

# Targeting the immune-suppressive tumor microenvironment to potentiate CAR T cell therapy

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## Abstract

Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cell therapy is a promising new immunotherapy that reprograms patient T lymphocytes to specifically recognize and kill tumor cells. CAR T cell therapy has produced some dramatic responses in acute lymphoblastic leukemia and lymphomas, but responses have been less spectacular in solid tumors. To make CAR T cell therapy effective for solid tumors, CAR T cells must overcome an immune-suppressive tumor microenvironment (TME) that attenuates CAR T cell function. This review provides insights into mechanisms of CAR T cell therapy resistance with respect to the TME and offers strategies for improving CAR T cell therapy by targeting immune-suppressive factors in tumors.

## Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cell therapy

CAR T cell therapy is a promising new immunotherapy that provides potential curative treatments for cancer. CARs consist of a tumor-targeting monoclonal antibody-derived single chain variable fragment (scFv) fused to a T cell receptor-derived cytoplasmic signaling domain CD3 $\zeta$  and one or more domains derived from co-stimulatory T cell receptors CD28, 4-1BB, or OX40 (Figure 1A) [1]. When expressed by T cells, CARs redirect T cell specificity to antigens expressed on cancer cells. To deliver CAR T cell therapy, patient T cells are genetically modified to express CAR and then amplified *ex vivo* to numbers suitable for adoptive cell therapy [2]. Recent clinical data provided strong evidence that T cells from patients with B cell malignancies can successfully be redirected to initiate an effective anti-tumor response even at advanced stages of the disease [3-15]. In relapsed or refractory B cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (B-ALL) and certain types of lymphoma, this strategy has led to dramatic complete responses in more than 80% of patients treated with CD19-targeting (CAR19) T cell therapies [3-15]. The FDA has recently approved the CAR T cell products axicabtagene ciloleucel and tisagenlecleucel to treat relapsed or refractory B-ALL and diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL) [8,12,16,17]. CAR T cells can thus be considered as "designer drugs" that are personalized to patients' needs and manufactured to clinical standards.

Using viral vectors to transfer CAR genes to T cells requires complex protocols that are time-consuming and expensive. Compared to viral vectors, non-viral transposon-based gene delivery systems offer a simpler and cheaper alternative for CAR T manufacture with no infectious potential [18-20]. Novel CAR T cells generated using Sleeping Beauty (SB) and PiggyBac (PB) transposon/transposase systems have demonstrated strong efficacy against leukemia cells in preclinical mouse models [18-21]. This preclinical data provided the basis for testing transposon-based CAR T cells in clinical trials in USA, Australia and China [21-23]. Importantly, the decreased cost and complexity of non-viral genome modification methods can widen

patient access to CAR T cell therapies by increasing the number of hospitals capable of implementing them.

## Mechanisms and strategies to overcome immune suppression in the tumor microenvironment (TME)

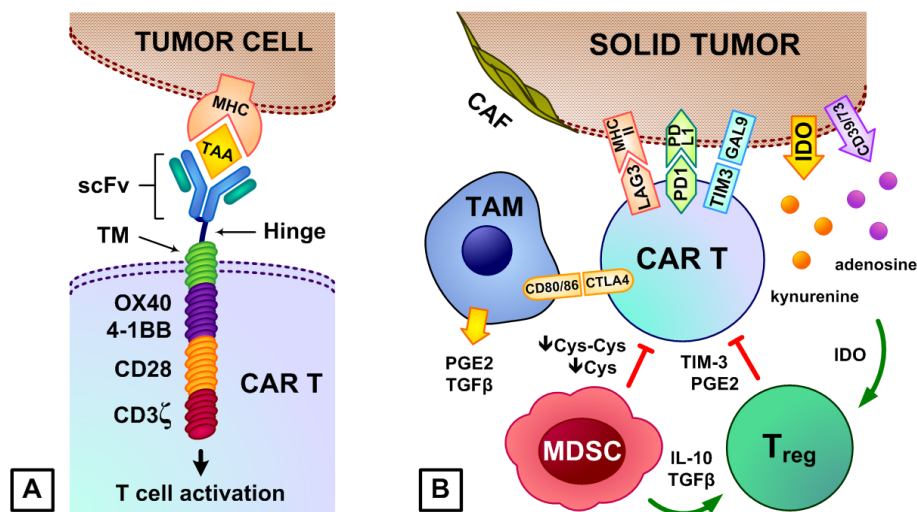
Recent clinical studies have shown that CAR T cells can cure select patients with cancer, while others experience transient or no clinical benefit [4,5,10,15,24,25]. Short duration of remission in patients treated with CAR T cells can be associated with functional CAR T cell exhaustion in the immune-suppressive TME [6,7,26,27]. The immune-suppressive TME considerably reduces the efficacy of CAR T cell therapy against solid tumors such as prostate [28-30], ovarian [31-35], breast [36-39], pancreatic [40-44], and brain [45] cancers. Disialoganglioside (GD2)-targeting CARs incorporating CD28 and OX40 co-stimulatory domains showed efficient CAR T cell infiltration of neuroblastoma tumors; however, the suppression of tumor growth was marginal, suggesting that CAR T cell function is compromised by the immune-suppressive TME [46,47].

The immune-suppressive TME is enriched with regulatory immune cells such as regulatory T cells (Tregs) [48-55], myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) [36,39,56,57], tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) [58-60], and cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) [35,61]. These regulatory immune cells inhibit CAR T cells by releasing suppressive factors such as TGF- $\beta$  [28,30,58,62], IL-4 [43,63,64], IL-10 [40], prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) [65], and immune-suppressive metabolites such as kynurenine and adenosine via indolamine-2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) [59,66,67] and CD39/CD73

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**Figure 1. (A)** Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cells. Derived from tumor-specific monoclonal antibodies, the extracellular single chain variable fragment (scFv) recognizes tumor-associated antigens (TAA) and is connected via the hinge to the transmembrane domain (TM) that anchors to the CAR T cell's plasma membrane. Attached to the TM are intracellular co-stimulatory (CD28, 4-1BB, or OX40) and T cell receptor CD3 $\zeta$ -derived signaling domains that activate the CAR T cell. **(B)** Immune-suppressive cells in the TME lower CAR T anti-tumor activity. Regulatory T cells (Tregs) inhibit CAR T cell proliferation and cytokine production via TIM-3 and prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> (PGE<sub>2</sub>). Myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) suppress T cell activation via cystine (Cys-Cys) and cysteine (Cys) deprivation [72], and facilitate Tregs recruitment and expansion via IL-10 and TGF- $\beta$  [73]. Type II tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) release PGE<sub>2</sub> and TGF- $\beta$ , and express CD80/CD86 that preferentially binds to the inhibitory CTLA-4 receptor in CAR T cells. Cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) physically prevent CAR T cells from accessing tumor antigens. Tumor cells express MHC class II, galectin-9 (Gal9), and PD-L1 that bind to the LAG3, TIM-3, and PD-1 receptors on CAR T cells to promote CAR T cell exhaustion and apoptosis [71]. Immune-suppressive metabolites kynurenine and adenosine are produced via indolamine-2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) and CD39/CD73, and IDO is involved in activation of Tregs [74]

respectively [38,68-70]. Additionally, tumor cells often down-regulate T cell co-stimulatory ligands that would normally promote CAR T cell function, while up-regulating immune-suppressive ligands (MHC class II, galectin-9, PD-L1 and CD86) that activate immune checkpoints (LAG3, TIM-3, PD-1 and CTLA-4) in adoptively transferred CAR T cells (Figure 1B) [71]. Chemoresistant and chemorefractory pediatric B-ALLs exhibit significant interpatient heterogeneity in the expression of 35 genes that encode T cell co-stimulatory and inhibitory ligands, and *in vitro* models showed association of CD86, CD70, ICOSL, OX40, and IL-10 with CAR T cell expansion and exhaustion [26]. B-ALLs exhibit low expression of PD-L1 and CD80/CD86, which activates the PD-1 and CTLA-4 checkpoints in CAR T cells [26]. Unlike B-ALLs, T cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (T-ALL) cells express high levels of PD-L1 and often CD80/CD86, and so can be considered as more immune-suppressive than B-ALL in this respect [26]. B-ALLs from some patients, however, express MHC class II and galectin-9 (Gal9) that bind to the LAG3 and TIM-3 receptors on CAR T cells to promote CAR T cell exhaustion and apoptosis [71].

CARs with multiple co-stimulatory domains and/or genome-edited checkpoint receptors have been engineered to mitigate the immune-suppressive TME [70,72-83]. New approaches also combine CAR T cell therapy with chemotherapeutic drugs, epigenetic modulators, or targeted drugs that attenuate immune suppression in the TME in addition to direct anti-tumor activity [32,36,45,47,48,50,67,84-89]. Some epigenetic drugs up-regulate the tumor's antigen expression for targeting by CAR T cells, up-regulate T cell co-stimulatory ligands, or induce type I interferon responses in tumors against pro-viruses integrated into target cell genomes [90]. The hypomethylating agent 5-azacitidine (AZA) sensitizes leukemia and lymphoma cells to CAR T cell therapy by modulating the TME in leukemia and inducing OX40L to promote CAR T cell function [20,86]. Other epigenetic modulators down-regulate the immune-suppressive ligands that activate specific immune checkpoints in CAR T cells. JQ1, a potent small-molecule bromodomain and extra terminal domain (BET)

inhibitor, down-regulates PD-L1 expression in neuroblastoma and sensitizes neuroblastoma cells to CAR T cell therapy [47,85]. JQ1 also promotes CAR T cell activity by up-regulating interferon regulatory factor 7 (IRF7) signalling to activate type I interferon responses [47,85].

Combining CAR T cells with specific targeted drugs have been shown to promote CAR T cell function [67,84,87,89]. Ibrutinib is a small-molecule drug that binds permanently to Bruton's tyrosine kinase and is used to treat chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL). CLL patients showed prolonged remission after combined treatment with ibrutinib and CAR19 T cells [84,87,89]. Ibrutinib induced mobilization of the disease into blood or bone marrow, where it is highly responsive to CAR T therapy [84,87,89]. Lenalidomide, another targeted drug for treating multiple myeloma (MM), delayed the onset of CAR T cell functional exhaustion in the immune-suppressive TME by potentiating CAR T cells that target B cell maturation antigens in MM [67].

Another promising strategy involves using checkpoint inhibitors to rejuvenate exhausted CAR T cells [70,75-83]. Up-regulation of specific checkpoint ligands such as PD-L1 in inflamed TME induces premature CAR T cell exhaustion. PD-1 checkpoint blockade with PD-1 and/or PD-L1 antagonistic antibodies [91-94] acts to rescue CAR T cells from exhaustion and improve their cytolytic activity in melanoma [77,95-97]. PD-1 checkpoint inhibitors induced remission in B-ALL patients who relapsed following CAR T cell therapy [98], but did not promote CAR T cell efficacy in recent neuroblastoma clinical studies [99], suggesting that additional factors in the TME may be involved in CAR T cell exhaustion in neuroblastoma patients.

Agents targeting Tregs, MDSCs, TAMs, and CAFs in the TME are currently being investigated in the context of CAR T cell therapy against hematological and solid tumors [100-107]. Macrophage colony stimulating factor 1 (CSF1) and granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF) antagonists were shown to inhibit TAMs and MDSCs and promote CAR T cell function [100-102].

## Conclusion

CAR T cell therapy has been a major breakthrough in cancer treatment. Despite encouraging clinical results in certain hematological malignancies, high resistance to CAR T cell therapies has often been reported in patients with solid tumors. Multiple mechanisms contributing to CAR T resistance have led to the design of complex therapeutic strategies to avoid immune suppression in the TME of solid tumors and to increase tumor cell susceptibility to CAR T cell attack. Resistance mechanisms need to be examined in different contexts in order to design effective therapeutic combinations and improve the efficacy of CAR T cell therapy.

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## Author contributions

All authors participated in the preparation, writing and revision of the manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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