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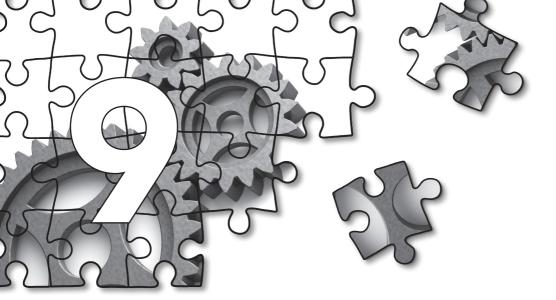


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NEW APPROACHES IN VACCINE-BASED IMMUNOTHERAPY FOR HUMAN PAPILLOMAVIRUS-INDUCED CANCER

Tetje C. van der Sluis, Sjoerd H. van der Burg, Ramon Arens, Cornelis J.M. Melief

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ABSTRACT

The identification of Human Papillomavirus as the etiological factor for cervical cancer provides an opportunity to treat these malignancies by vaccination. Although therapeutic vaccination against viral oncogenes regularly induces a specific T cell response, clinical effectivity remains low. Three factors are particularly important for clinical outcome: the balance between cytotoxic T cells and regulatory immune subsets, the balance between cytotoxic T cells and tumor cells and finally the killing efficiency of cytotoxic T cells within the tumor. To improve these three factors, therapeutic vaccination is combined with other treatments. Here, we review those studies that are based on understanding the inhibitory mechanisms that prevent unleashing the full power of therapeutic vaccine-induced T cells and utilize combinatorial interventions based on these insights.

HIGHLIGHTS

Understanding of escape from immunotherapy allows targeting of the mechanism(s)

Combination treatment must increase the level of intra-tumoral cytotoxic T cells

Conventional treatment synergizes with therapeutic cancer vaccination

INTRODUCTION

The goal of many immunotherapeutic interventions for cancer is to induce CD8⁺ cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) that can recognize and kill cancer cells expressing defined tumor-specific antigens (TSAs). Four major classes of TSAs have been characterized; differentiation antigens, overexpressed antigens, mutated antigens (neo-antigens) and viral antigens ((1), Melief, *et al.* submitted). Since central tolerance can be induced to self-antigens, therapeutic vaccinations preferably target mutated and viral antigens. Since the diversity in mutated antigens is large, therapeutic vaccination for these antigens is possible (2-4) but remains challenging (1). Viral antigens however are shared between patients and are often indispensable for the transformed state of malignant cells. Of the known human cancer viruses, most immunotherapeutic interventions, apart from adoptive T cell transfer of malignancies induced by EBV, have been conducted in premalignant disorders and cancer caused by high risk HPV. Therefore this review will focus on therapeutic interventions for treatment of high risk HPV-induced cancers.

HPV infections are associated with several malignancies, such as ano-genital cancers and a subset of head and neck cancers. Of these malignancies cervical cancer is the most prevalent with the highest morbidity rate (5). Although many subtypes of HPV have been identified, HPV16 is responsible for approximately 50% of all cervical cancers (6). The second most prevalent subtype is HPV-18, present in an additional 10-15% of all cervical malignancies (6). The two well-known HPV oncogenes E6 and E7 are constitutively expressed by HPV-associated tumors, and are critical for the induction and maintenance of cellular transformation (7), creating ideal targets for therapeutic vaccination (8, 9). Current approaches for therapeutic vaccinations include live-vector-based, nucleic acid-based, cell-based, and peptide- and protein- based vaccination (9). Recent reviews have focused on the latest clinical progress in therapeutic interventions for HPV induced lesions (9-11). From these reviews it is clear that a variety of therapeutics can induce an HPV-specific CD4 and/or CD8 T cell response but that clinical responses are still rare, except in patients with pre-malignant lesions (12, 13), and are scarcely observed in patients with advanced gynecological lesions. For instance, we have shown that synthetic long overlapping peptides of the oncogenes E6 and E7 of HPV16 (HPV16-SLP) induce clinical responses in mice and in patients with premalignant lesions (12, 14). Patients with a complete response had a stronger and broader HPV-specific T cell response ((12, 15), van Poelgeest, Welters, et al., submitted). When this vaccine is applied in patients with advanced or recurrent HPV16-induced gynecological carcinoma there is no apparent effect on survival (16, 17), indicating that a more potent therapeutic modality is needed to treat this group of patients (18). To become clinically successful, combination of vaccination with one or more treatment modalities that can boost the vaccine-induced T cell response and down- modulate the regulatory mechanisms in the tumor micro-environment is needed (18).

PRECLINICAL MODELS AS A GUIDE FOR NEW COMBINATORIAL THERAPIES

Preclinical models have provided key mechanistic insights into anti-tumor responses and immune-escape mechanisms utilized by tumors, that have been vital for the development of FDA

approved immunotherapies (19). In case of HPV-induced cervical cancer, several preclinical models have proved their usefulness for the development of HPV targeting vaccination and continue to be useful to study local immune regulation, vaccination efficacy and treatment combinations. Because these preclinical studies are too numerous to discuss, we focus on those that are based on understanding of the inhibitory mechanisms that prevent unleashing of the full power of therapeutic vaccine-induced T cells and utilization of combinatorial interventions based on these insights.

BREAKING LOCAL IMMUNE REGULATION

The ratio between CD8 T cells and Foxp3⁺ regulatory CD4 T cells (Tregs) is an independent prognostic factor in cervical cancer (20, 21) (figure 1). Enhancing the clinical effect of vaccination often focuses on the induction of CD8 T cells, resulting in an improved CD8 T cell/Treg ratio. Preclinical mouse models offer the possibility to evaluate intratumoral T cell responses in detail shortly after vaccination. As in patients, the percentage of systemic antigen-specific CD8 T cells is usually low, but after immunotherapy up to 40% of all tumor infiltrating CD8 T cells can be vaccine specific (22, 23), resulting in a favorable CD8 T cell/Treg ratio. Additionally, depletion of Tregs by an anti-CD25 antibody prior to E7/Hsp70 DNA vaccination in tumor bearing mice enhances the number of vaccine-induced CD8 T cells and results in enhanced survival (24).

In addition to a favorable CD8 T cell/Treg ration, macrophage infiltration is related to disease progression in cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (25), and infiltration of mature M1 macrophages is an independent prognostic factor for survival in cervical cancer (20), suggesting that re-education of macrophages rather than depleting them by therapeutic intervention would be an attractive immunotherapeutic option. In vivo studies indicate that HPV transformed TC-1 tumors are highly infiltrated with Tumor Associated Macrophages (TAM). Macrophage depletion reduces tumor growth, correlates with enhanced tumor infiltration of tumor specific CD8 T cells (26), and improves responses to chemotherapy (27), together confirming the immunosuppressive function of these cells. However, stimulation with IFN-y and CD40L can reverse a M2 phenotype to a M1, pro-inflammatory macrophage phenotype (28). Interestingly, anthracyclin-type chemotherapeutics and low-dose local radiotherapy were recently shown to reprogram macrophage differentiation to support intra-tumoral recruitment of CD8 T cells (29, 30). Additionally, our own data indicate that E7 long peptide vaccination induces tumor infiltrating cytokine producing CD8 T cells that modify intra-tumoral macrophage subsets required for tumor regressions (31). Together, these studies argue for a M1 macrophageskewing, rather than a macrophage-depleting strategy in clinical practice.

UNLEASHING THE FULL POTENTIAL OF CYTOTOXIC T CELLS

T cell responses in patients with advanced gynecological lesions are often weak and therefore not sufficient to induce a robust anti-tumor response. To enhance the magnitude and functionality of HPV specific immune responses, vaccination is frequently combined with danger signals and immune stimulating antibodies.

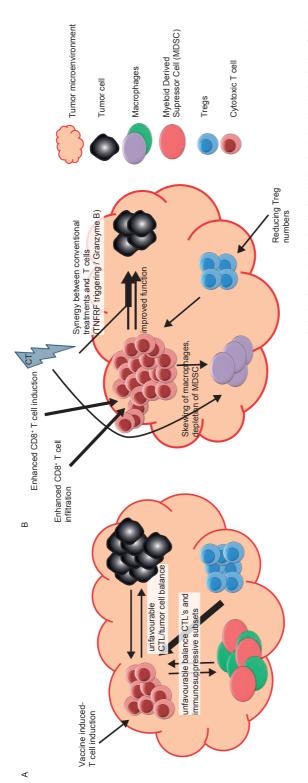


Figure 1. Improving therapeutic vaccination by combination therapies. Although vaccination A) can enhance the number of CD8 T cells, combination with treatment modalities that can boost the vaccineinduced T cell response or modulate intratumoral regulatory mechanisms is needed (18). B) Improving the balance betweencytotoxic T cells and immunosuppressive subsets may be achieved via enhancement of the cytotoxic T cell response, depletion of Tregs or Myeloid Derived Suppressor Cells and skewing or depletion of macrophages (24, 26, 29-33). Improved killing of tumor cells by cytotoxic T cells may be achieved through enhanced T cell function or the synergistic action of conventional debulking treatments and T cells (23, 44, 50-56).

Boosting T cell responses

The addition of TLR ligands to long peptide vaccination resulted in significantly enhanced anti-tumor responses ((32) and reviewed by (33)) while in an orthotopic murine model for cervical cancer the intravaginal (IVAG) application of TLR3 and 9 agonists promoted attraction of E7-specific CD8 T cells to the tumor site (34). IVAG application of the TLR9 ligand CpG enhanced CCR5 and CXCR3 levels on CD8 T cells, suggesting that the expression of these receptors allowed an improved attraction of CD8 T cells into the tumor (34). IVAG application of the TLR7 agonist Imiquimod induced IFN- γ mediated, local induction of CXCL9 and CXCL10, which enhanced infiltration of CXCR3⁺ vaccine-induced CD8 T cells. Imiquimod was shown to be effective in the treatment of VIN (35) and is currently combined with vaccination (36).

Checkpoint blockade

Immune checkpoint blockade has emerged as a promising strategy to attack tumors (37). By releasing the brakes on T cells, immune checkpoint blockers enhance the tumor-specific T cell responses. Since a combination of blocking the immune checkpoint molecule CTL-associated antigen 4 (CTLA-4) and vaccination with GM-CSF — transduced tumor cells can alter the balance between regulatory T cells and effector T cells (38, 39), the combination of an HPV targeting vaccine with CTLA-4 blocking seems an attractive approach in the therapeutic treatment of HPV induced malignancies but preclinical and clinical data for HPV induced malignancies using this approach are limited. Due to serious side effects (40), systemic treatment with CTLA-4 blocking antibodies is not preferred. However, similar to local anti-CD40 agonist antibody (41), the controlled local delivery of anti-CTLA4 can be equally effective as systemic treatment (42). In fact, local treatment with CTLA-4 antibodies via secretion by the tumor results in an enhanced CD8/Treg ratio in HPV transduced tumors (43), however we have not found any study that combines HPV vaccination with CTLA-4 targeting.

The role of another immune checkpoint protein, programmed cell death protein 1 (PD-1) and its ligand PD-L1, is studied more extensively in HPV-induced cancer. In HPV-associated head and neck cancer, PD-1-expressing tumor-infiltrating T cells are a favorable prognostic biomarker. *In vitro* assays for a small group of patients suggest that PD-1 blockade enhances the IFN- γ production by CD8 T cells (44), while *in vivo* data indicate that E7 polypeptide vaccination combined with PD-L1 blockade significantly enhanced survival when compared to untreated or single treated tumor-bearing mice (44). Furthermore, PD-1 blocking synergizes with cyclophosphamide to enhance the anti-tumor capacity of E7-specific vaccination with short peptide vaccination combined with agonistic CD40 antibodies and GM-CSF in Incomplete Freund's Adjuvant (45). The effectiveness in patients, however, remains to be tested.

Chemo-immunotherapy

Certain chemotherapeutics can enhance the anti-tumor effect of therapeutic vaccination. A number of trials reported that combining chemotherapy with immunotherapy improved clinical responses (46). A significant number of preclinical studies for HPV-induced malignancies indicate that especially cisplatin works well with T cell-inducing vaccinations. While others have recently reviewed immunogenic effects of cisplatin and the molecular pathways underlying

this immunogenicity (47, 48), we focus here on the coordinated collaboration between cisplatin and vaccination. Cisplatin-immunotherapy can induce a type 1 interferon and TLR4 dependent activation and migration of antigen-loaded dendritic cells into tumor-draining lymph nodes where they stimulate CD8 T cells (22). In fact, for a subset of therapeutic vaccines it has been described that cisplatin can enhance the systemic or local vaccine-induced T cell response (22, 49, 50), while for other vaccines it has no effect on the induction, activity, localization, or migrating capacity of vaccine-induced T cells (23, 51), but differences are primarily observed in the tumor microenvironment. Tumors of mice treated with cisplatin and vaccination generally have a decreased tumor cell density compared to single treated tumors (23, 51). This is explained by the reduced proliferative capacity of tumor cells (23) and the enhanced tumor cell death upon combined treatment (figure 1), (23, 50-52). This enhanced cell death is explained by the increased sensitivity of tumor cells for CTL-mediated killing as result of cisplatin-induced enhanced sensitivity of tumor cells for granzyme B mediated killing (51-53) and the enhanced sensitivity of tumor cells for cisplatin-induced apoptosis by T cell produced TNFa (23). Various preclinical in vivo and in vitro studies indicate synergistic mechanisms between specific chemotherapeutics and triggering of one of the members of the TNF receptor family (23, 54, 55). Accordingly, the combined treatment with an adenoviral vector expressing E7 with gemcitabine and cisplatin enhanced the intratumoral expression of a variety of proinflammatory chemokines, supported a favorable M1/M2 macrophage ratio and inhibited (treatment-induced) accumulation of systemic Tregs, B cells, and myeloid derived suppressor cells (MDSCs; indicated as Gr-1⁺/CD11b⁺) (49). Furthermore, also radiated tumor cells have an increased sensitivity to E7 vaccine-driven CTL-mediated killing (56), implying that similar mechanisms as those induced by cisplatin are involved in the enhanced anti-tumor responses.

Surprisingly, other chemotherapeutics such as oxaliplatin and doxorubicin did not enhance vaccine induced anti-tumor responses but did also not weaken the effect of HPV vaccination (22, 23). Together indicating that although chemotherapy does not impair vaccine induced anti-tumor immunity, combining vaccination with cisplatin would be the most favorable choice to test in patients.

NEW APPROACHES TRANSLATED INTO THE CLINIC

A huge body of preclinical and clinical studies indicates that therapeutic vaccination against HPV- induced malignancies is improved by combination therapy. Since the full power of a therapeutic T cell response will only be unleashed when immunosuppression by (tumor-induced) immune inhibitory cells is abolished, clinical efficacy of the combination therapies will be determined by the effect of the combined treatments on the tumor microenvironment and immune cell subsets. Understanding the role of individual components in these interactions allows targeting of the relevant mechanisms by therapy and will guide the road ahead to improved clinical responses and decreased toxicity in patients with advanced gynecological lesions.

ANNOTATED REFERENCES

References and recommended reading

- of special interest
- •• of outstanding interest

• Ref 12

This study demonstrates for the first time that therapeutic vaccination with a highly immunogenic vaccine can result in complete and durable clinical responses in a significant number of patients with HPV16-induced premalignant lesions.

•• Ref 20

This study shows that in addition to a high CD8 T cell/Treg ratio, the presence of matured M1 macrophages improves patient survival, indicating that macrophage polarization may be an attractive component of immunotherapy for cervical cancer.

•• Ref 22

In this study the authors show that cisplatin-immunotherapy induces a type 1 interferon and TLR4 dependent activation of and migration of antigen-loaded dendritic cells into tumordraining lymph nodes where they stimulate CD8 T cells. This study shows that chemotherapy allows an adjuvant-free priming of CD8 T cells by vaccination.

•• Ref 23

This study shows that vaccine-induced T cells migrate to the tumor and produce Tumor Necrosis Factor which strongly enhances the sensitivity of tumor cells for cisplatin, resulting in tumor cell death and enhanced survival of mice treated with timed vaccination and cisplatin treatment.

•• Ref 47

This review extensively describes the literature on cisplatin-induced antitumor immunomodulation.

• Ref 48

This review extensively describes the literature on the molecular pathways involved in the immunogenic effects of platinum-based chemotherapeutics.

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