

Oncologia di precisione
**IL MICROAMBIENTE
TUMORALE E I NUOVI
FARMACI**

Roma, 24 maggio 2019

Francesco Cognetti

Vanja Vaccaro

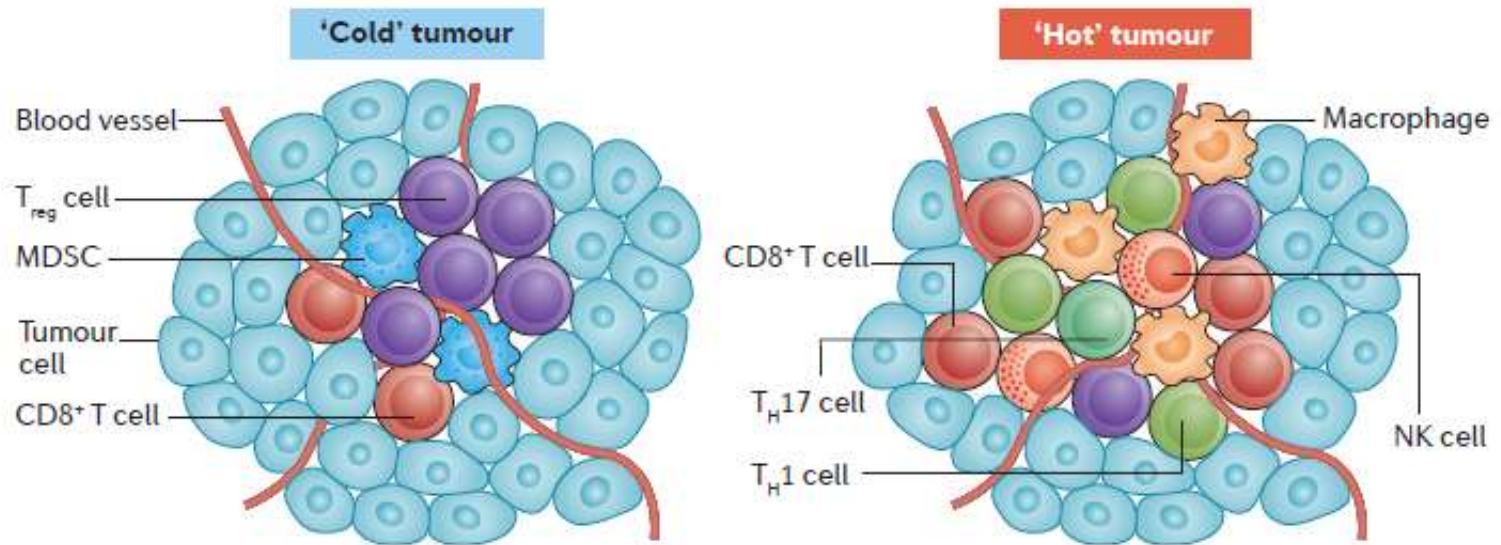
ICBs & TME

- ICBs have **improved outcomes** in solid tumors
- These therapies have **failed to produce universal durable responses**
- Serious and sometimes life-threatening **irAEs**, can result following immune activation
- Cancers with lower mutational burdens and antigen loads are generally less likely to respond to immunotherapies
- Other **inherent and adaptive resistance mechanisms may be responsible for mediating the response to ICBs**
- Successes and failures of ICBs in solid tumors are considerably dictated by the **abnormal and immunosuppressive TME**

TUMOR MICROENVIRONMENT

- TME comprises **stromal and immune cells, extracellular matrix molecules, and blood and lymphatic vessels**
- This complex, interactive, and highly dynamic tissue assembly cooperates to antitumor immunity and immunotherapy efficacy by a variety of mechanisms:
 - dense stromal network with increased **mechanical forces**
 - leaky and compressed blood and lymphatic vessels promote **hypoperfusion**
 - The resulting **hypoxic and acidic TME** supports resident and infiltrating **immunosuppressive cells**, induces immune checkpoint expression, and facilitates the **exclusion and exhaustion (dysfunction) of CTLs**

Tumors: «Inflamed» / «not inflamed» phenotypes



Biological characteristics

- Epigenetic silencing
- Active β -catenin signalling
- Mesenchymal-like cells
- Stem cell-like cells
- Less-differentiated cells

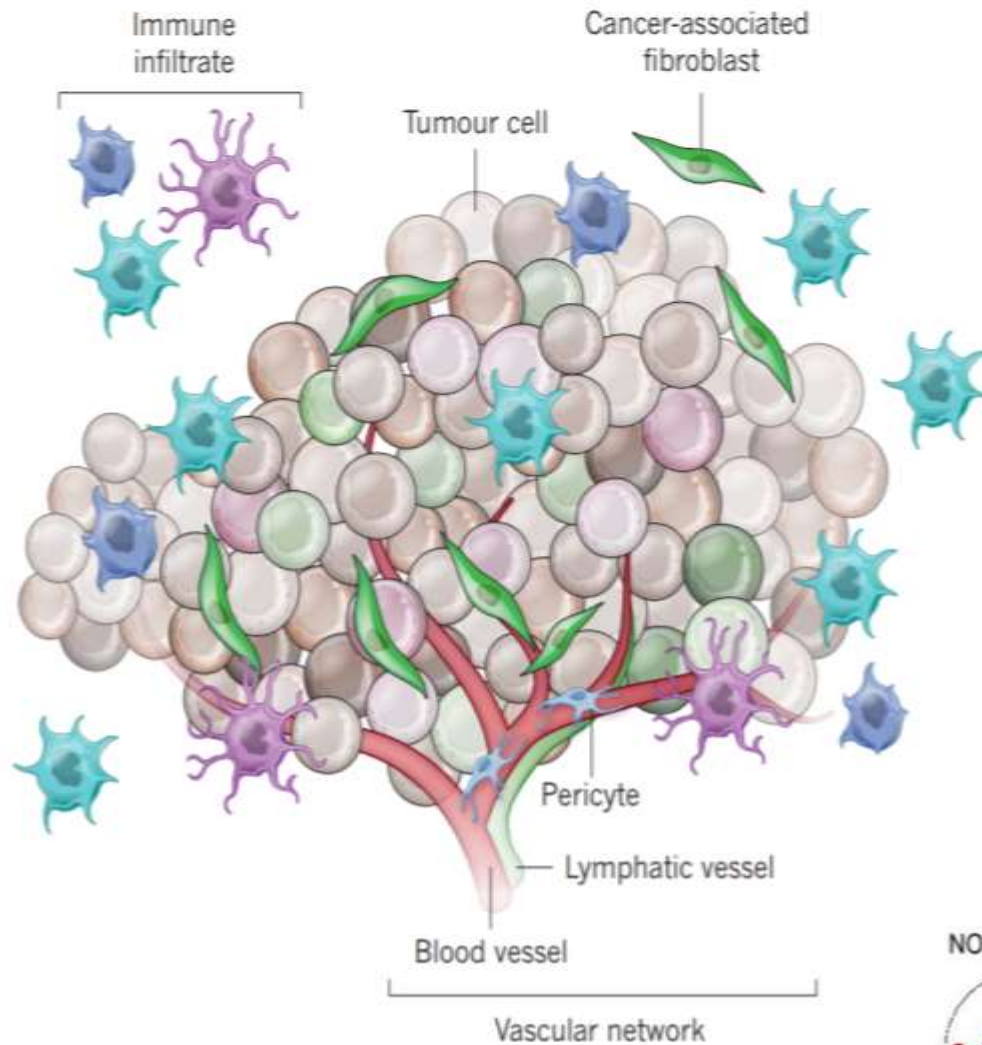
- Epigenetic reprogramming
- Suppressed β -catenin signalling
- Epithelial cells
- Highly differentiated cells
- High PDL1 expression

Immunological characteristics

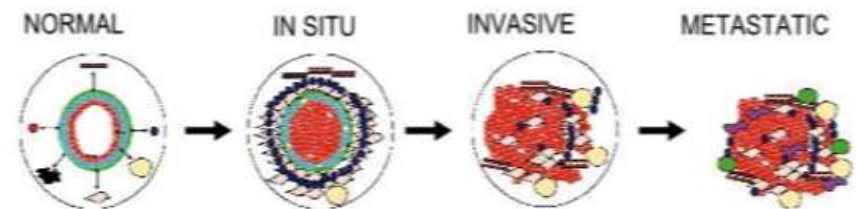
- Enriched in immunosuppressive cytokines
- High numbers of T_{reg} cells and MDSCs
- Few T_H1 cells, NK cells and $CD8^+$ T cells
- Few functional APCs

- Enriched in T_H1 -type chemokines
- High numbers of effector immune cells (T_H1 cells, NK cells and $CD8^+$ T cells)
- High numbers of functional APCs

MICROAMBIENTE: un sistema complesso

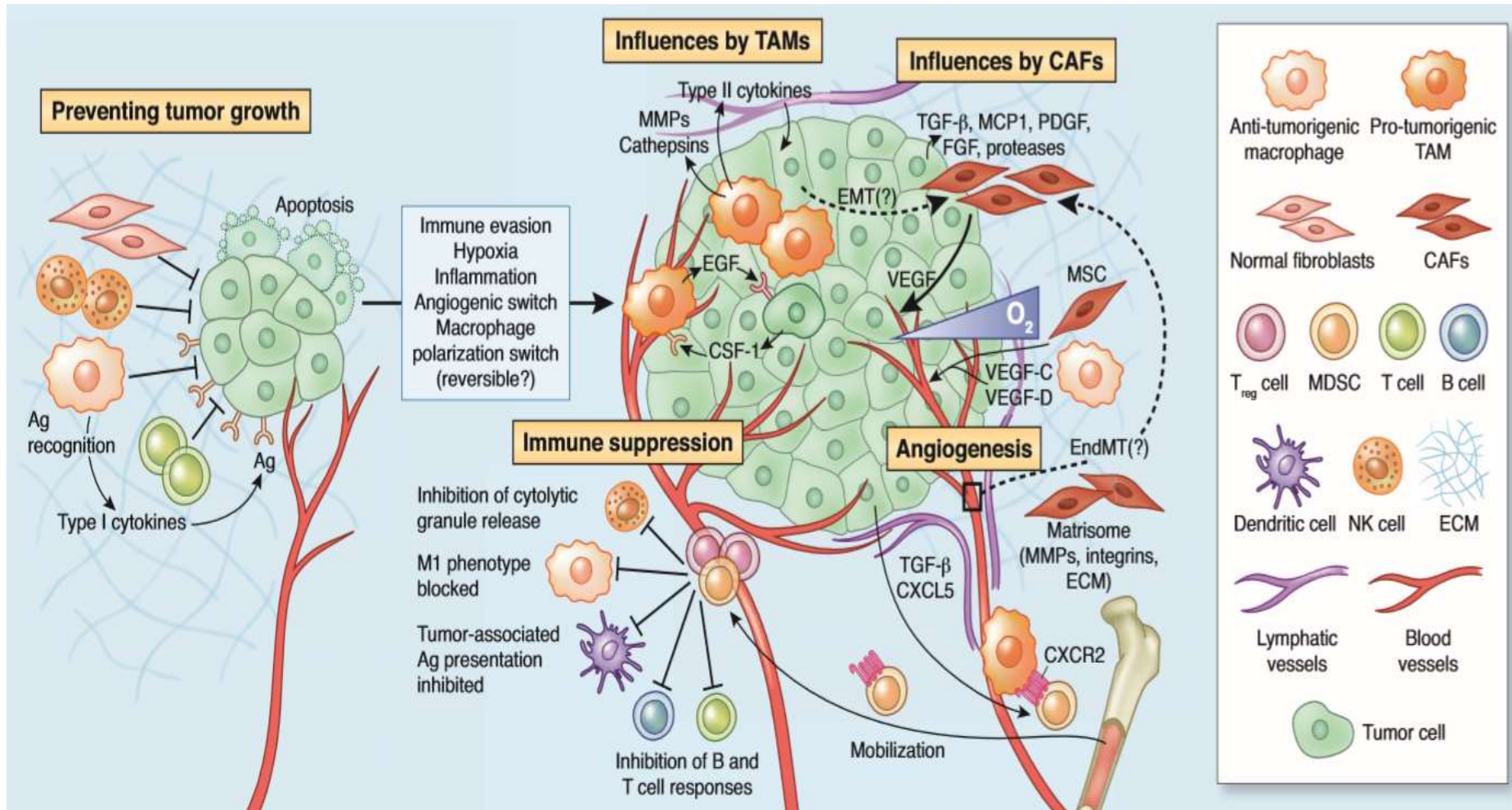


- Ha un ruolo nelle fasi iniziali di sviluppo del tumore
- Regola la crescita del tumore, la differenziazione, la polarità, l'invasione, la metastatizzazione, l'angiogenesi e la risposta ai trattamenti
- È un potenziale biomarker diagnostico, prognostico e predittivo
- È un potenziale target terapeutico



SABCS 2018

MICROAMBIEMTE: ruolo nelle fasi iniziali

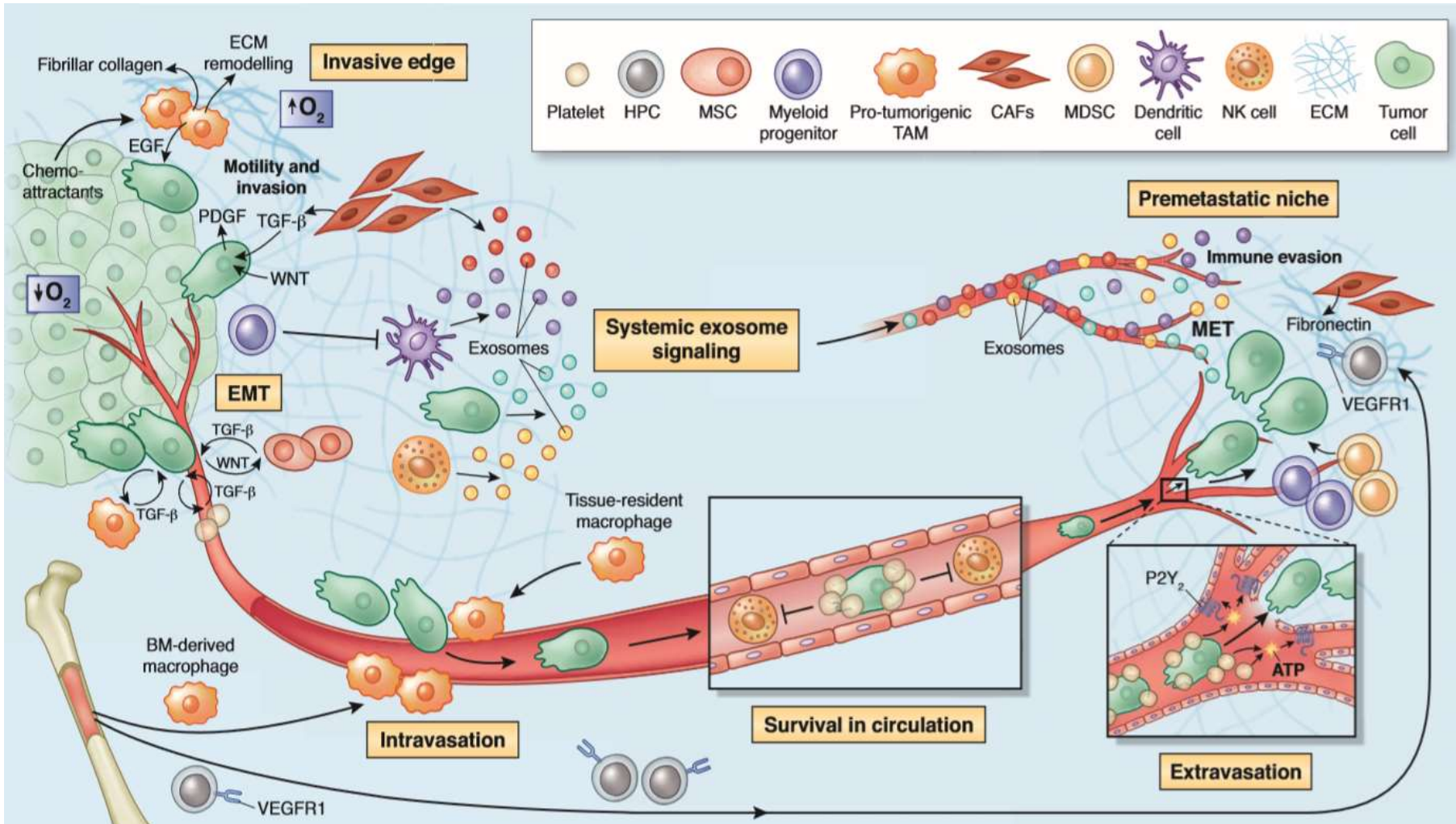


EQUILIBRIUM

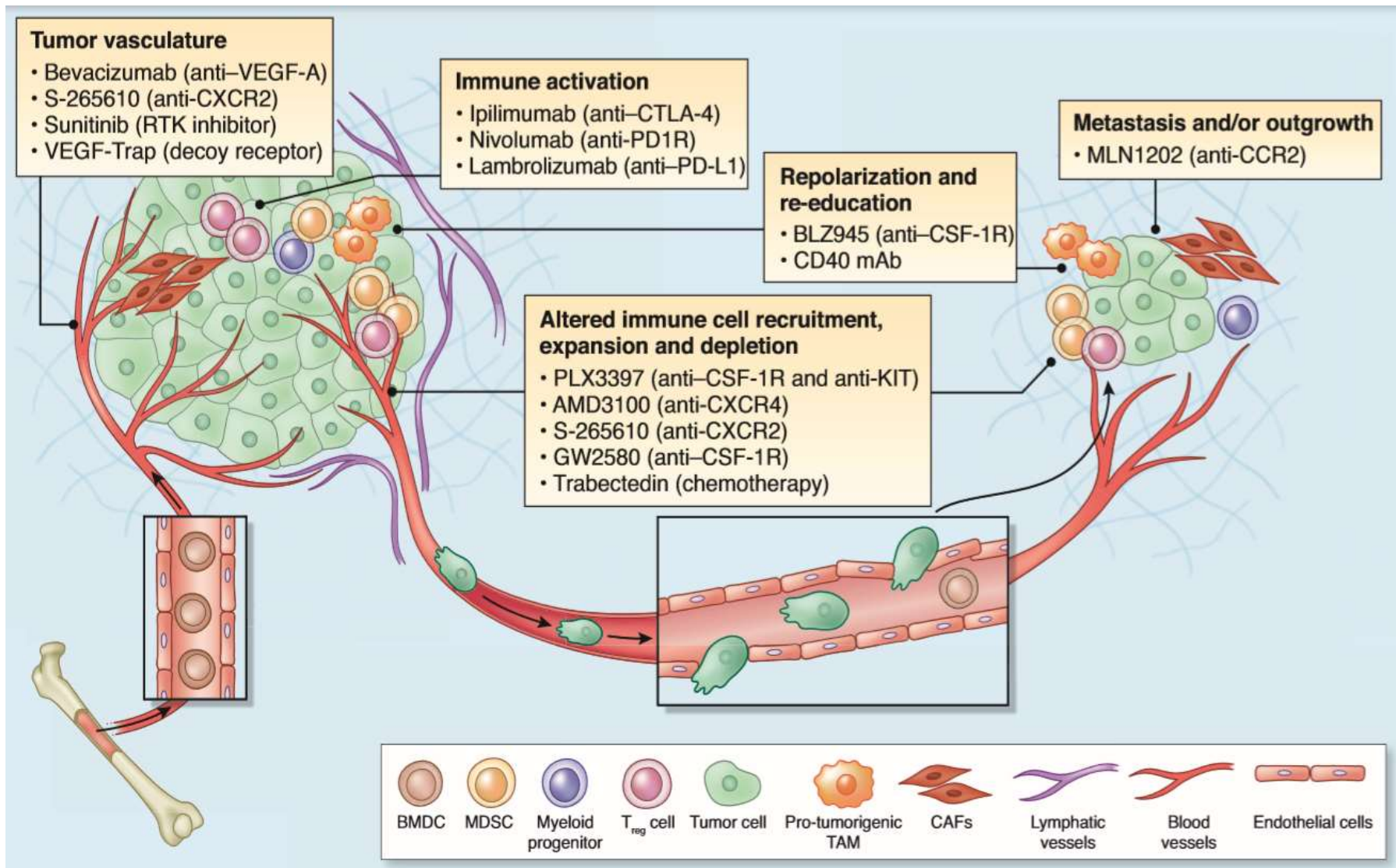


PROMOTING/ESCAPE

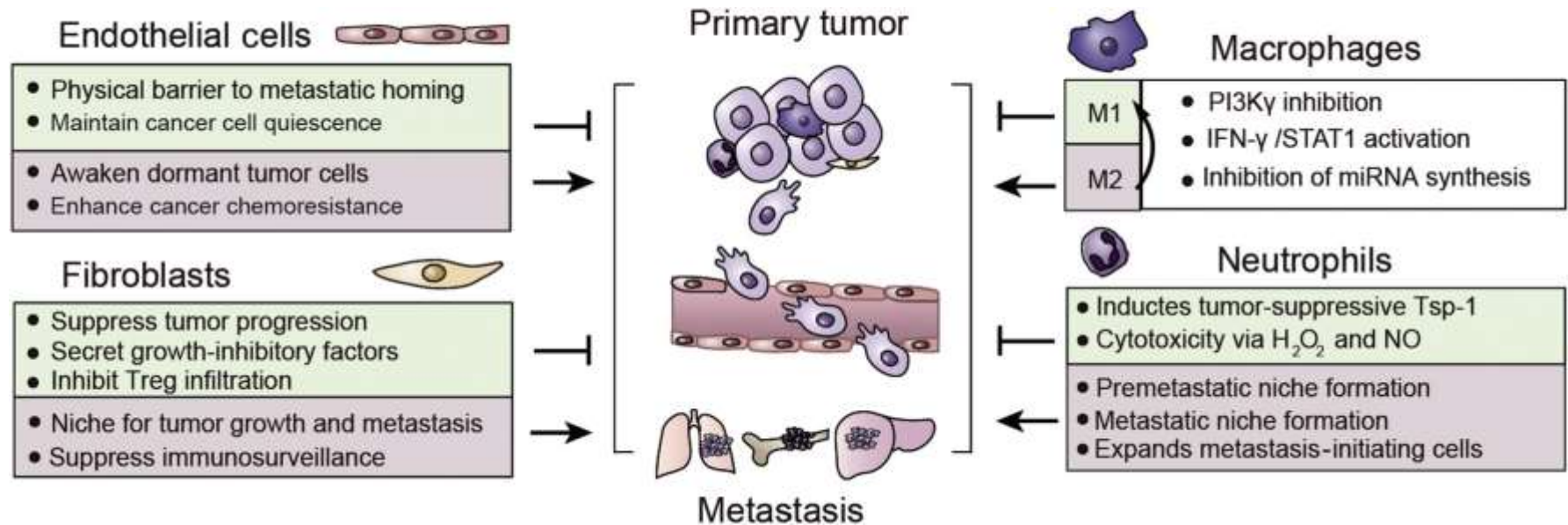
MICROAMBIENTE: ruolo nella metastatizzazione



MICROAMBIEMTE: possibili «target»



Cellular components of the tumor microenvironment (TME) that play opposite roles in metastasis



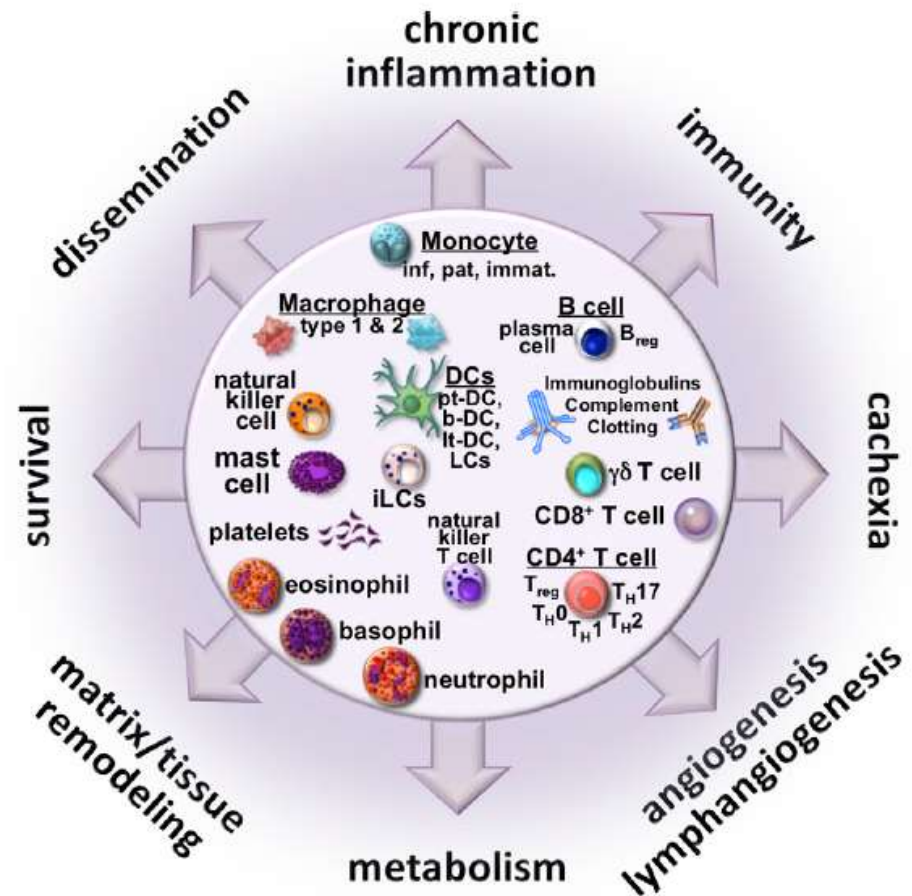
During metastatic growth, different TME cells exert **seemingly contradictory regulatory effects** on tumor cell dissemination and metastatic colonization. These cells include, but are not limited to, endothelial cells, fibroblasts, neutrophils, and macrophages.

Reprogramming the Tumor Microenvironment to Improve Immunotherapy: Emerging Strategies and Combination Therapies

- The TME releases factors into circulation that promote systemic immunosuppression and further inhibit antitumor immunity
- **Reprogramming specific facets of the immune compartment**, such as immunosuppressive myeloid and lymphoid cell subsets, **may overcome microenvironment-induced resistance mechanisms and enhance antitumor immunity.**

The Tumor-Immune Microenvironment mediates tumor progression and treatment response

protumor and antitumor immune cells promote and cooperate with other pathophysiologic features to promote the major hallmarks of cancer progression, immunosuppression, and treatment resistance



Immunotherapeutic strategies (as combination therapies) must be carefully orchestrated to promote antitumor immunity for efficacious outcomes

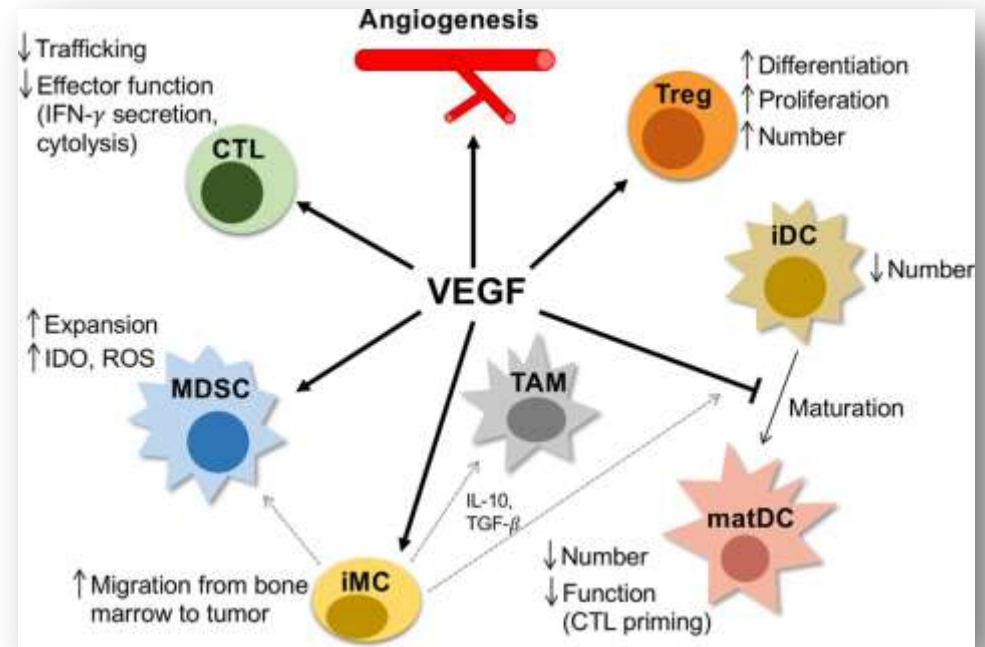
THERAPEUTIC STRATEGIES

- **Targeting non-immune components of the TME**
 - by **normalizing or decompressing the vasculature** represents a clinically translatable strategy to overcoming resistance to ICBs and other immunotherapies.
- A bench-to-bedside-and-back approach for microenvironment-based strategies may not only enhance immunotherapies for solid tumors but also **abrogate irAEs**

NORMALIZING THE TUMOR VASCULATURE TO IMPROVE IMMUNOTHERAPY

VEGF modulates immune cells to promote an immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment

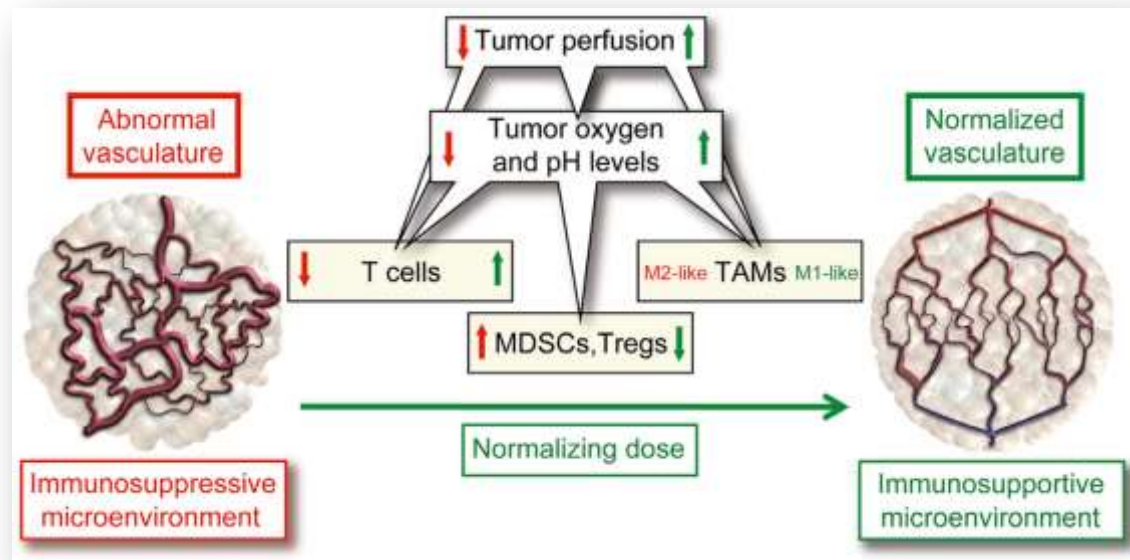
indirectly promoting immunosuppression via an **abnormal tumor vasculature**



directly

influencing immune cells in the tumor microenvironment and **promoting immunosuppressive** cells such as Tregs, MDSCs, and protumor TAMs, while inhibiting antigenpresenting cells (such as DCs and antitumor TAMs) and CTLs.

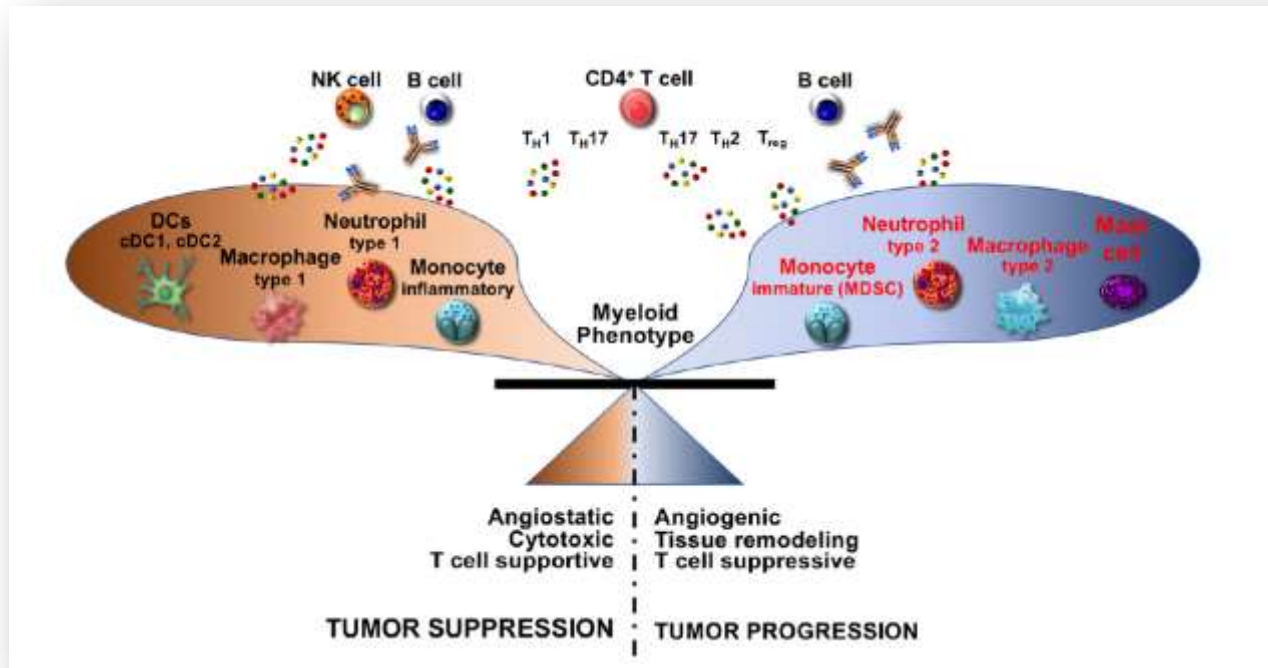
Vascular normalization can reprogram the immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment



Antiangiogenic therapies

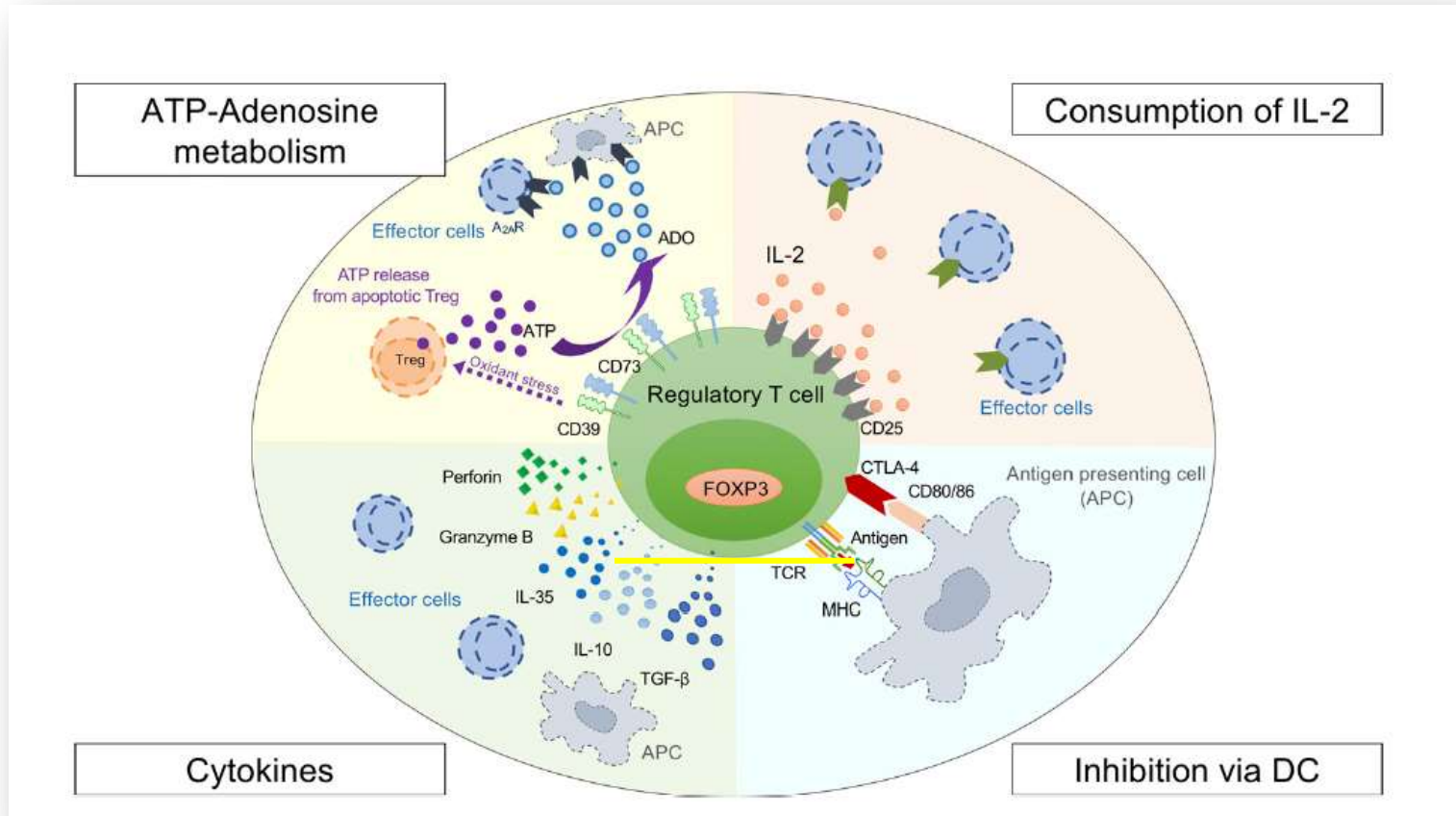
- can reprogram the tumor microenvironment to an immunostimulatory milieu by normalizing the vasculature to facilitate T effector cell infiltration and antitumor function,
- reduce MDSC and Treg accumulation, and alleviate hypoxia, which can induce conversion of TAMs to an “M1-like” antitumor phenotype.

Adaptive immune responses dictate myeloid cell activity to influence tumor progression



- Although regulation of **adaptive and innate immune responses** is likely bidirectional and can be altered by treatment modalities, **different adaptive cells can also promote either pro- or antitumor myeloid cell phenotype** and function and together influence tumor progression.
- In cases where the immune response to cancer results in increased **TH1 cytokines** by adaptive cells (e.g., CD4⁺ T cells and natural killer [NK] cells), this induces myeloid cell bioactivity that promotes tumor stabilization or regression.
- On the other hand, when the responding adaptive response includes chronic B cell, **TH2**, and regulatory T-cell activation, myeloid cells upregulate programs that promote tumor progression, including angiogenesis and **immunosuppression**.

Mechanisms of regulatory T-Cell suppression in the tumor microenvironment



Tregs are a specialized **subset of CD4 T cells** that are required in normal physiologic conditions to balance effector immune responses and maintain immune homeostasis and self-tolerance

In the TME, however, Tregs are **co-opted to suppress antitumor immune responses and promote tumor progression**

- Tregs are able to inhibit the function of antigen-presenting cells (APCs) and T effector cells by three main mechanisms:
 1. Tregs support their own **immunosuppressive function by consuming interleukin (IL)-2** (via the IL-2 receptor CD25).
 2. Tregs **inhibit APCs** (via CTLA-4 binding to CD80/CD86) to downregulate costimulatory signals to T effector cells.
 3. Tregs **directly inhibit T effector cells and APCs with suppressive cytokines** (IL-10, IL-35, and transforming growth factor [TGF]- β) or by inducing apoptosis (perforin and granzyme).

REPROGRAMMING REGULATORY T CELLS IN THE TME TO OVERCOME IMMUNOSUPPRESSION

- Tregs are emerging as a **target** in cancer immunotherapy
- **Inhibition** of Treg-mediated suppression:
 - selective depletion of intratumoral Tregs,
 - reprogramming intratumoral Tregs to an antitumor effector phenotype
- VEGF signaling and overexpression promotes Treg proliferation and activation.
- **VEGF pathway inhibition**
 - reduced immune checkpoint expression and Treg infiltration in both preclinical and clinical studies

Treg cell- targeted treatments in clinical trials

Therapeutic approach	Target	Representative agents (drug type)
Targeting receptors on T _{reg} cells	CD25 (IL-2R α)	Daclizumab (anti-CD25 antibody) and photoimmunotherapy (CD25-targeted near-infrared photoimmunotherapy) ^{132,133,190}
	CTLA-4	Ipilimumab (anti-CTLA-4 antibody) ^{21,107,108}
	CCR4	Mogamulizumab (anti-CCR4 antibody) ^{136,137}
	OX40	PF-04518600 (agonistic anti-OX40 antibody) and MEDI6383 (OX40L-Fc fusion protein) ^{142,143}
	GITR	MEDI1873 (agonistic hexameric GITR ligand fusion protein; NCT02583165), TRX518 (NCT02628574) and MK-1248 (agonistic anti-GITR antibodies) ¹⁴⁴
	ICOS	JTX-2011 (agonistic anti-ICOS antibody) ^{146,147}
Targeting intracellular signalling	PI3K δ	Parsaclisib (also known as INCB050465; small-molecule PI3K δ inhibitor; NCT02646748)
	LCK	Dasatinib and imatinib (multi-targeted TKIs) ¹⁵¹
Targeting the tumour microenvironment	IDO1	Epacadostat (small-molecule IDO1 inhibitor) ^{156,157}
	VEGF signalling	Bevacizumab (anti-VEGF antibody), ramucirumab (anti-VEGFR2 antibody), sorafenib and lenvatinib (VEGFR-targeted TKIs) ¹⁶²⁻¹⁶⁶
	TGF β	Galunisertib (TGFR1 kinase inhibitor; NCT02423343 and NCT02734160) and M7824 (anti-PD-L1-TGF β trap) ^{172,173}
	FAK	Defactinib (NCT02758587)
Other	HSP90	XL888 (NCT03095781), ganetespib (NCT01173523) and TAS-116 (UMIN000032801) (small-molecule HSP90 inhibitors)
	DNA (immunomodulatory chemotherapy)	Cyclophosphamide ¹⁸²⁻¹⁸⁵

The NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL of MEDICINE

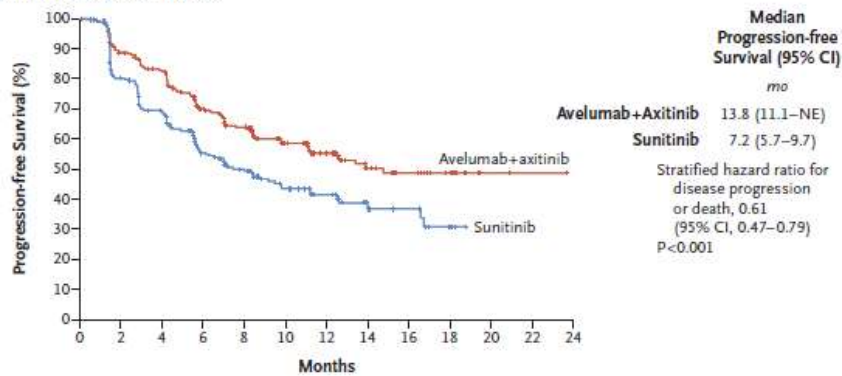
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MARCH 21, 2019

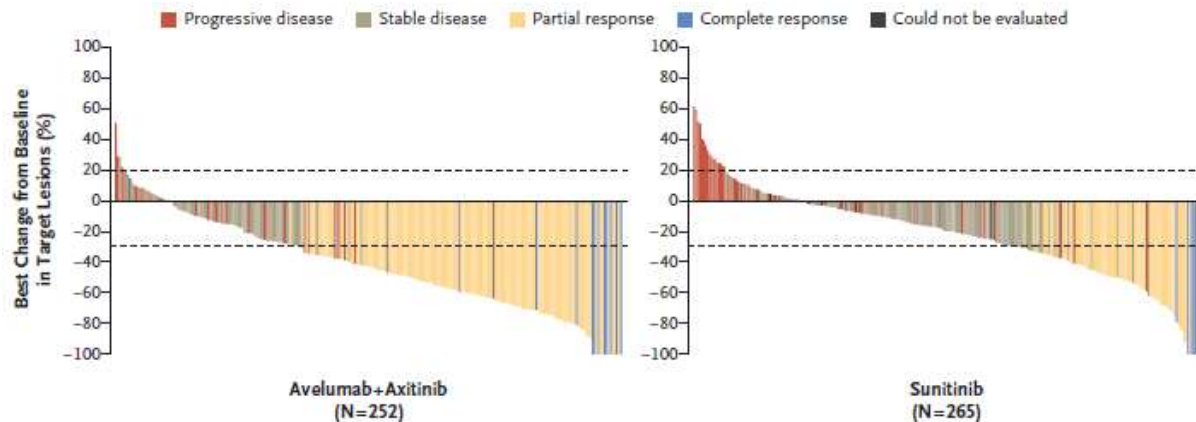
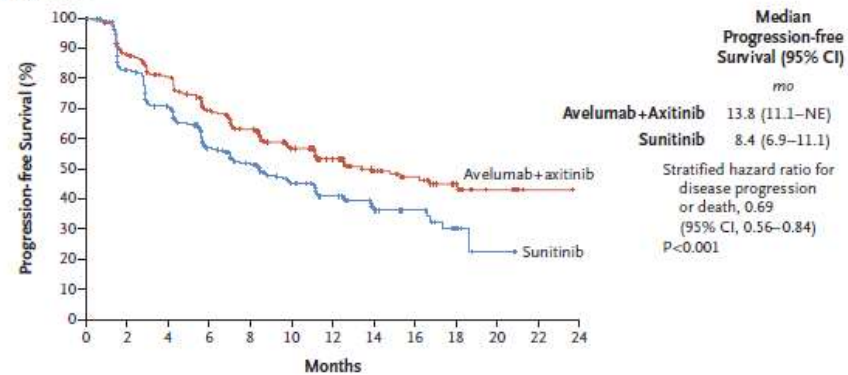
VOL. 380 NO. 12

Avelumab plus Axitinib versus Sunitinib for Advanced Renal-Cell Carcinoma

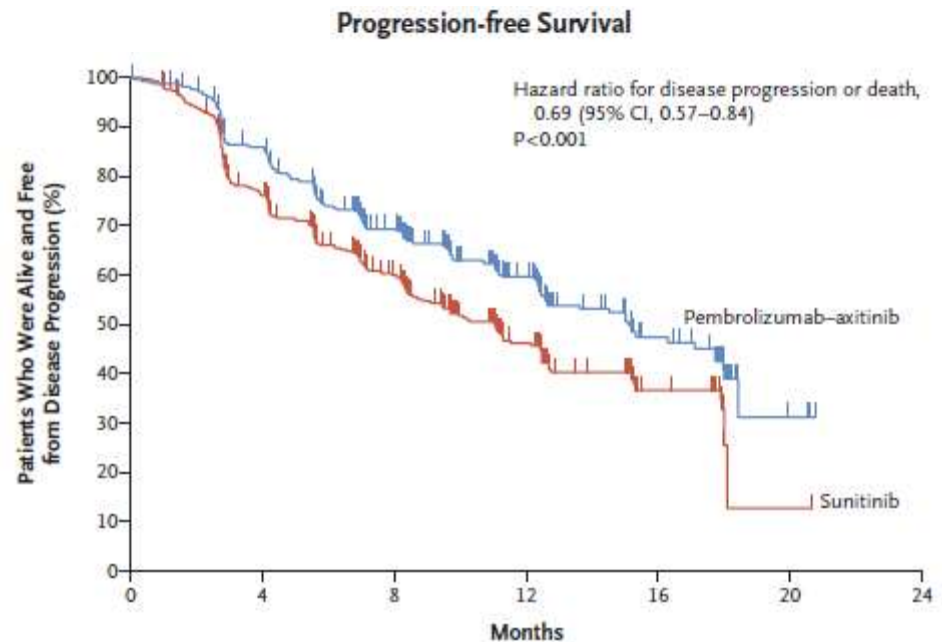
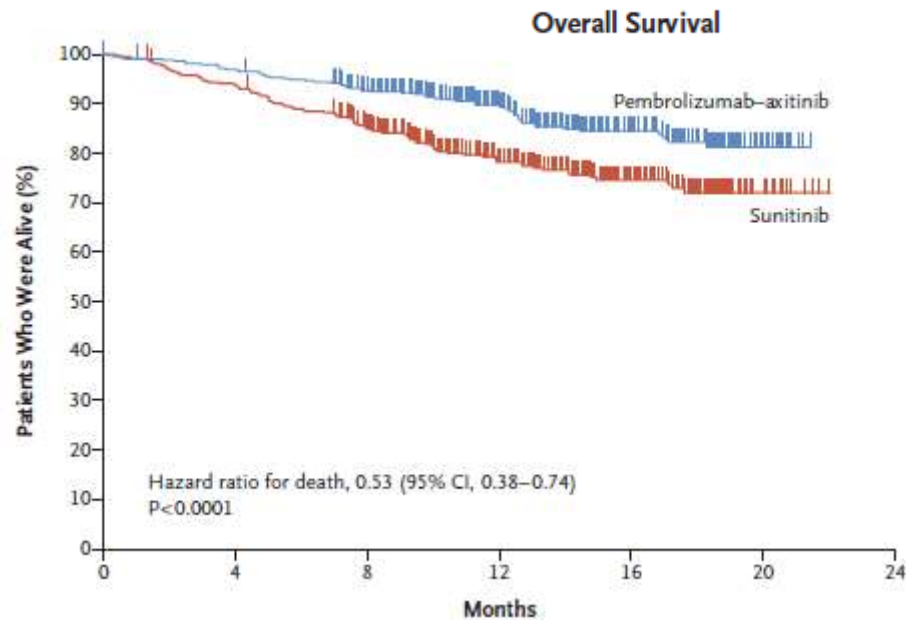
Patients with PD-L1-Positive Tumors



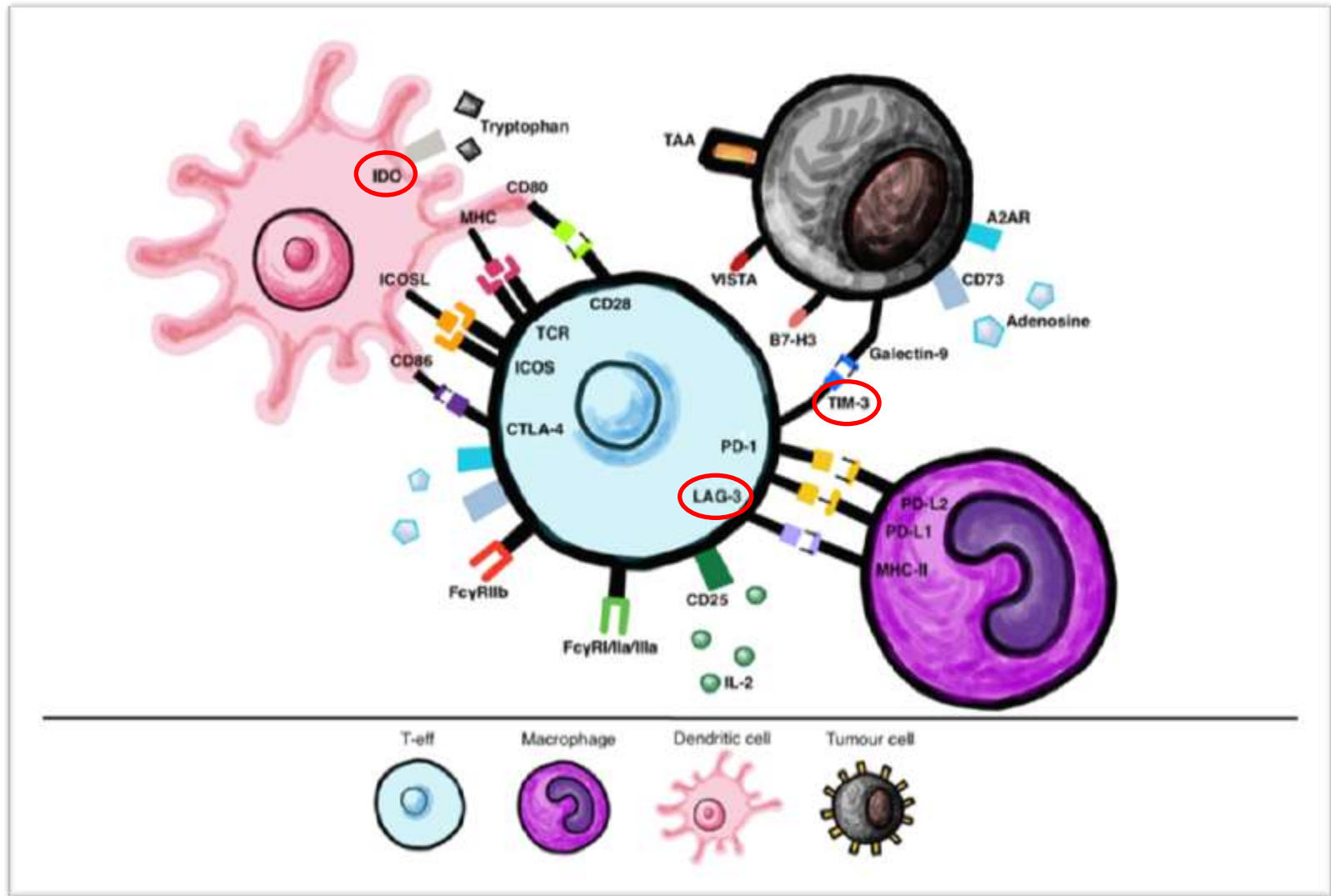
Overall Population



Pembrolizumab plus Axitinib versus Sunitinib for Advanced Renal-Cell Carcinoma

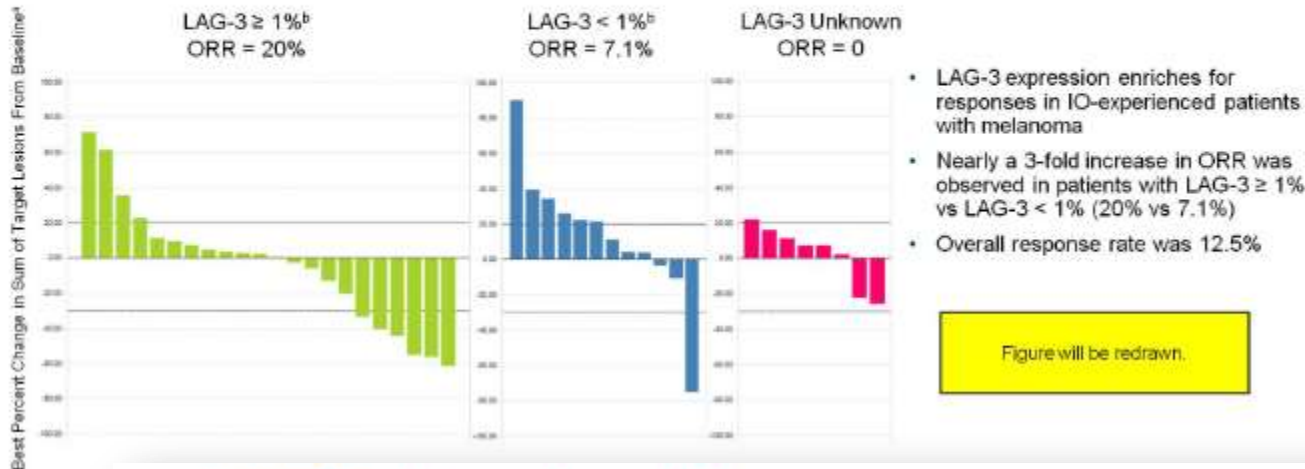


Immune cell interactions via checkpoint molecules and their ligands



Various interactions between checkpoint molecules and their ligands expressed by different cells, such as immune cells (dendritic cells (DC)s, T-effector cells (T-eff), macrophages) and between T-eff and tumor cells, that may be targeted with therapy

Promising Response With BMS-986016 + Nivolumab in Patients With Melanoma Who Received Prior Anti-PD-1/PD-L1 Therapy




ASCO Meeting Library

Updated phase I trial of anti-LAG-3 or anti-CD137 alone and in combination with anti-PD-1 in patients with recurrent GBM.

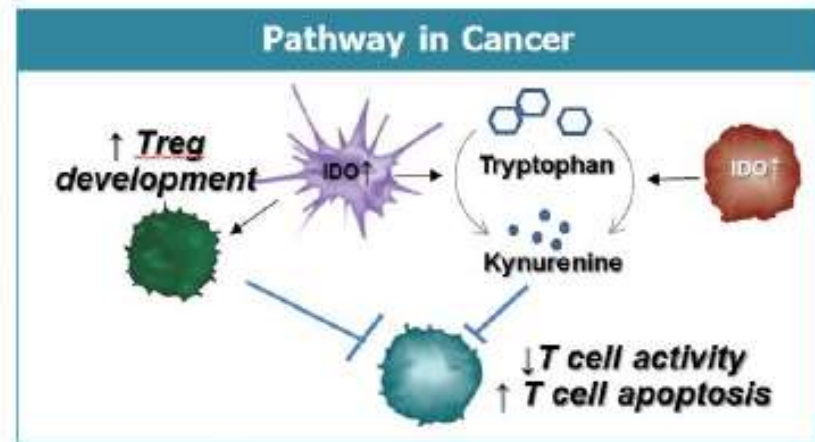
 Presented Sunday, June 2, 2019

CA224-060: A randomized, open label, phase II trial of relatlimab (anti-LAG-3) and nivolumab with chemotherapy versus nivolumab with chemotherapy as first-line treatment in patients with gastric or gastroesophageal junction adenocarcinoma.

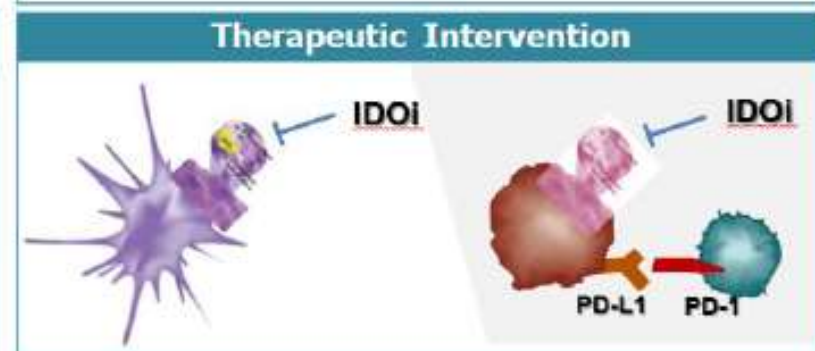
 Presented Monday, June 3, 2019

IDO Pathway

	Enzyme	Substrate
	IDO	Tryptophan
Expression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> APCs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Released by cells within the tumor microenvironment
Biological function(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regulates T-cell activity via metabolism of tryptophan into immunosuppressive metabolites (eg, kynurenine) 	
Status in cancer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased metabolism of tryptophan via tumor-dependent IDO upregulation Increased tryptophan in the tumor microenvironment triggers <u>Treg</u> development and causes T cell starvation 	

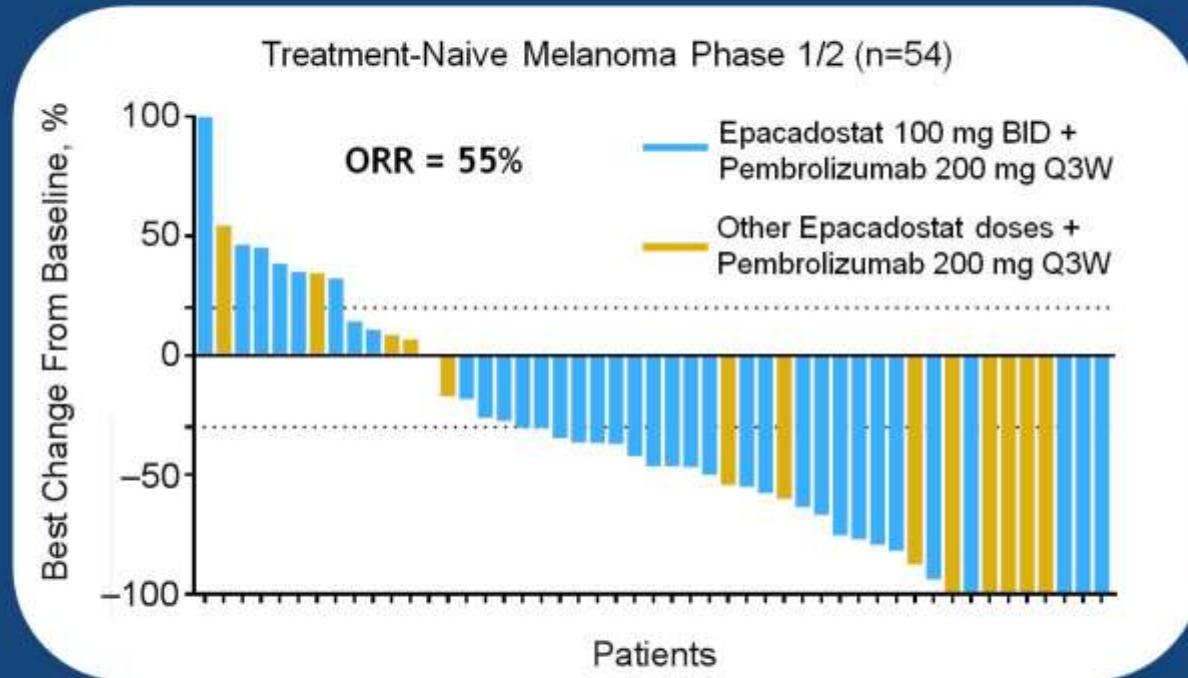


	IDO Inhibitor
Intervention	<p>IDO blockade by inhibitor</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduces <u>Treg</u> numbers and restores T-cell function <p>Preclinical data suggest that IDO inhibition in combination with PD-1 blockade demonstrates antitumor activity</p>
Current investigations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Phase I/IIa trial for advanced solid tumors in combination with anti-PD-1



- Mellor AL et al. *Immunol Today*. 1999;20:469-473.
- Munn DH et al. *Science* 2002;297:1867-1870.
- Löb S et al. *Cancer Immunol Immunother*. 2009;58:153-157.
- Uyttenhove C et al. *Nat Med*. 2003;9:1269-1274.

Background: Rationale for Combination and Dosing



ECHO-202 / KEYNOTE-037

- Phase 1: Epacadostat 50, 100, or 300 mg PO BID + Pembrolizumab 200 mg IV Q3W
- MTD of epacadostat not reached
- Phase 2: Epacadostat 100 mg PO BID
- Phase 1/2 efficacy in treatment-naive melanoma:
 - ORR = 55%
 - Median PFS = 22.8 mo (12.4 mo all melanoma)

BID, twice daily; MTD, maximally tolerated dose; PD-L1, programmed death ligand-1; Q3W, every 3 weeks.
Hamid O, et al. *Ann Oncol*. 2017;28(suppl 5):1214O.

PRESENTED AT: **2018 ASCO**
ANNUAL MEETING

#ASCO18
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PRESENTED BY: Georgina V. Long

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Study Design: Phase III Randomized Controlled Trial

Key Eligibility Criteria

- Unresectable stage III or IV melanoma, advanced/metastatic disease
 - Patients with *BRAF* mutation could have received prior *BRAF*/*MEK* therapy
 - Prior anti-*CTLA-4* or interferon in adjuvant setting permitted
- ECOG performance status 0–1
- No active CNS metastases

Stratification

- PD-L1 status (positive^a vs negative)
- *BRAF* mutation status
 - Wild type
 - Mutant with prior *BRAF*-directed therapy
 - Mutant without prior *BRAF*-directed therapy

N=706
R 1:1

Epacadostat 100 mg PO BID
+
Pembrolizumab 200 mg IV Q3W
n=354

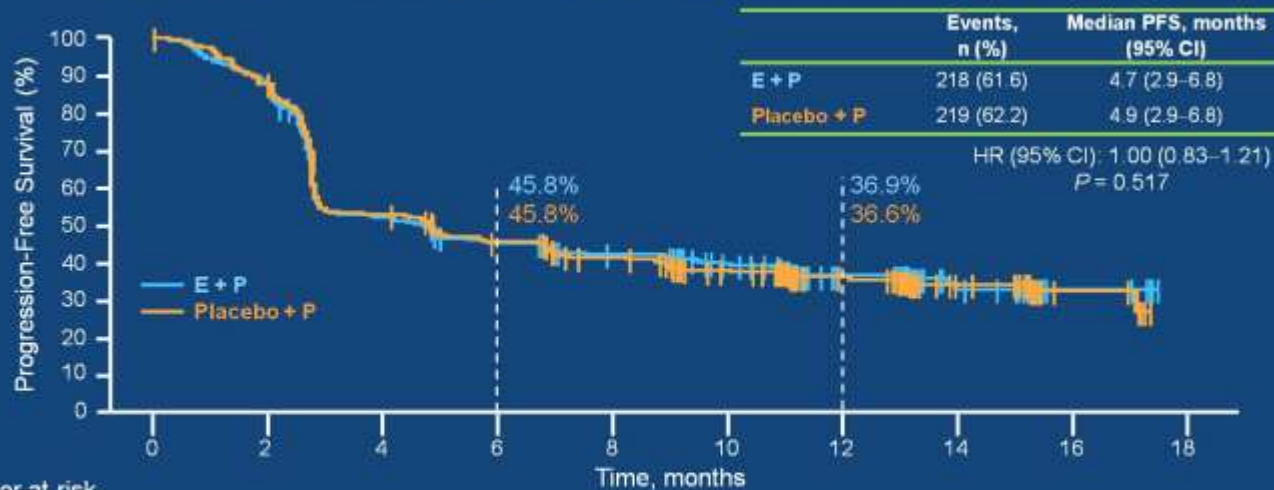
Placebo
+
Pembrolizumab 200 mg IV Q3W
n=352

- **Primary endpoints:** PFS (RECIST v1.1) and OS
- **Secondary endpoints:** ORR (RECIST v1.1), DOR, safety

BID, twice daily; DOR, duration of response; ECOG, Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group; ORR, objective response rate; OS, overall survival; PD-L1, programmed death-ligand 1; PFS, progression-free survival; Q3W, every 3 weeks; RECIST, Response Evaluation Criteria In Solid Tumors.

^a>1% staining in tumor and adjacent immune cells as assessed by IHC (22C3 antibody).

Progression-Free Survival (RECIST v1.1, BICR)

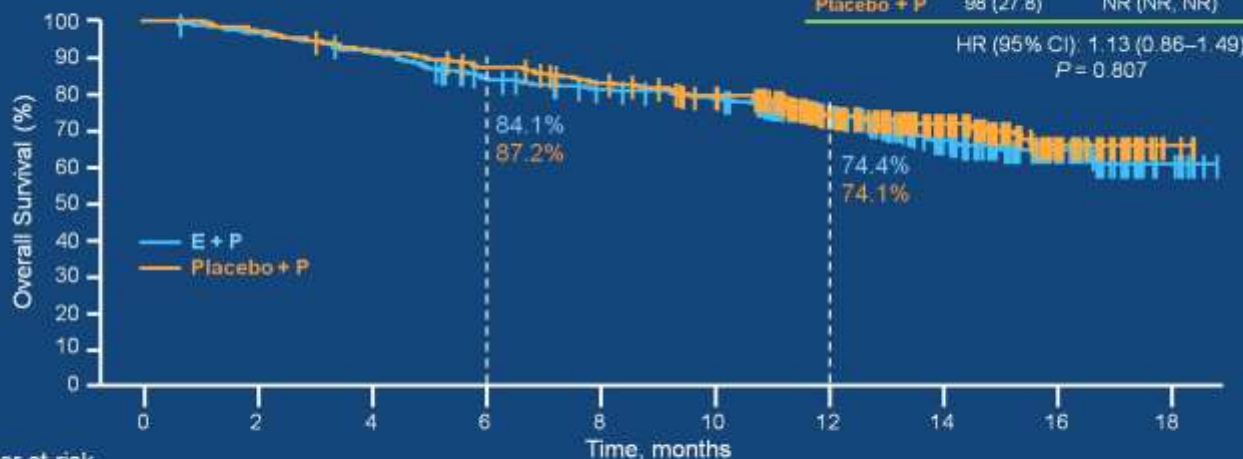


Number at risk

	0	6
E + P	354	309
Placebo + P	352	304

BICR, blinded independent central review; CI, confidence interval; E, epacadostat; PFS defined as time from randomization to disease progression or death.

Overall Survival



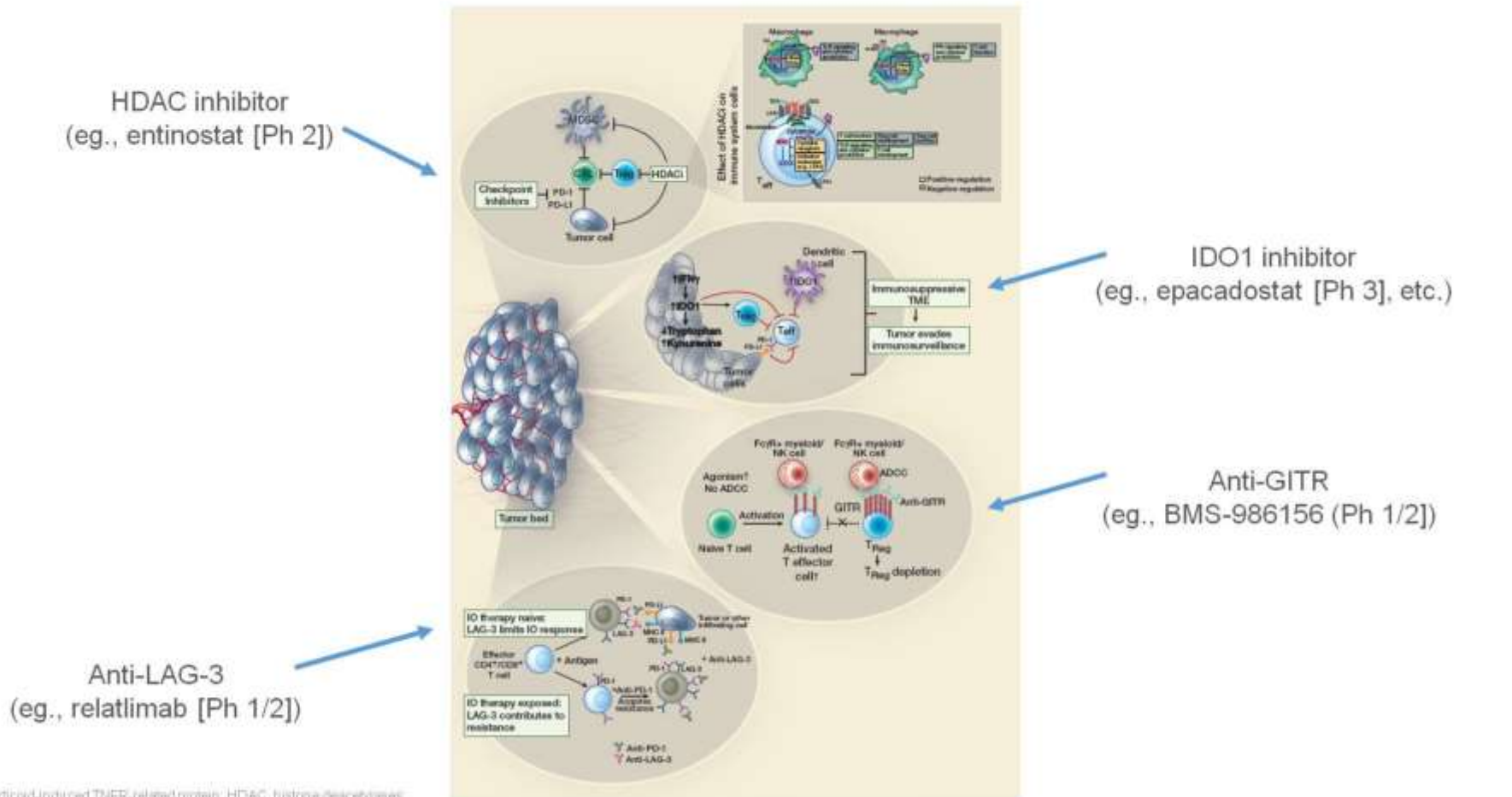
Number at risk

	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
E + P	354	340	322	290	274	263	183	96	42	5
Placebo + P	352	342	323	304	285	263	186	115	43	2

CI, confidence interval; E, epacadostat; HR, hazard ratio; NR, not reached; OS, overall survival; P, pembrolizumab.

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New emerging pathways for future combination with anti-PD-1/PD-L1 compounds



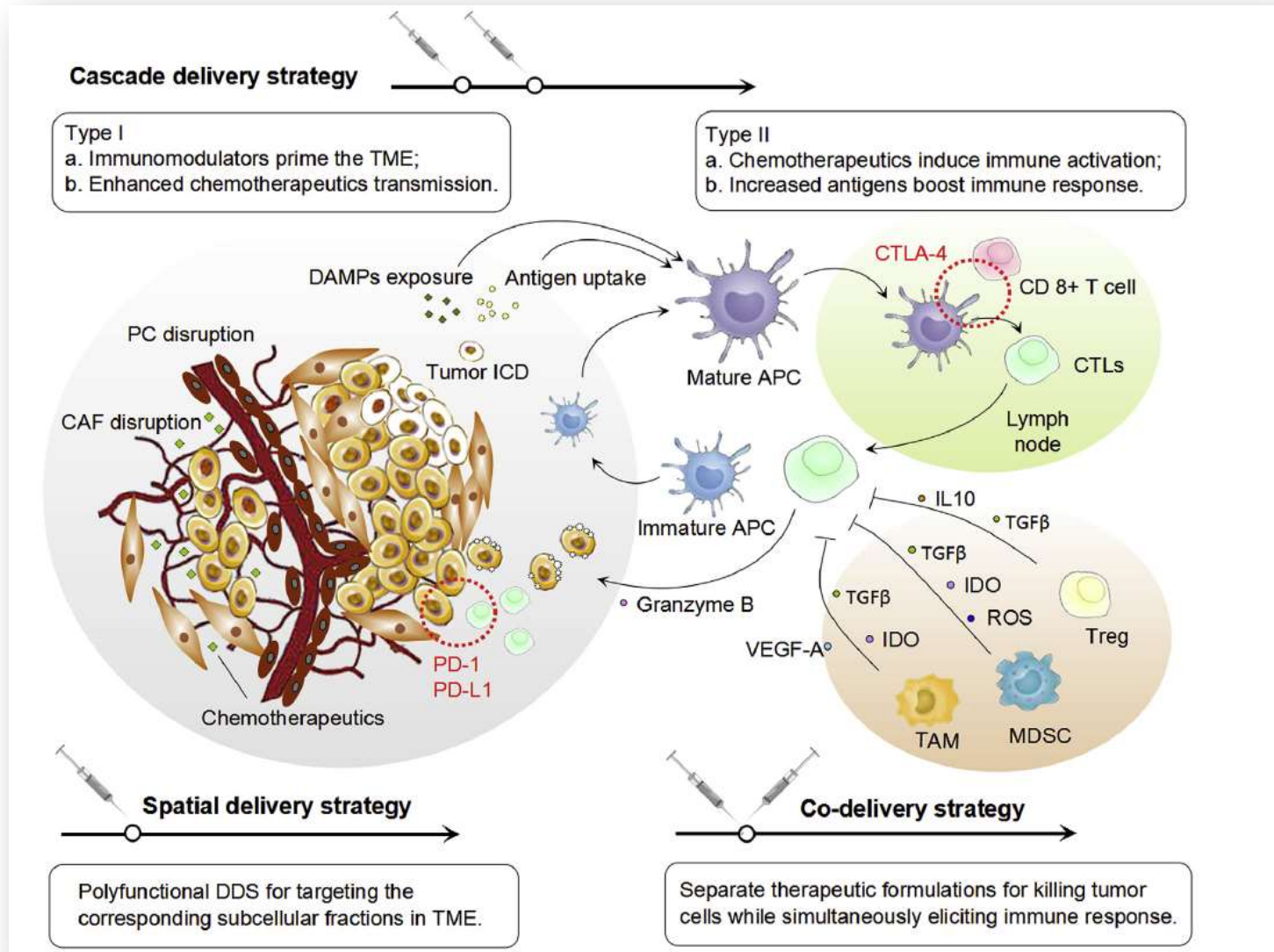
GITR, glucocorticoid-induced TNFR-related protein; HDAC, histone deacetylase; IDO1, indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase 1; LAG-3, lymphocyte-activation gene 3

Strategies in cancer combination therapies using chemotherapy with immunotherapy



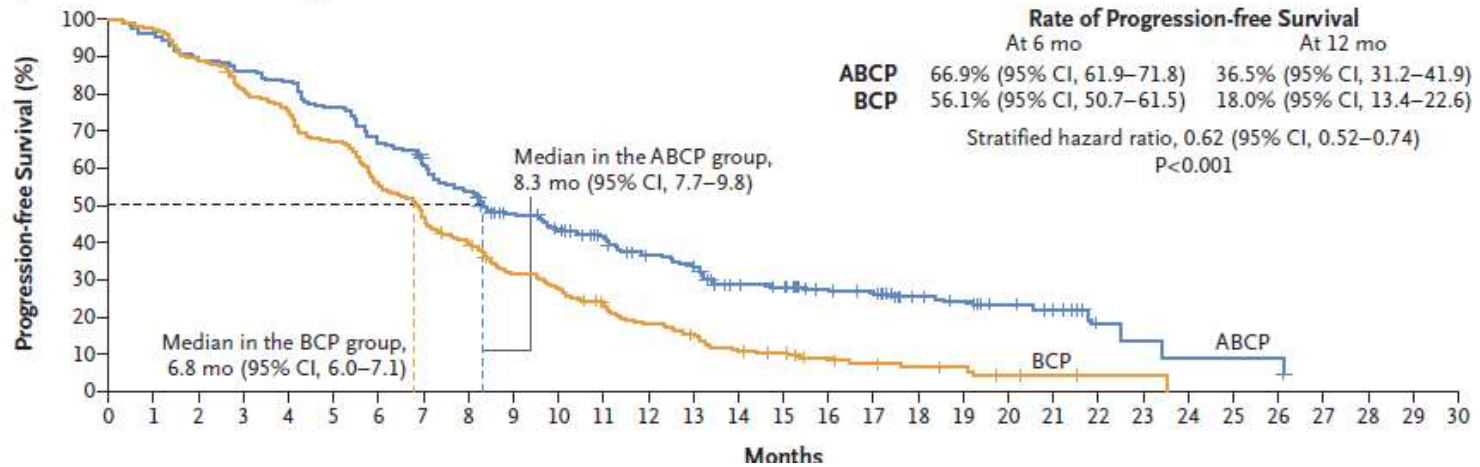
- Chemotherapeutic drugs could elicit immune-potentiating effects by either inducing immunogenicity or relieving tumor-induced immunosuppression
- Some also leave tumors directly susceptible to cytotoxic T cell attacks.
- Mounting evidence accumulated from preclinical and clinical studies suggests that these two treatment modalities might be mutually reinforcing

Chemo-immunotherapy

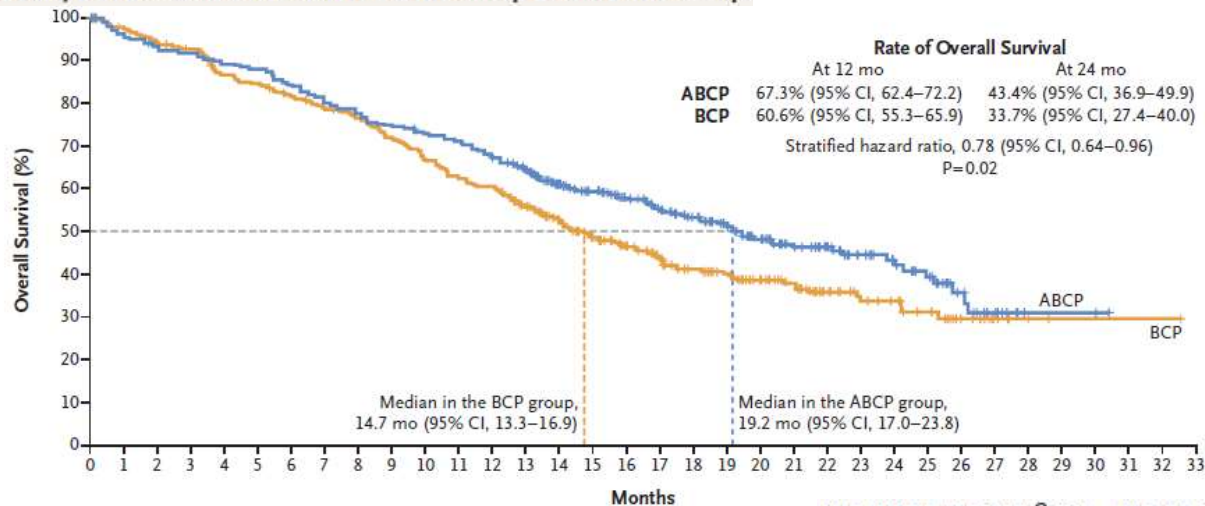


Atezolizumab for First-Line Treatment of Metastatic Nonsquamous NSCLC

Kaplan–Meier Estimates of Progression-free Survival



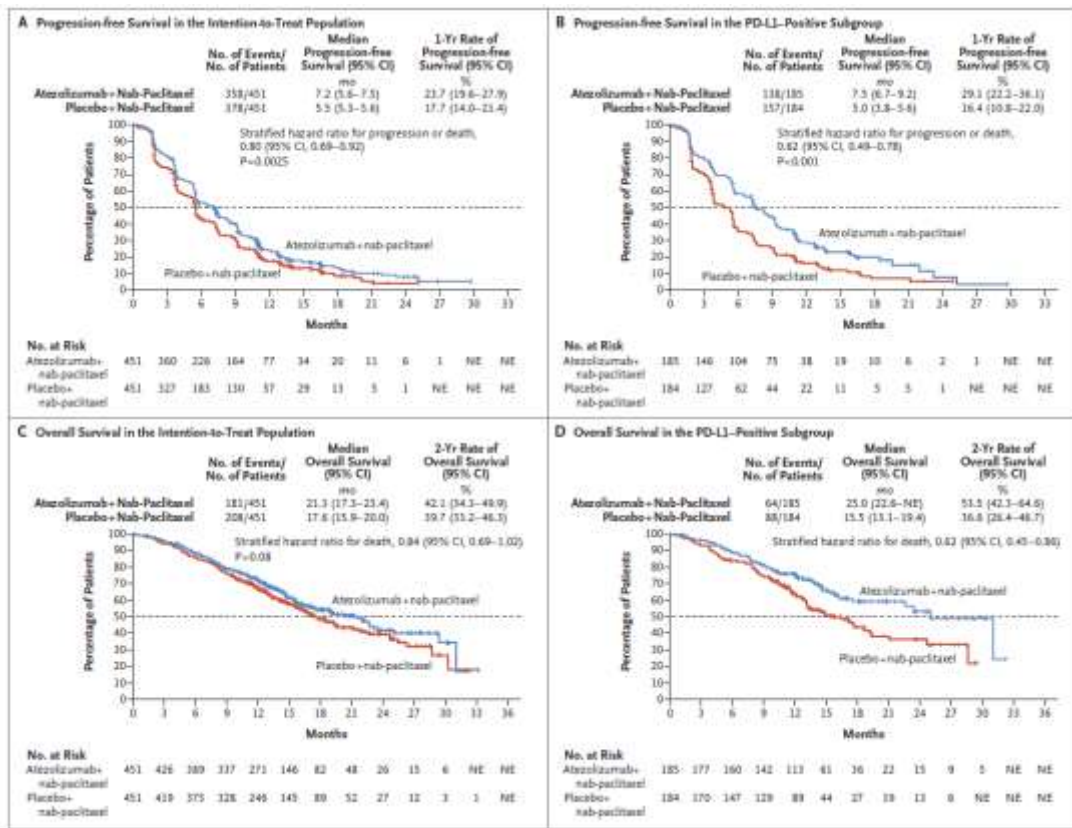
Interim Analysis of Overall Survival in the ABCP Group and the BCP Group.



Atezolizumab and Nab-Paclitaxel in Advanced Triple-Negative Breast Cancer

P. Schmid, S. Adams, H.S. Rugo, A. Schneeweiss, C.H. Barrios, H. Iwata, V. Diéras, R. Hegg, S.-A. Im, G. Shaw Wright, V. Henschel, L. Molinero, S.Y. Chui, R. Funke, A. Husain, E.P. Winer, S. Loi, and L.A. Emens, for the IMpassion130 Trial Investigators*

HTPOTESIS - Chemotherapy may enhance tumor-antigen release and antitumor responses to immune checkpoint inhibition. Taxanes in particular may additionally activate tolllike receptor activity and promote dendritic-cell activity.



Atezolizumab plus nab-paclitaxel prolonged progression-free survival among patients with metastatic triple-negative breast cancer in both the intention-to-treat population and the PD-L1-positive subgroup.

CONCLUSIONS

- Careful consideration must be given to how TME-specific features are incorporated into emerging personalized strategies for combination approaches with immunotherapy to close the gap between responders and nonresponders.
- TME factors should be included in biomarker development for predicting immunotherapeutic efficacy.
- TME-driven resistance mechanisms can be overcome with effective combination therapies to enhance immunotherapy efficacy and durability for patients while reducing adverse effects.