

# Immuno-Oncology (I-O) Therapy Basics Fact Sheet

*Utilizing the body's own immune system to fight cancer.*

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

### 2 ..... Introduction to I-O therapy

- What's I-O?
- Cancer can evade the immune system
- I-O therapy regimens

### 3 ..... I-O therapy classes and AEs

- Passive immunotherapies
- Active immunotherapies
- I-O therapy-associated AEs
- Clinical implications

### 5 ..... I-O across disease states

- Potential applicability of I-O for different tumor types

### 6 ..... Monitoring response in I-O

- Multi-step response
- Patterns of response
- Pseudo-progression
- Non-conventional response kinetics

### 8 ..... References

## INTRODUCTION TO I-O THERAPY

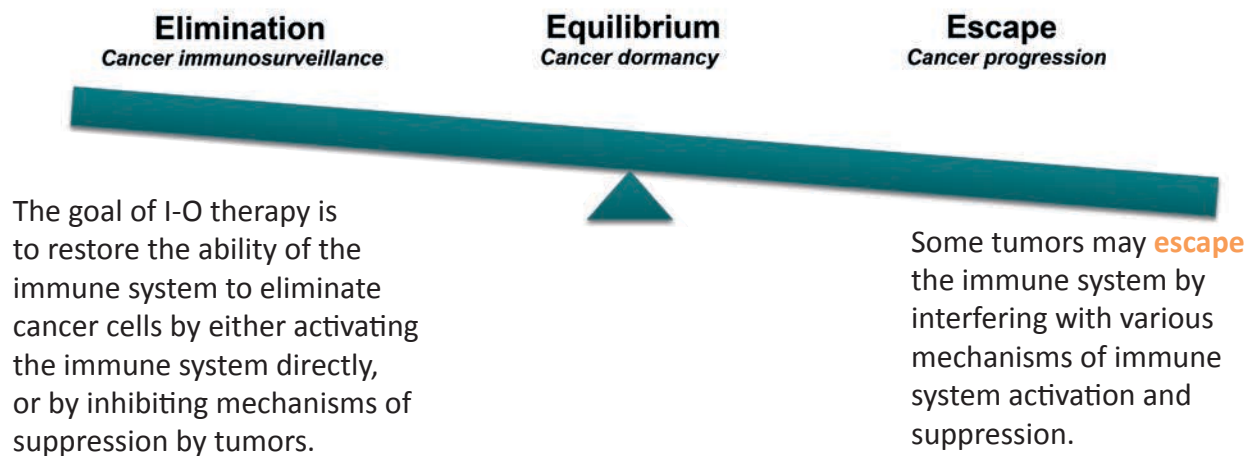
**WHAT'S I-O?** – Immuno-Oncology therapy (or I-O therapy) is an emerging pillar of cancer treatment that utilizes the body's own immune system to fight diseases.<sup>1-3</sup>

I-O has progressed considerably in the last 30 years with approvals for the use of various I-O therapies including vaccines, cytokines, tumor-directed monoclonal antibodies, and immune checkpoint inhibitors.<sup>2,4</sup>

**CANCER CAN EVADE THE IMMUNE SYSTEM** – As normal cells progressively evolve to a neoplastic state, they are thought to acquire a succession of hallmark capabilities; **one emerging hallmark is the ability to avoid immune destruction.**<sup>5</sup>

The process by which the immune system recognizes, destroys, and sculpts tumors is known as **immunoediting.**<sup>6</sup> There are 3 phases in immunoediting<sup>6,7</sup>:

- 1. ELIMINATION** (cancer immunosurveillance) - Cancer cells are detected by the immune system and/or eliminated.<sup>6,7</sup> Tumor cells not destroyed may enter the equilibrium phase.<sup>6,7</sup>
- 2. EQUILIBRIUM** (cancer dormancy) - Some cancer cells persist, but the immune system prevents tumor outgrowth.<sup>6,7</sup>
- 3. ESCAPE** (cancer progression) - Resistant variant cells acquire the ability to evade immune detection or elimination.<sup>6,7</sup> This results in clinically apparent disease.<sup>7</sup>

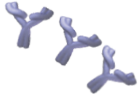


**I-O THERAPY REGIMENS** – I-O therapies have the potential to be used as **monotherapy** or part of **combination** regimens.<sup>9</sup>

I-O therapies are designed for various specific targets in the antitumor immune response; because of this, it is thought that combinations of complimentary I-O therapies may have the potential to enhance antitumor effects.<sup>9,101</sup> There is also a potential for enhanced antitumor activity in combining I-O therapies with other cancer treatment modalities.<sup>9,101</sup>

## I-O THERAPY CLASSES AND AEs

**PASSIVE IMMUNOTHERAPIES** - Passive immunotherapies act on the tumor, in some cases using immune-based mechanisms to fight cancer, but they do not require the patient's own immune system to initiate a response.



**Tumor-directed monoclonal antibodies (mAbs)** can be produced *in vitro* with an affinity to a specific tumor-associated antigen (TAA).<sup>13</sup> When injected into a cancer-bearing patient,<sup>14</sup> they may assist with a number of specific antitumor immune functions, including: (a) marking tumor cells for destruction,<sup>13,15-17</sup> (b) interfering with immune receptor signaling,<sup>13,15-17</sup> (c) promoting immune receptor degradation,<sup>13</sup> and (d) delivering anti-cancer agents directly to tumor cells.<sup>18-19</sup> Monoclonal antibodies are widely used in oncology therapy today.<sup>4</sup>

**Potential Adverse Effects:** toxic autoimmune responses may arise against non-malignant cells with the same tumor-associated antigens, or even against cells displaying completely different antigens.<sup>20</sup>



**Cell Therapies** involve the harvesting of tumor-infiltrating T cells from resected tumors or from the blood.<sup>20,21</sup> T cells are then activated, expanded, and genetically modified *in vitro*, away from the immunosuppressive tumor environment in the body.<sup>21,22</sup> When the T cells are re-injected into the patient, they can enhance the immune response.<sup>22,23</sup>

**Potential Adverse Effects:** re-injected immune cells can target normal cells as well as tumor cells if they display the same target antigens.<sup>20</sup>

**ACTIVE IMMUNOTHERAPIES** – Active immunotherapies act directly on the body's own immune system to elicit an immune response to fight cancer



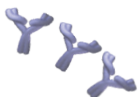
**Therapeutic Cancer Vaccines** may prime the immune system to boost the antitumor response by introducing T and B cells to one or more tumor-associated antigens.<sup>24-25</sup>

**Potential Adverse Effects:** cancer vaccines may lead to the generation of T cells that attack self-antigens in normal, healthy tissue.<sup>20</sup>



**Cytokines** are proteins that modulate the expansion, activation, and survival of lymphocytes.<sup>20</sup> They are thought to facilitate T cell, B cell, and NK cell proliferation and effector function, thereby strengthening the antitumor response.<sup>20,27</sup>

**Potential Adverse Effects:** increased lymphocyte activity may be directed against normal tissues, leading to T cell, B cell, or NK cell-mediated auto-immunities.<sup>20</sup>



**Mediators of T-cell activation** are monoclonal antibodies that have been engineered to activate T cells by (a) antagonizing inhibitory immune checkpoint pathways, or (b) agonizing co-stimulatory signaling pathways.<sup>28</sup> In doing so, they may be able to strengthen the antitumor response.<sup>28</sup>

**Potential Adverse Effects:** interfering with immune checkpoints can cause a general disruption in immune homeostasis, leading to a greater number of self-reactive T cells that can attack healthy tissues.<sup>20</sup>

## I-O THERAPY CLASSES AND AEs, CONTINUED

**I-O THERAPY-ASSOCIATED AEs** – I-O therapy-associated adverse events (AEs) have been found to target certain organ systems<sup>20</sup>:

- Skin<sup>20,29-32</sup>
- Endocrine system<sup>29,31-35</sup>
- Liver<sup>29,32,36,37</sup>
- Gastrointestinal tract<sup>29,32,34,38</sup>
- Nervous system<sup>32,35,39,40</sup>
- Eyes<sup>20,31,41-43</sup>
- Respiratory system<sup>20,32,35,40,44</sup>
- Hematopoietic cells<sup>34,37,45,46</sup>

**CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS** – Many tumor-associated antigens can also be expressed by normal cells in the body so there is a potential for toxicity against healthy tissues.<sup>20</sup> AEs can be serious and potentially fatal, so vigilance should be maintained throughout and after treatment. Patients should be educated and encouraged to monitor for and report symptoms of immune-associated AEs.

**Not all AEs can be managed and some patients may have to discontinue treatment. To give patients the best chance of therapeutic success, follow management guidelines for immune-associated AEs.**

## I-O ACROSS DISEASE STATES

**POTENTIAL APPLICABILITY OF I-O THERAPY FOR DIFFERENT TUMOR TYPES** – Tumor-mediated **inhibition** of the immune system had been observed in multiple tumor types:

| Tumor type           | Infiltrating immune cells | Evidence of tumor-associated immunosuppression | Tumor-immune system interactions correlate with clinical prognosis |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Bladder              | ● 47                      | ● 48,49  | ● 47,48  |
| Breast               | ● 50,51                   | ● 28,52  | ● 50,53  |
| Colorectal           | ● 50,54,55,57             | ● 56   | ● 28,47,50,54,55   |
| Esophageal           | ● 47,50                   | ● 52   | ● 47,50  |
| Gastric              | ● 56                      | ● 52,56  | ● 56   |
| Head and neck        | ● 57                      | ● 57,58  | ● 57   |
| Hepatocellular       | ● 59                      | ● 8,59   | ● 59   |
| Leukemia             | --                        | ● 60   | --   |
| Lung                 | ● 61,62                   | ● 28,52,56,63                                  | ● 28,61,62   |
| Lymphoma             | --                        | ● 28   | --   |
| Melanoma             | ● 8,28,50,64              | ● 8,28,65                                      | ● 28,8,64,50   |
| Ovarian              | ● 47,50                   | ● 8,28,52,66                                   | ● 47,50,66   |
| Pancreatic           | ● 51,67                   | ● 56   | --   |
| Prostate             | ● 50                      | --   | ● 8,50   |
| Renal cell carcinoma | ● 47,50,68                | ● 8,68   | ● 47,50,68   |

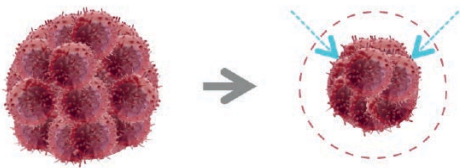
## MONITORING RESPONSE IN I-O

**MULTI-STEP RESPONSE TO I-O** – Therapies that affect the immune system may not induce a measurable impact on tumor growth **immediately** after administration.<sup>79</sup>

After initial I-O therapy administration, immune activation and T-cell proliferation could start within **days to weeks**.<sup>80</sup> However, clinically measurable immune-mediated antitumor effects may not occur until **weeks to months** after initial administration and potential effect on survival may not be seen until **several months** after initial administration.<sup>80</sup>

**PATTERNS OF TUMOR RESPONSE TO I-O** – There are 4 potential patterns of response:

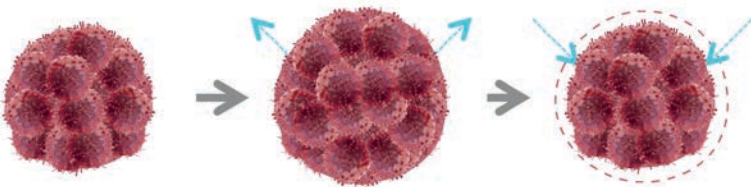
1. Immediate response<sup>81</sup>



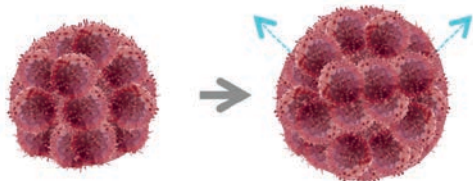
2. Lack of tumor shrinkage but a slowing of tumor progression<sup>79-84,90</sup>



3. Tumor regression after early radiographical progression<sup>81,83-89</sup>



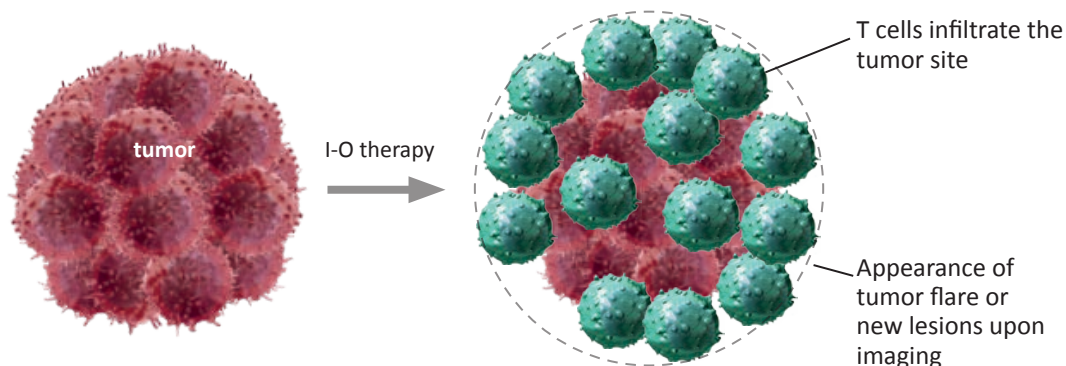
4. Early but clinically insignificant progression<sup>81,84,90,91</sup>



There is also the potential that patients may not respond to therapy.

## MONITORING RESPONSE IN I-O, CONTINUED

**PSEUDO-PROGRESSION IN I-O THERAPY** – Initial apparent radiographic progression after I-O therapy can actually be a sign of **pseudo-progression**. Pseudo-progression may occur when T cells infiltrate the tumor site and cause tumors to flare or new lesions to appear upon imaging.<sup>32,92,93</sup>



There are considerations for evaluating **true progression vs. pseudo-progression**:

**True progression** may be indicated if the patient is experiencing a **deterioration in performance status**, and a worsening of systemic symptoms, and/or symptoms of tumor enlargement. True progression is also accompanied by an **increase in baseline tumor burden** and an appearance and growth of new lesions; biopsies may reveal evidence of tumor growth.<sup>94</sup>

However, **pseudo-progression** may be present if the patient's performance status and systemic symptoms **remain stable or improve**, and if any increase in baseline tumor burden or new lesions is followed by a **noticeable response**. There may also be evidence of **T-cell infiltration** in tumor biopsies if pseudo-progression is present.<sup>92</sup>

**NON-CONVENTIONAL RESPONSE KINETICS** – I-O therapies in certain disease states have demonstrated non-conventional response kinetics, such as the appearance of progression or lack of tumor shrinkage:

| Disease state              | I-O class  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Gastrointestinal carcinoma | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recombinant vector vaccine<sup>88</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Kaposi sarcoma             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cytokine<sup>95</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Kidney cancer              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Checkpoint inhibitor<sup>83</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Melanoma                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tumor cell vaccine<sup>96</sup></li> <li>• Tumor cell vaccine + checkpoint inhibitor<sup>97</sup></li> <li>• Recombinant vector vaccine<sup>89</sup></li> <li>• Dendritic-cell vaccine<sup>101</sup></li> </ul> |
| Non-small cell lung cancer | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Peptide vaccine<sup>90</sup></li> <li>• Checkpoint inhibitor<sup>93</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Ovarian cancer             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recombinant vector vaccine<sup>98</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Pancreatic cancer          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recombinant vector vaccine<sup>98</sup></li> </ul>  |
| Prostate cancer            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dendritic-cell vaccine<sup>99</sup></li> <li>• Recombinant vector vaccine<sup>100</sup></li> </ul>  |

## REFERENCES

1. DeVita BT, Rosenberg SA. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366:2207-2214.
2. Kirkwood JM, et al. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2012;62:309-335.
3. Murphy JF. *Oncology*. 2010;4:67-80.
4. CenterWatch. FDA Approved Drugs for Oncology. <http://www.centerwatch.com/drug-information/fda-approvals/drug-areas.aspx?ArealD=12>. Accessed May 8, 2014.
5. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. *Cell*. 2011; 144(5) 646-674.
6. Vesely MD, et al. *Ann Rev Immunol*. 2011; 29:235-271.
7. Schreiber RD, et al. *Science*. 2011;331:1565-1570.
8. Mellman et al. *Nature*. 2011; 480:480-489.
9. Drake CG. *Ann Oncol*. 2012;23(suppl 8):viii41-viii46.
10. Brody J, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2011;29:1864-1875.
11. Smits ELJM, et al. *Oncologist*. 2009;14:240-252.
12. Rescigno M, et al. *Biochimica Biophys Acta*. 2007;1776:108-123.
13. Hudis CA. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;357:39-51.
14. Ossipow V & Fischer N. *Monoclonal Antibodies: Methods and Protocols*. 2nd ed. New York, NY; 2014.
15. Lundin J, et al. *Blood*. 2002;100:768-773.
16. Coiffier B, et al. *Blood*. 2008;111:1094-1100.
17. Smith MB, et al. *Drugs Today*. 2012;48:713-722.
18. Verma S, et al. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;367:1783-1791.
19. Bodet-Milin C, et al. *Front Oncol*. 2013;3:1-13.
20. Amos SM, et al. *Blood*. 2011;118:499-509.
21. Chacon JA, et al. *PLoS One*. 2013;8:e60031.
22. Rosenberg SA. *Sci Transl Med*. 2012;4(127ps8):1-5.
23. West EJ, et al. *Br J Cancer*. 2011;105:787-795.
24. American Cancer Society. <http://www.cancer.org/treatment/treatmentsandsideeffects/treatmenttypes/immunotherapy/immunotherapy-cancer-vaccines>. Accessed May 12, 2014.
25. Bedikian AY, Del Vecchio MD. *Expert Opin Biol Ther*. 2008;8:839-844.
26. Schlom J. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2012;104:599-613.
27. List T, Neri D. *Clin Pharmacol*. 2013;5(suppl 1):29-45.
28. Pardoll DM. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2012;12:252-264.
29. Phan GQ, et al. *PNAS*. 2003;100:8372-8377.
30. Rosenberg SA and White DE. *Immunother Emphasis Tumor Immunol*. 1996;19:81-84.
31. Chianese-Bullock KA, et al. *J Immunother*. 2005;28:412-419.
32. Chow LQ. *Am Soc Clin Oncol Educ Book*. 2013:280-285.
33. Soni N, et al. *Cancer Immunol Immunother*. 1996;43:59-62.
34. Ronnblom LE, et al. *Ann Intern Med*. 1991;115:178-183.
35. Fraenkel PG, et al. *J Immunother*. 2002;25:373-378.
36. Lamers CH, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2006;24:e20-e22.
37. Roskrow MA, et al. *Leuk Res*. 1999;23:549-557.
38. Parkhurst MR, et al. *Mol Ther*. 2011;19:620-626.
39. Pellkofer H, et al. *Brain*. 2004;127:1822-1830.
40. Smalley RV, et al. *Blood*. 1991;78:3133-3141.
41. Dudley ME, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26:5233-5239.
42. Yeh S, et al. *Ophthalmology*. 2009;116:981-989.
43. Robinson MR, et al. *J Immunother*. 2004;27:478-479.
44. Morgan RA, et al. *Mol Ther*. 2010;18:843-851.
45. Kochenderfer JN, et al. *Blood*. 2010;116:4099-4102.
46. Lin TS, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;28:4500-4506.
47. Sharma P, et al. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2007;104:3967-3972.
48. Winerdal ME, et al. *BJU Int*. 2011;108:1672-1678.
49. Inman BA, et al. *Cancer*. 2007;109:1499-1505.
50. Zhang L, et al. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;348:203-213.
51. Liyanage UK, et al. *J Immunol*. 2002;169:2756-2761.
52. Ichihara F, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2003;9:4404-4408.
53. Rody A, et al. *Breast Cancer Res*. 2009;11:1-13.
54. Pages F, et al. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;353:2654-2666.
55. Salama P, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009;27:186-192.
56. Kono K, et al. *Cancer Immunol Immunother*. 2006;55:1064-1071.
57. Badoual C, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2006;12:465-472.
58. Schaefer C, et al. *Br J Cancer*. 2005;92:913-920.
59. Gao Q, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2009;15:971-979.
60. Karube K, et al. *Br J Haematol*. 2004;126:81-84.
61. Dieu-Nosjean MC, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2008;26:4410-4417.
62. Hiraoka K, et al. *Br J Cancer*. 2006;94:275-280.
63. Woo EY, et al. *J Immunol*. 2002;168:4272-4276.
64. Taylor RC, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25:869-875.
65. Chapon M, et al. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2011;131:1300-1307.
66. Hamanishi J, et al. *PNAS*. 2007;104:3360-3365.
67. Kärjä V, et al. *Anticancer Res*. 2005;25:4435-4438.
68. Thompson RH, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2007;13:1757-1761.
69. Naito Y, et al. *Cancer Res*. 1998;58:3491-3494.
70. Galon J, et al. *Science*. 2006;313:1960-1964.
71. Huber V, et al. *Gastroenterology*. 2005;128:1796-1804.
72. Ho M-Y, et al. *J Biomed Biotech*. 2011;2011:1-10.
73. Törmänen-Näpänkangas U, et al. *APMIS*. 2001;109:525-532.
74. Zhuang X, et al. *Appl Immunohistochem Mol Morphol*. 2010;18:24-28.
75. Maio M. *Ann Oncol*. 2012;23:viii10-viii14.
76. van der Bruggen P, et al. *Science*. 1991;254:1643-1647.
77. Piras F, et al. *Cancer*. 2005;104:1246-1254.
78. Chapuis AG, et al. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2012;109:4592-4597.
79. Hoos A and Britten CM. *Oncol Immunology*. 2012;1:334-339.
80. Hoos A, et al. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2010;102:1388-1397.
81. Fox BA, et al. *J Transl Med*. 2011; 9:214-226.
82. Madan RA et al. *Oncologist*. 2010; 15:969-975.
83. Lipson EJ. *Oncol Immunology*. 2013;2:e23661-3.
84. Slovin SR. *Front Oncol*. 2012;2:43.
85. John T, et al. *PLoS One*. 2013-8:e67876.
86. Aarntzem EHJF, et al. *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2013; 70:2237-2257.
87. FDA Guidance for Industry: *Clinical Considerations for Therapeutic Cancer Vaccines*. 2009.
88. Sze DY, et al. *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 2003;14:279-290.
89. Senzer NN, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2009; 27:5763-5771.
90. Suzuki H, et al. *J Transl Med*. 2013;11:97-106.
91. Naik JD, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2011;17:4214-4224.
92. Wolchok JD, et al. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2009;15:7412-7420.
93. Topalian SL, et al. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366:2443-2354.
94. Eisenhauer EA, et al. *Eur J Cancer*. 2009;45:228-247.
95. Little RF, et al. *Blood*. 2006;107:4650-4657.
96. Berd D, et al. *Int J Cancer*. 2001;94:531-539.
97. Hodi FS, et al. *PNAS*. 2008;105:3005-3010.
98. Koski A, et al. *Mol Ther*. 2010;18:1874-1884.
99. Small EJ, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2006;24:3089-3094.
100. Kantoff PW, et al. *J Clin Oncol*. 2010;29:1099-1105.
101. Ribas A, et al. *Curr Opin Immunol*. 2013;25:291-296.



Bristol-Myers Squibb

©2014 Bristol-Myers Squibb Company. All rights reserved.  
ONCUS14UB00780-03-01 05/14



Immuno-Oncology