by tumor-associated expression of TGF- β and NKG2D ligands (including MHC class I homologues MICA and MICB) on the surface of tumor cells can functionally impair NKG2D pathway by inducing endocytosis and destruction of the potent-activating NKG2D receptors on NK cells [97, 98]. This results in markedly reduced expression of NKG2D on NK cells, which

promotes T-cell silencing and evasion of immune surveillance by tumor cells. Nevertheless, NK cells prosecute tumor cells through other mechanisms such as antibody-dependent cell cytotoxicity [99]. NK cells express other activating receptors such as CD16, Fc- γ receptor IIIa (FCGR3A), which binds to the Fc region of Ig [100]. This enables the NK cells to identify antibody-coated tumor cells and destroys them by releasing perforins.

At least two functional subsets of NK cells have been described based on the expression of CD56 and CD16 [101]. The CD56^{dim} CD16⁺ NK cells account for 90% of circulatory NK cells. These cells are attracted to peripheral tissues by several chemokines. They express perforin, natural cytotoxicity receptors (NCR), and KIRs. On activation, the CD56^{dim} CD16⁺ NK cells are more cytotoxic and secrete low levels of cytokines. On the other hand, CD56^{bright} CD16⁻ NK cells are primarily located in the secondary lymphoid tissue and account for less than 10% of circulatory NK cells. They lack perforin, NCR, and KIRs. On activation by IL-2, the CD56^{bright} CD16⁻ NK cells produce cytokines, mainly IFN- γ , GM-CSF, and TNF- α . However, on prolonged stimulation by IL-2, they express perforin, NCR, and KIRs and acquire cytotoxic function.

Though NK cells are traditionally characterized as cells of innate immunity, they also exhibit T-cell characteristics and are capable of mounting rapid and robust immune response on secondary exposure [102]. The immune memory function of NK cells lasts for several months after the initial exposure, is antigen specific, and transferable to naïve animals [102]. Though NK cells are potent killers with immune memory, only modest success in clinical setting has been achieved as their effectiveness has been hampered by their limited ability to infiltrate tumor cells [103]

1.2 Adaptive Immune System

The hallmark of adaptive immunity, mediated by the T lymphocytes (T cells) and B lymphocytes (B cells), is the specificity of the immune response to antigenic stimuli. Another unique feature of adaptive immunity is its ability to confer lasting immunological memory that results in more rapid and robust immune response with subsequent exposure to the same antigen [2]. Contrary to innate immune response, which is immediate in onset due to the presence of germ line-encoded cell surface receptors, the adaptive immune response is a slower process, as the lymphocytes on activation undergo clonal expansion to attain sufficient numbers before the effector cells mount an immune response [29]. There are two classes of adaptive immune response: the humoral and cell mediated. The humoral immune response is mediated by the B lymphocytes against antigens present outside the cells, in the blood and body fluids. On the other hand, the cell-mediated immune response is mediated by the T lymphocytes against intracellular pathogens presented as small antigenic determinants on MHC molecules.

1.2.1 Cellular Components of the Adaptive Immune System

The T and B lymphocytes originate from the CLP, a specialized type of stem cell originating from the pluripotent HSCs [2].

1.2.1.1 T Lymphocytes

The lymphoid progenitor cells migrate from the bone marrow to the thymus, where they undergo four stages of differentiation and proliferation, including developmental check points to ensure that cells fail to recognize antigen-MHC complexes or distinguish self-antigens do not mature [104]. As the lymphoid progenitor cells migrate through the cortex, they undergo an education program based on the constant interaction with the thymic epithelial cells [105]. The lymphoid progenitor cells does not express TCR, or CD4 or CD8 co-receptors and are therefore called CD4/CD8 double-negative (DN) lymphocytes (DN1) [106]. As they move through the cortex from the corticomedullary junction to the capsule, the lymphoid progenitor cells lose their ability to form B cells or NK cells and become committed T-cell precursors (DN2) [107]. Following T lineage commitment and expression of recombination-activating gene 1 (RAG1), the TCR β chain is rearranged and paired with the pre-T α chain, resulting in expression of pre-TCRs (DN3) [104]. Subsequently, intense proliferation results in generation of multiple thymocytes (DN4). With appropriate cytokine stimulation, they express CD8 co-receptors first and then CD4 co-receptors to become double-positive (DP) thymocytes. This is accompanied by rearrangements in the TCR α chain, which results in generation of complete $\alpha\beta$ TCRs. Then, DP thymocytes interact with TECs and further development into naïve T cells is dependent on their ability to bind with MHC class I or class II molecules associated with self-peptides [104, 108]. Approximately 90% of DP thymocytes express TCRs that fail to bind with MHC molecules, resulting in delayed apoptosis of these cells (death by neglect). Based on their interaction with MHC molecules, the DP thymocytes differentiate into single positive T cell by silencing of the transcription of one co-receptor locus [105, 109].

In the medulla, T cells are screened for reactivity against wide range of tissue-specific proteins including self-peptides expressed by the thymic medullary epithelial cells [29]. The T cells that express TCRs with high affinity for self-peptides undergo rapid apoptosis and are later cleared by thymic macrophages (negative selection). T cells that express intermediate level of TCR signaling enter into a maturation phase by the process of positive selection. The T cells that express TCRs that bind with MHC Class I molecule mature into a single positive CD8 mature T cell, while those that express TCRs that bind with MHC Class II molecule mature into a single positive CD4 mature T cell. The naïve T cells then sample the environment in the medulla for antigen-presenting DCs. On exposure to antigenic determinants presented by the APCs, the T cells are activated in the presence of co-stimulation of CD28 by B7 molecules (CD80 and CD86) on the APCs to form effector T cells

that either destroy the pathogenic agent or attract other immune cells to the site. In the absence of antigenic stimuli in the medulla, the naïve T cells enter the blood stream and travel to the peripheral lymphoid tissue and enter the paracortical region of the LN. In the tumor-draining LNs, naïve T cells are activated on encountering tumor antigen in the context of MHC molecule and co-stimulation of the constitutively expressed CD28 on the surface of T cells by B7 proteins (CD80 or CD86) expressed on the same APC [110]. This results in clonal expansion and differentiation of naïve T cells in the lymph nodes into helper T cells (CD4 T cells) and cytotoxic effector T cells (CD8 T cells), which then migrate back to the tumor and destroys the tumor cell. Depending on the cytokine milieu and the transcription factors in the tumor environment, CD4 T cells differentiate into several subtypes that includes Th1 [111], T-helper 2 (Th2) [112], T-helper 17 (Th17) [113], induced Tregs (iTregs) [114], follicular helper T cell (Tfh) [115], and T-helper 9 (Th9) [116]. The helper T cells secrete cytokines and chemokines that regulate the immune response. Th1 cells favor cellular immunity by activation of CD8 T cells to mount an immune response against intracellular pathogens, while Th2 cells favor humoral immunity by activation of B cells against extracellular parasites. On the other hand, CD8 T cells activated by antigen presentation on the MHC class I molecule or through CD4 helper T cells are directly cytotoxic. Besides, some of the activated T cells and B cells differentiate into memory cells that are responsible for the long-lasting immunological memory [117]. Subsequent exposure to the same antigen results in more rapid and robust immune response.

Regulation of T-cell response is a delicate balance between co-stimulatory and inhibitory signals that serve as immune checkpoints. Co-stimulatory receptors include CD28, ICOS, 41BB, and OX40, while CTLA-4, Tim-3, and programmed cell death 1 (PD-1) are co-inhibitory [118]. CD28 is constitutively expressed on the surface of naïve T cells. On ligand binding with B7-1 and B7-2 on APCs, they provide the essential co-stimulatory signal for T-cell activation and downstream signaling [119]. Activated T cells simultaneously express CTLA-4 and PD-1 on their surface as immune checkpoints [120, 121]. CROITLA-4 is a CD28 homologue with a higher affinity to bind with B7 molecules. On engagement, CTLA-4 blocks CD28 co-stimulation and abrogates T-cell activity and cytokine production. PD-1 is a CD28 family member and has two ligands, PD-L1 and PD-L2. PD-L1 is expressed on many cells including the tumor cells, activated B and T cells in response to IFN- γ produced by the activated T cells, while PD-L2 is expressed on macrophages and DCs [122]. Unlike CTLA-4, the PD-1 to PD-L1 ligand binding does not interfere with co-stimulation, but downregulates B and T-cell proliferation and cytokine production by interfering with signaling pathways downstream of TCRs and BCRs [123]. Under normal conditions, immune checkpoints play an important role in maintenance of peripheral tolerance and regulation of the amplitude and duration of T-cell responses [124]. There are other co-signaling receptors of the TNF receptor superfamily including 4-1BB [125], OX40 [126], and GITR [127] that synergize with TCR signaling to promote cytokine production and T-cell survival. The stimulatory effect of T cells is counterbalanced by a suppressive mechanism in order to maintain immune homeostasis. A chief contributor to this effect are the regulatory

T cells (Tregs), which are specialized T cells that suppress the function of other T cells [128]. They are classified as Natural Tregs and Inducible Tregs. Natural Tregs characterized by the expression of forkhead box P3 (FOXP3) are positively selected thymocytes with relatively high affinity for self-antigens presented on MHC class II molecules. Inducible Tregs differentiate from naïve T cells in the periphery and are characterized by the expression of immunosuppressive cytokines such as IL10 and TGF- β [114]. Decreasing the activity of Treg cells enhances both innate and adaptive immune response, which can be utilized to treat cancer [129].

1.2.1.2 B Lymphocytes

The B cells develop from the HSCs in the liver during fetal life and continue in the bone marrow in adult life [2]. The four subsets of B cell precursors that develop from the lymphoid progenitor cells, pre-pro-B cells, early pro-B cells, late pro-B cells, and pre-B cells are devoid of surface Ig [130]. In the presence of RAG 1 and 2, these cells constantly interact with the bone marrow stromal cells that provide critical growth factors, chemokines, and cytokines for B cell development. The B cell precursors undergo sequential rearrangement of the genes encoding for the heavy chain (H) [131]. The DJ rearrangement occurs in the early pro-B cells followed by VDJ rearrangements in the late pro-B cells resulting in the formation of a large pre-B cell with a complete Ig μ heavy chain in the cytoplasm [2]. The μ heavy chain combines with the surrogate light chain (L) and two invariant accessory chains Ig α and Ig β to form the pre-B cell receptor (BCR), which is transiently expressed on the surface of pre-B cells, positively selecting these cells for further development. This initiates a negative feedback loop by which it shuts down RAG expression, halts the H gene rearrangement in the pre-B cell, prevents the rearrangement of the second H (allelic exclusion), and signals the proliferation of pre-B cells. The RAG genes are re-expressed, which induces rearrangement of the genes encoding the L in positively selected pre-B cells that leads to formation of an immature B cell with the expression of a complete IgM BCR on the surface of the cell. This triggers the cessation of L gene rearrangement. As a vast repertoire of BCRs capable of recognizing a huge diversity of antigens including self-antigens are developed, the immature B cells are tested for reactivity to autoantigens before leaving the bone marrow. When immature B cells express a non-auto-reactive BCR with optimal downstream signaling, RAG expression is downregulated, which allows for positive selection of these cells to enter the spleen as transitional B cells. Whereas, immature B cells that express a non-auto-reactive BCR with low basal BCR signaling insufficient to downregulate RAG expression and immature B cells that are strongly self-reactive are negatively selected for elimination by apoptosis (clonal deletion). Alternatively, these cells may be inactivated (anergy) or may undergo receptor editing, a process by which secondary rearrangement of L leads to formation of new BCRs that are not self-reactive, which allows for subsequent positive selection of these cells for further development [132].

The immature B cells enter the spleen as transitional cells. Very few cells progress from T1 to T2 stage as most of the T1 cells undergo clonal deletion or anergy

due to strong reactivity to self-antigens that are expressed only in the peripheral tissue [133]. And, the transition from T1 to T2 cell is dependent on basal tonic BCR signaling. The T2 cells receive pro-survival signals through B cell-activating factor (BAFF)-R and differentiate into naïve B cell expressing both IgM and IgG surface receptors. Guided by the strength of BCR signal, naïve B cell differentiate into either follicular (FO) B cell with intermediate BCR signals and expression of bruton tyrosine kinase (BTK), or marginal zone (MZ) B cell with weak BCR signal and expression of NOTCH2 [133, 134]. The MZ B cells located within the splenic white pulp are resting mature B cells that do not circulate. They have limited antigen specificity and are activated by non-protein antigens such as common blood-borne pathogens independent of T cells. On activation, they rapidly develop into short-lived plasma cells secreting low affinity IgM antibodies and do not produce memory cells. The FO B cells that circulate between the blood and the spleen are located adjacent to T-cell-rich areas in secondary lymphoid organs and are activated by foreign proteins in a T-cell-dependent manner [135]. The antigens bound to membrane bound Ig are internalized by FO B cells and presented on MHC class II molecules to the CD4 helper T cells. The activated T cells express CD40L, a co-stimulatory molecule, and other cytokines required for B cell activation [2]. The activated B cells undergo clonal expansion to differentiate into plasma cells that produce large amounts of high affinity secreted antibody. Some of the activated B cells migrate into the lymphoid follicle to form a germinal center, where they undergo extensive proliferation, Ig class switching, and somatic hypermutation to generate long-lived plasma cells or memory B cells. These plasma cells leave the germinal center and migrate to the bone marrow, where they continue to produce antibodies even after elimination of the antigens. On reinfection, these circulating antibodies provide immediate protection and activate the memory cells located in the peripheral lymphoid tissue.

Immunoglobulins

Immunoglobulins are Y-shaped heterodimers composed of two identical L chains and two identical H chains [136]. The two H chains are attached to each other by multiple disulfide bonds and each L chain is attached to an H chain by a disulfide bond. Each L and H chain is divided into a variable and constant region. The variable region in each L and H chain has three complementarity determining regions (CDRs). The three CDRs in one L chain pairs with the three CDRs in the H chain in each arm of the Y to form a paratope, the antigen-binding site. Each paratope is specific for an epitope of the antigen, which determines the specificity of the Ig. The constant region of the H chain is identical for all the Igs of the same class, but different between classes. So also, all the Igs in a class have either λ or κ L chains. Proteolytic digestion with papain divides the Ig into three functional units, two antigen-binding fragments (Fab) and the crystallizable fragment (Fc). Each Fab fragment contains a complete L chain and one variable and one constant domain of H chain, which includes the antigen-binding site. The Fc fragment contains two

constant domains of the H chain. This is the effector domain of the Ig which activates the NK cells, classical complement pathway, and phagocytosis [137].

Based on the amino acid sequences in the constant region of the H chains, human antibodies are classified as IgM, IgD, IgG, IgE, and IgA [136]. Accordingly, they have diverse biologic functions. IgM is the earliest antibody expressed on the surface during B cell development, and it is the major class of Ig that is secreted on first exposure to the antigen. IgG is the major antibody in the blood that is produced in large quantities during secondary immune response and is responsible for clearance of opsonized pathogens and neutralization of toxins and viruses. IgA is the principal antibody in body secretions and contributes to nearly 50% of protein content in colostrum and protects mucosal surfaces from toxins, virus, and bacteria. Membrane-bound IgD are expressed in small amounts when the immature B cells leave the bone marrow, and they regulate the cell's activation. IgE is found in trace amounts in the blood, but it is a very potent Ig expressed during hypersensitivity or allergic reactions and parasitic infestations.

Each B cell in the body produces only one kind of antibody [137]. When a naïve B cell is activated, it proliferates and differentiates into a clone of plasma cells, which produces large amount of secreted antibodies that have the same antigen-binding site as the BCR that was activated and is specific for a single epitope. Hence, they are called monoclonal antibodies (mAb). Polyclonal antibodies are secreted by different B cell clones that bind with different epitopes on the same antigen.

Monoclonal antibodies have revolutionized the use of Igs as a therapeutic agent. However, engineering mAb is not without challenge. The first mAb engineered for human use was a murine antibody [138]. They were highly immunogenic with limited biological efficacy and very short half-life. This limitation was overcome by genetically engineering human protein formats of mAb. Chimeric mAbs that are 70% human, created by fusing murine variable region with human constant region [139]. Later, humanized mAbs that are 85–90% human, where only the CDRs are murine, were developed [140]. Currently, fully human mAbs produced by phage display are available [141]. The process of humanization has made the mAbs less immunogenic than murine mAbs. As a result, several mAbs that target growth factor receptor [such as epidermal growth factor (cetuximab), human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (trastuzumab)], TME, and tumor antigens have been approved for treatment of colorectal, breast, and lung cancer [142]. The humanness of mAbs is indicated by the nomenclature. For example, -xi- indicates chimeric mAbs (rituximab), -zu- indicates humanized (bevacizumab), and -u- indicates fully human mAb (ipilimumab).

1.3 The Immune System in Action!

1.3.1 Summary of the Immune Responses Against Tumor Cells

In the fight against cancer, greater understanding of the immunoregulatory processes of TME is critical for development of immunotherapy. The TME is complex and the immune cells present in the TME include macrophages, DCs, NK cells,

mast cells, naïve lymphocytes, B cells, cytotoxic T cells, helper T cells, memory cells, and Tregs [143].

The human immune system exhibits a dual role in cancer. Though the primary function of the immune system is to suppress tumor growth, they also shape immunogenicity and promote tumor progression through a dynamic process called cancer immunoediting [144]. This process includes three distinct phases: elimination, equilibrium, and escape. During the elimination phase (cancer immunosurveillance), the challenge lies in the ability of the immune system to recognize the subtle differences between self and transformed self of the malignant cells [145]. The tumor cells express several danger signals, such as NKG2D ligands and surface calreticulin, and produce minor disruptions in the surrounding tissue, resulting in the release of inflammatory signals such as IFN- γ , IFN- α/β , TNF, and IL-12, which recruit NK cells, DCs, and macrophages to the tumor site. This results in apoptosis and death of tumor cells. The liberated tumor antigens are then presented by the APCs on MHC molecules to T cells. This initiates tumor-specific adaptive immune response. The cytotoxic T cells interact with the Fas and TRAIL receptors on tumor cells, or secrete granzymes and perforins to induce tumor cell apoptosis. Innate and adaptive immune cells have the capacity to completely eliminate the tumor cells and halt the immunoediting process.

During the equilibrium phase, continuous interaction between immune cells and tumor cells that have escaped elimination phase prevents expansion of the tumor cells. This continuous immune pressure however selects or promotes the formation of new variants of tumor cells with reduced immunogenicity that escapes recognition by immune system [145]. This is the longest phase in the immunoediting process, when the tumor cell variants reside in a latent form before escaping eventually [146].

During the escape phase, tumor cells adopt several mechanisms to evade immunosurveillance [147]. Tumor cells downregulate expression of tumor antigens or MHC class I molecules to reduce immune recognition and antigen presentation to tumor-specific T cells, preventing activation of T cells. Tumor cells may also upregulate expression of pro-survival growth factors such as EGFR and HER2. In addition, the tumor cells frequently develop a host of immunosuppressive defense mechanisms to escape immune surveillance through a process called immune tolerance [7]. For example, tumor cells may express suppressive surface ligands, PD-L1 or PD-L2, that engage with PD-1 receptors on activated T cells resulting in T-cell exhaustion; or release immunosuppressive molecules such as IDO [148]. Under hypoxic conditions, the TME may release VEGF, which suppresses T-cell adhesion to tumor endothelium and impedes T-cell infiltration of the tumor. Similarly, TAMs in the presence of IL-4, IL-10, and TGF- β polarize to assume M2 phenotype and express high levels of IL-10 and low levels of IL-12. These macrophages suppress T-cell activity and promote angiogenesis and tumor growth [149]. In addition, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), which are immature innate immune cells in the TME, utilize various mechanisms such as expression of IL-10, TGF- β , and Tregs to produce immune suppression, resulting in tumor progression [150, 151]. As a result, immunologically sculpted tumor cells with increased resistance

emerge, resulting in uncontrolled growth of the tumor with overt clinical disease. It is therefore critical to overcome these barriers to elicit clinical response to therapeutic agents.

1.4 Cancer Immunotherapy

Immunotherapy has revolutionized cancer treatment due to its ability to produce durable responses in patients with advanced cancer. Though several immunotherapeutics including IL-2, IFN- α , and Sipuleucel-T vaccine were investigated, only small improvements in efficacy were observed. Several mAbs have also been used in the treatment of cancer [152] based on their ability to inhibit ligand binding and downstream signaling (cetuximab), target the tumor microenvironment (bevacizumab), and target immunosuppressive cytokines (GC-1008, an anti-TGF- β antibody) [153].

But, a deeper understanding of the mechanism of immune responses in TME is what led to major breakthrough in cancer immunotherapy, the discovery of immune checkpoint CTLA4, and strategies to unleash the immune harnessing power of T cells to combat cancer [154]. On activation, T cells express CTLA-4, which on binding with B7 molecules blocks co-stimulation of T cells resulting in immune suppression. Tumor cells frequently hijack these immune checkpoints to promote immune suppression and immune evasion. This observation led to the development of ipilimumab, a CTLA-4 inhibitor, which produced durable responses in about 20% of patients and considerable improvement in the overall survival (OS) of patients with metastatic melanoma, resulting in FDA-approval of the drug in 2011 [155]. The dramatic response with ipilimumab laid the foundation for exploration of other T-cell inhibitory pathways. PD-1 is another immune checkpoint, which on ligation binding with PD-L1/PD-L2 produces immune suppression. In response to immune attack, tumor cells overexpress PD-L1 and PD-L2 resulting in immune suppression. This favors immune evasion and tumor progression. Based on strong preclinical evidence, blockade of PD-1/PD-L1 pathway by mAbs produced durable responses in several tumor types [156–160]. As a result, FDA granted accelerated approval of the following checkpoint inhibitors besides ipilimumab: nivolumab for the treatment of patients with unresectable or metastatic melanoma, metastatic non-small cell lung cancer, RCC, classical Hodgkin's lymphoma, and recurrent or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck (HNSCC); pembrolizumab (PD-1 inhibitor) for metastatic non-small cell lung cancer, unresectable or metastatic melanoma, recurrent or metastatic HNSCC; and atezolizumab (PD-L1 inhibitor) for urothelial carcinoma bladder cancer and metastatic non-small cell lung cancer [161]. This offers proof of concept that checkpoint inhibition provides durable and meaningful response in a subset of patients with responsive tumors. Despite the success with checkpoint inhibitors (CTLA-4, PD-1/PD-L1 blockade), many patients are primarily resistant or develop resistance to treatment after an initial period of response [162]. Among several mechanistic approaches being investigated

in the clinic to overcome primary and secondary resistance to the immune checkpoint inhibitors, there is growing evidence that combination therapies are potentially synergistic and are far more effective than monotherapies to combat resistance mechanisms as tumors use multiple pathways to evade immune elimination [163]. Recently, FDA-approved nivolumab in combination with ipilimumab for the treatment of patients with *BRAF V600* wild-type, unresectable, or metastatic melanoma [161] IDO is another such immunosuppressive pathway exploited by tumor cells to evade immune surveillance [164]. Currently, four IDO inhibitors are under clinical development INCB024360 [165, 166], indoximod [167], IDO peptide vaccine [168], and NLG919 [169].

Further, generating a robust therapeutic immune response requires not only the release of “brakes” on T cells, but also stepping on the “gas.” T-cell co-stimulation through receptors, like OX40 or 4-1BB, provides a potent “go” signal that actively promotes the optimal “killer” CD8 T-cell responses [170]. Several ongoing clinical trials are investigating immune checkpoint therapies as single-agent or in combination with other immunotherapies, chemotherapy, targeted therapy, vaccines, or radiotherapy.

1.5 Translational Relevance

Immunotherapeutic agents have revolutionized the treatment paradigm of patients with advanced cancer. However, significant survival benefit has been observed only in a subset of patients. Biomarker-driven drug development is therefore critical, as it may help physicians to preselect patients who are most likely to derive benefit, and more importantly, spare the patients who are less likely to benefit from avoidable toxicities and cost of treatment [171]. These biomarkers are applicable across tumor types that are responsive to the therapy. Some of the important predictive biomarkers are:

1.5.1 *PD-L1 Expression*

Early phase I trials suggests that cell surface expression of PD-L1 on tumor cells in pretreatment tissue samples could serve as biomarker of response to treatment with anti-PD-1/PD-L1 therapies. In a phase I study of MDX-1106, an anti-PD-1 inhibitor, in 39 patients with advanced cancers, tumor biopsies from 9 patients were analyzed for PD-L1 expression by immunohistochemistry (IHC) [156]. Objective response was observed in 3 of 4 patients (75%) with PD-L1-positive tumors, while none of the 5 patients with PD-L1-negative tumors had a response. Similar results were observed in another phase I study of BMS-936558 (nivolumab), an anti-PD1 therapy, in which pretreatment tumor tissue from 42 patients with advanced cancer was analyzed for PD-L1 expression by IHC [172]. Nine of 25 patients (36%) with

PD-L1-positive tumors had objective response, while none of the 17 patients with PD-L1-negative tumors had a response indicating the possibility of an association between PD-L1 expression on pretreatment samples and objective response. Recently, FDA-approved expression of PD-L1 by IHC using 22C3 pharmDx as a diagnostic test for selecting NSCLC patients for treatment with pembrolizumab [173]. However, PD-L1 expression in pretreatment tumor tissue as an absolute biomarker to predict response to PD-1/PD-L1 pathway inhibitors has been questioned for various reasons. In a phase I study conducted to evaluate the safety and efficacy of MPDL3280A, an anti-PD-L1 inhibitor, ORR of 46% was reported in patients with high PD-L1 expression on pretreatment immune cells, 17% in patients with moderate PD-L1 expression, 21% in patients with minimal PD-L1 expression, and 13% in patients with absent PD-L1-expression in tumor immune cells [174]. Surprisingly, response to treatment was observed even in patients with PD-L1-negative disease. In addition, the association between PD-L1 expression and response to therapy was discordant between tumor cells and tumor immune cells. PD-L1 expression on tumor-infiltrating immune cells was significantly associated with response to MPDL3280A ($P = 0.007$), whereas PD-L1 expression on tumor cells was not significantly associated with response ($P = 0.079$). There is also marked heterogeneity in PD-L1 expression between samples from the primary and metastatic sites in the same individual [175]. Further, multiple immune assays use different PD-L1 antibody clones for IHC staining with different staining procedures and scoring patterns. As a result, there is lack of defined criteria to determine PD-L1-positive tumor. The above findings suggest that though PD-L1 expression in tumor tissue may indicate an increased likelihood of response to treatment with PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors, it may not be a definitive biomarker to exclude PD-L1-negative patients from therapy [174, 176]. Constitutively expressed PD-L1 in the tumor tissue, for example, in the context of aberrant signaling in the PI3K pathway or molecular alterations as in Hodgkin's lymphoma is associated with poor prognosis [177].

1.5.2 Intratumoral T-Cell Infiltration

There is a broad literature of evidence that infiltration of tumor tissue by T cells, specifically CD8+ T-cell density at the invasive tumor edge, is associated with improved survival in patients with melanoma, breast, ovarian, lung, renal cell, colorectal and bladder carcinoma among other solid tumors [178, 179]. On the contrary, infiltration of the tumor tissue by Tregs is associated with poor survival in ovarian, breast cancer, and hepatocellular carcinoma [180–182]. Interestingly, mismatch repair-deficient tumors are not eliminated despite strong intratumoral infiltration by CD8+ T cells and Th1 cells due to strong expression of several immune checkpoint ligands such as PD-1, PD-L1, CTLA-4, LAG-3, and IDO by the TME, which made them responsive to checkpoint blockade [183]. As a result, mismatch repair status may be predictive of response to checkpoint inhibition. Further,

multiple immune markers including total T lymphocytes (CD3), T-cell effectors (CD8), their associated cytotoxic molecule (GZMB), memory T cells (CD45RO) in the center of tumor (CT) and the invasive margin (IM) were quantified using IHC in tumors from 415 colorectal cancer patients [184]. The type, density, and location of immune cells (collectively known as immune contexture) had prognostic value. The immune cell densities in each tumor region were higher in patients without recurrence than in patients with recurrence and were predictive of disease free survival (DFS) and OS. These results were independent of the staging of the tumor indicating the role of adaptive immune response in preventing tumor recurrence. Further, presence of markers for Th1 polarization, cytotoxic, and memory cells were predictive of low recurrence rate. Similarly, flow cytometric analysis of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) and tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes is used to evaluate the effect of therapy on low-frequency immune subsets such as Tregs, and MDSCs [185].

1.5.3 Immunoscore

Immunoscore is a methodology by which in situ immune infiltrate is quantified. This supersedes the TNM classification of tumors used for estimation of the degree of progression of the tumor to make informed treatment decisions [184]. Marked variations in clinical outcomes among patients with the same stage of disease were observed with TNM classification, partly due to failure to include the tumor TME in TNM classification of tumors. On the contrary, immune contexture discussed above has better prognostic value. Therefore, immunoscore, a ratio of two lymphocyte populations, CD3/CD45RO, CD3/CD8, or CD8/CD45RO, in the CT and IM also has a strong prognostic value for DFS and OS [186]. Due to difficulty in staining methods, a combination of two markers (CD3+ and CD8+) in CT and IM has been used by the worldwide immunoscore consortium in the development and validation of immunoscore as prognostic markers in different patient populations.

1.5.4 Mutation Load and Molecular Alterations

Tumors with high mutational load such as melanoma, NSCLC, and HNSCC are more likely to respond to treatment with checkpoint inhibitors [187]. However, Snyder and colleagues described that in melanoma patients, high mutational load correlated to sustained response to CTLA-4 blockade, but not all patients with high mutational load responded to therapy [188]. Nevertheless, the presence of neoepitope signature peptides correlated strongly with OS in these patients. On the contrary, response to treatment with checkpoint inhibitors may not be seen in patients whose tumors have low mutational loads, e.g., pancreatic and prostate cancer. Also, molecular alterations in the PI3K pathway may promote tumor immune evasion

through constitutive expression of PD-L1 [189]. Assessment of PD-L1 expression in such conditions may predict response with PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors. Similarly, increased expression of VEGF promotes angiogenesis and is associated with poor prognosis [179].

1.5.5 Absolute Lymphocyte Count

In a compassionate use trial with ipilimumab in patients with advanced refractory melanoma, ALC $\geq 1000 \mu\text{L}^{-1}$ after two treatments with ipilimumab was significantly associated with clinical benefit and OS [190, 191]. Though absolute lymphocyte count (ALC) at baseline and after one dose of ipilimumab showed only a trend for improved treatment outcomes, they may be prognostic because a threshold ALC of 1000 cells/ μL^{-1} may be required for adequate activation of the immune system for patients to derive meaningful antitumor response with therapy.

Due to the dynamic nature of immune response, development of immune oncology biomarkers is challenging. To this end, immune monitoring assays have been developed to perform genomic, proteomic, and functional studies on paired tumor and blood samples obtained before and after treatment with immunotherapeutic agents [176]. It is expected that correlation of changes in these biomarkers to treatment outcomes would provide mechanistic insight into pathways of response or resistance to immunotherapeutic agents that could guide the development of biomarker-driven, synergistic, immunotherapy-based treatment combinations. In addition, biomarkers may vary depending on the mechanism of action of the immunotherapeutic agent [156, 172]. Therefore, identification of a single immunologic biomarker may not be predictive of response [176]. This indicates a need to identify multifactorial biomarker panels that would help to determine the immunogenic nature of the tumor and predict response or resistance to treatment. For example, presence of intratumoral CD8+ T cells, expression of PD-L1 on tumor cells, and increased mutational load has been associated with greater likelihood of response to PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint inhibition [171].

1.6 Conclusion

Seminal studies have described the different components of the innate and adaptive immune system. Though they are two distinct arms of the human immune system, they are intricately organized in time and space and are critically dependent upon one another. While the blockade of immune checkpoints by mAbs to unleash the potential of the antitumor immune response by T cells has now emerged as a powerful new therapeutic tool in the treatment of advanced cancer, components of the innate immune system contribute to the activation and development of adaptive immunity. Improved understanding of the interaction between the tumor cells and

the immune cells in the complex TME through rigorous molecular profiling will guide the future development of new immunotherapeutic strategies as well as the identification of potential biomarkers of clinical response.

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