How to Cite:

Karasu, S. M., Acharya, K., Siddiqui, N., Khan, I., Subashini, M., & Dutta, R. (2022). Immune checkpoints inhibitors in cancer therapy-current status and future prospects. *International Journal of Health Sciences*, *6*(S4), 12320–12332. <https://doi.org/10.53730/ijhs.v6nS4.11963>

Immune checkpoints inhibitors in cancer therapy-current status and future prospects

Sai Meghana Karasu

Department of Animal Biology and Biotechnology, University of Hyderabad Corresponding author email: kmeghana1182@gmail.com

Dr Kirtish Acharya

Department of Physiology, MKCG medical college, University of Berhampur Email: kirtish97@gmail.com

Nadeem Siddiqui

Department of Biotechnology, Koneru Lakshmaiah Education Foundation, Vaddeswaram, Guntur Email: siddiqui@kluniversity.in

Imad Khan

School of Pharmaceutical Education and Research, Jamia Hamdard University Email: khanimad145@gmail.com

Subashini M

Department of Biotechnology, Lady Doak College, Madurai Kamaraj University, Madurai Email: suba7official@gmail.com

Rhishika Dutta

Department of Biotechnology, Garden City University, Noida Email: rhishika24@gmail.com

> Abstract---The field of oncology is revolutionized by immunotherapy. immunotherapy is a fundamental breakthrough in cancer treatment that focuses on boosting the natural defense for malignant cell elimination. Cancer immunotherapy is of different forms including, virus therapies, adoptive cell transfer, cytokine therapies, immune checkpoint inhibitors, and cancer vaccines, all of which have promise future developments and clinical applications. To maintain homeostasis several pathways of immune signaling are employed that inhibit or stimulate immune responses. These immune signaling pathways help to keep immune responses maintained by avoiding autoimmunity and chronic inflammation, these immune signals that

International Journal of Health Sciences ISSN 2550-6978 E-ISSN 2550-696X © 2022.

Manuscript submitted: 9 April 2022, Manuscript revised: 18 June 2022, Accepted for publication: 27 July 2022 12320

regulate immune responses in the body are also known as immune checkpoints. The responses of numerous self-regulating checkpoints of the immune system are exploited by the cancerous cells. Immune checkpoint inhibitors and monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are becoming the most important immunotherapies, despite the progress of Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT). ICIs are the antibodies that inhibit the receptors of the immune checkpoint, PD-1/PD-L1, and CTLA-4. It has potential benefits in cancer treatment for long-term survival and antitumor effect production in malignancies of a broad spectrum. Numerous patients with a wide range of solid and hematological malignancies now have better prognoses because of immunotherapy, which has established itself as a key component of cancer treatment. The two main reasons that have contributed to this success are chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cells, and checkpoint inhibitors (CPIs) . This review article is aiming to summarize immune therapeutic methods used in cancer therapy, the role of different immune checkpoints in immune system cells, and different types of immune checkpoint inhibitors and their applications.

Keywords---checkpoint receptor, immune checkpoint inhibitors, checkpoint ligands, CTLA-4, PD-1, immunotherapy, cancer treatment.

Introduction

A biological therapy called immunotherapy targets the body's immune system to combat cancer. [1]. Usually, the immune system does not recognize cancer in the body, hence it survives unchecked. The immune system is supported by immunotherapy to detect and treat cancer. Cancer is characterized by genomic instability as it is a genomic disease [2]. Numerous structural alterations and point mutation accumulation occur in the tumor progression process. Tumor antigens are risen by genomic variations, these tumor antigens are recognized as elicit, and non-self cellular immune responses by the immune system [3]. Malignant cells are eradicated or impaired based on their functions and phenotypes by the effective immune responses. Multiple evolving mechanisms like negative regulatory pathways upregulation, immunosuppressive cell populations recruitment, and antigen presentation machinery defects, for immune surveillance escaping, as a result, it shows antitumor immune responses abrogation and immune cells functioning as impeded effector [4].

The field of oncology is revolutionized by immunotherapy. immunotherapy is a fundamental breakthrough in cancer treatment that focuses on boosting the natural defense for malignant cell elimination [5]. In recent years noticeable advances and developments have been achieved in clinical investigations. Sustainable clinical responses to immunotherapy have been shown in multiple cancer types [6]. Cancer immunotherapy is of different forms including, virus therapies, Immune checkpoint inhibitors, adoptive cell transfer, cancer vaccines, and cytokine treatments all exhibit promise development and clinical uses [7]. Each strategy's basic principle and the molecular and cellular underpinning are depicted in each step concern to (NK) natural killer, (TCR) T-cell receptor, (CAT-T)

12322

chimeric antigen receptor T-cell, and (DC) dendritic cells. Including ACT, immune Checkpoints inhibitors (ICI), and cancer vaccines, cancer immunotherapy have great advantages and applications [5].

To date, there are several treatments available for cancer. The treatment to be given depending on some factors like the type of cancer, stage of cancer, patients' general health, and treatment preferences [8]. The treatment is being finalized mutually by the doctor and patients. The several methods of cancer therapy include Chemotherapy, Bone marrow transplant, Surgery, Hormone therapy, Radiation therapy, Immunotherapy, Targeted drug therapy, Radiofrequency ablation, Cryoablation, and Clinical trials [9].

Checkpoints are the proteins made up of several cells of immune systems, like T cells. Immune responses are prevented from being strong by these checkpoints and it also prevents cancer cell killing from T cells [10]. T cells can kill cancer only when the checkpoints are blocked. The checkpoint proteins found on the cancer cell or T cells include CTLA-4 (B7-1/B7-2 checkpoint ligands), and PD-1 (PD-L1/PD-L2 checkpoint ligands). Most recently immune checkpoint inhibitors are in great demand for the treatment of cancer [11].

The checkpoint inhibitors are drugs of immunotherapy that prevent the binding of immune checkpoints to their partner proteins [12]. This blocking allows T cells to kill cancer cells by preventing the signals from being sent for immunization. Different types of cancers are approved to get treated by immune checkpoint inhibitors, such as [bladder cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000444968&version=Patient&language=en) [colon cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000044237&version=Patient&language=en) [Hodgkin lymphoma,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000270800&version=Patient&language=en) [lung](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000445043&version=Patient&language=en) [cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000445043&version=Patient&language=en) [skin cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000445084&version=Patient&language=en) including [melanoma,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000045135&version=Patient&language=en) [rectal cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000529764&version=Patient&language=en) [breast cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000444971&version=Patient&language=en) [head and](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000257519&version=Patient&language=en) [neck cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000257519&version=Patient&language=en) [cervical cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000444973&version=Patient&language=en) [liver cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000044242&version=Patient&language=en) [stomach cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000445087&version=Patient&language=en) renal [cell cancer,](https://www.cancer.gov/Common/PopUps/popDefinition.aspx?id=CDR0000044988&version=Patient&language=en) [13][14]. This review article is aiming to summarize immune therapeutic methods used in cancer therapy, the role of different immune checkpoints in immune system cells, and different types of immune checkpoint inhibitors and their applications.

Basics of cancer therapy

Curing cancer is the aim of cancer treatments. If complete curing is not possible the treatments may apply to shrink the cancer cells, slow down the cancer cell growth, or reduce the adverse effects of cancer cells [15]. Cancer may be treated by using primary treatment which aiming completely remove cancer from the patient's body or to kill all the cancerous cells [16]. Surgery is the most frequent treatment for the most general type of cancer. Chemotherapy and radiation therapy can also be used as primary treatment if the cancer is particularly sensitive to it [17]. Adjuvant treatment is another type that aims to killing the cancer cells that remain un-killed after the primary treatment to reduce the chances of cancer recurring [18]. Hormone therapy, chemotherapy, and radiation therapy can be used as adjuvant therapy. Neoadjuvant therapy is also a similar treatment but it would be used before primary treatment use to increase the effectiveness of primary treatment and to make it easier [19].

Palliative treatment therapy is applicable for relieving treatment signs, symptoms, and side effects caused by cancer itself [20]. For relieving symptoms radiation therapy, surgery, hormone therapy, and chemotherapy can be used. Shortness of breathing and pain can be reduced by using other types of medications. Palliative treatment can be given simultaneously with other treatments for curing cancer [21].

Surgery is the treatment for cancer that aims to remove cancer as much as possible. Chemotherapy is the process of eliminating cancer cells with chemicals or medications [22]. energy beams of high-powered, such as protons or X-rays, are used in cancer cell killing radiation therapy. In radiation therapy, external beam radiation is used which came from a machine outside the patient's body [15]. Bone marrow is present within the bones responsible for making stem cells of the blood. Stem cell transplant is an alternative term for bone marrow transplant. Both the bone marrow of the patient and the bone marrow of the donor may be used in a bone marrow transplant [23]. In the event of a bone marrow transplant, doctors may provide high dosages of chemotherapy. Immunotherapy is a treatment method that uses patients' immune systems to cure cancer. It is also called biological therapy. Usually, the immune system does not recognize cancer in the body, hence it survives unchecked. The immune system is supported by immunotherapy to identify and treat cancer [24]. prostate cancer and breast cancer are types of cancer that can be fueled by several hormones of the body. To block or remove those hormones from a body is found to be effective for reducing or stopping cancer cell growth. Within the cancerous cells, specific abnormalities can be focused on by the target drug delivery method for cancer therapy. Clinical trials are an investigative method for cancer treatments [25].

Immune checkpoints inhibitors

Different Immune checkpoints and their function

To maintain homeostasis several pathways of immune signaling are employed that inhibit or stimulate immune responses [26]. These immune signaling pathways help to keep immune responses maintained by avoiding autoimmunity and chronic inflammation. These pathways of immune signaling prevent selfharm and show optimal immune responses against foreign antigens as they are designed for that. These immune signals that regulate immune responses in the body are termed immune checkpoints [27]. Some immune checkpoint receptors with their ligands and types of regulations are given in table 1 [28].

Table 1. Immune checkpoint receptors with their ligands and types of regulations [28]

12324

*****CTLA-4 - Cytotoxic T Lymphocyte Antigen, PDL-1 - Programmed Cell Death Ligand 1, PD-1 - Programmed Cell Death Protein, MHC - Major Histocompatibility Complex, LAG-3 - Lymphocyte-Activation Gene 3; GITR - Glucocorticoid-Induced Tumor Necrosis Factor Receptor, TIM-3, T cell immunoglobulin mucin 3, TIGIT - T cell immunoreceptor with Ig and ITIM domains.

The responses of numerous self-regulating checkpoints of the immune system are exploited by the cancerous cells [29]. Immune responses are regulated negatively by manipulating these immune checkpoints. For example, myeloid-derived T cells, stimulation of T regs (regulatory T cells), and some inhibitory molecules like PDL-1 and Fas ligand [30]. Decrease in antibody production, increase in immunosuppressive cytokines production e.g., (TGF) tumor growth factor beta (β), and interleukin (IL)-10 [31]. It permits tumor cell growth by avoiding immune responses. For enhancement of immune responses more efficiently against tumor cells, the manipulation of checkpoints can be done like cancer cells that manipulate various immune checkpoints for their ends. The drawback of increased chances of tissue damage due to the use of checkpoint blockages as a therapeutic agent in immunotherapy [32].

CTLA-4 (CD152) checkpoint receptor is mostly reoresented on T cells (T regs, CD4+, and CD8+). The binding of CTLA-4 (CD152) receptors to the cell's checkpoint ligands, B7-1 and B7-2, causes the cell to be negatively regulated [33]. Consequently, it is the perfect receptor to target for the tumour. During an immunological response, CD80 and CD86 from APCs (antigen-presenting sites) connect to CD28 on T cells, providing T cell activation co-stimulatory signals by MHC II binding to TCR [34]. When T cells express CTLA-4, it commonly binds to CD80 and CD86 B7 protein as it has a comparatively high affinity than theCD28. The interaction of CD28 with both the B7 proteins is prevented by the binding of CTLA-4 with CD86 and CD80. It prevents activation of T cells which regulate immune response negatively [35].

PD-1 is also termed as CD279, a checkpoint having a function of immune response downregulation by promoting self-tolerance and autoimmunity reduction [36]. The PD-1 receptors are presented mostly on T cells that are of the peripheral tissue. PD-1 binds to 2 ligands during an immune response, one is PDL-1 (B7-H1 and CD274) which are found on most tissues. The second is PDL-2 (B7-DC and CD273) found only on hematopoietic lineage cells [36]. The LAG-3 also termed CD223, are an expression of NK cells and CD4⁺ and CD8+ cells surface. pro-inflammatory cytokines such as the interferon-gamma (IFN-γ) upregulate LAG-3 during immune responses. The binding of class II MHC molecules to TCR is prevented by binding of class II MHC to LAG-3 to inhibit stimulation of T cells. TNF-α and IL-12 upregulating signaling pathways are a result of the LAG-3 binding to MHC II on dendritic cells. KIRs also termed CD158, are usually reported on NK cells but have also been reported on tumor-specific cytotoxic T cells [37].

On CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells TIM-3 is found to be a marker. Signaling pathways of immune response negative regulation are expected to be started by following the binding of TIM-3 to galectin. For example, T cell function reduction, increasing death of CD4⁺ T cell, promoting suppressor cell development that is derived from myeloid. Immunotherapy of Anti-TIM-3 is under development [38].

CD137 is another name for the 4-1BB. It belongs to the family of TNF receptor and is represented on a variety of immune cells, including neutrophils, CD4+ and CD8+ cells, activated NK cells, and dendritic cells (DCs). It binds to its 4-1BB ligand that is found on B cells, macrophages, and DCs. Pathways of proinflammatory signaling can be activated by 4-1BB as being a molecule of costimulation. The pathway includes NF-kB, p38, and c-jun for the promotion of immune response. 4-1BB becomes an important immunotherapeutic agent as it is a positive immune response stimulator [39].

GITR, also termed CD357, is a CSR found on $CD4^+$, CD8⁺ T cells, and T regs, along with its ligands (GITRL), which are located on various epithelial cells and APCs. GITR and its ligand binding induce the signaling pathways to increase immune response by effector T cell and T cell enhancement and T reg activity reduction [40]. The TIGIT is found on many lymphocytes like NK cells and T cells. NK cell and T cell activation and TIM-3 expression stimulation are inhibited by the binding of TIGIT to its ligands CD155 (A Poliovirus Receptor). CD155 is located on immune cells like DCs and macrophages. T cells are activated by blocking TIGIT binding resulting in potential therapeutic advantages [41].

Types of Immune checkpoint inhibitors and their function

In the last decades, ICIs development has the greatest advancements in immunotherapeutic methods of cancer treatment. ICIs are the antibodies that inhibit the receptors of the immune checkpoint, PD-1/PD-L1, and CTLA-4. It has potential benefits in cancer treatment for long-term survival and antitumor effect production in malignancies of the broad spectrum [42].

Table 1. Drugs used as immune checkpoint inhibitors, their target checkpoints, and approved uses in cancer treatment [43]

 * CTLA-4 - Cytotoxic T Lymphocyte Antigen, PD-1 - Programmed Cell Death Protein, PDL-1 - Programmed Cell Death Ligand 1.

12326

Immune checkpoint inhibitors and monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are becoming the most important immunotherapies, despite the progress of Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT). The immune checkpoint is a coinhibitory signaling pathway molecule that functions as immune tolerance maintenance. Yet they evade immunosurveillance, they can be utilized. To promote the immunemediated malignant cells elimination and coinhibitory signaling pathways interruption are generated as an antitumor immune response by the ICIs design and functioning. CTLA-4 , PD-1, and PD-L1 are the most frequently used targets for ICIs [44]. The coinhibitory molecule CTLA-4 is expressed on T cells and it functions for negative regulation of activation of T-cells. The reinforcement of antitumor immune responses by the immune cell breaks by utilizing antibodies, regeneration of tumor, and inducement of effective immune responses are demonstrated by the pioneering study of blocking of CTLA-4. CTLA-4 (mAb), ipilimumab was the very first approved and accepted ICI for the treatment of cancer after the efficacy evaluation and several clinical trials. Ipilimumab has induced durable responses and activation of enhanced T-cells. In parallel with that discovery, PD-1 became expressed on T cells surface and it was originally expected for taking part in (PCD) programmed cell death. After that it was found to be act as an immune response negative regulator. The PD-1s regulatory mechanism remained incomprehensive till its ligand (PD-L1) discovery which represents normal tissue and functioning to immune tolerance regulation by suppressing the proliferation of TCR-mediated lymphocytes and secretion of cytokines while binding to the PD-1. However, the tumor cells express the PD-L1 abnormally for immune surveillance escape. As per the study inducement of tumor regeneration and reinvigoration of T cells' cytotoxic ability is due to the PD-1 or PD-L1 inhibition [45]. It suggests that several therapeutic targets can be served by PD-1 or PD-L1. Extraordinary clinical outcomes are achieved by PD-2 pathways blocked. The multiple cancer treatment is done by PD-1 or PD-L1 are antibody targeting has been approved.

Mechanism of immune checkpoints inhibitors in cancer therapy A brief explanation of the mechanism of Immune checkpoints inhibitors in cancer therapy

The immune checkpoints are a normal component of the immune system, and their purpose is to prevent or to stop immune responses from intensifying to the point that they threaten to kill healthy cells in the body. When the immune cell (T cell) proteins bind to its partner protein (tumor cells) then the immune checkpoints get engaged. When the partner protein and checkpoint proteins bind together, it sends a signal 'off" to the immune cell (T cell). Destroying cancer from the immune system is prevented by these proteins. One of the drugs CTLA-4 is act against the checkpoint proteins. PD-1 or PD-L1 (partner protein) are the checkpoint inhibitors that act on checkpoint proteins. Production of PD-L1 can turn down the T cell or immune cell responses. Interaction of inhibitory receptors with ligands inhibition results in intratumor CD8+ cells. anti-PD-1/PD-L1 or anti-CTLA-4 results in immune system activation due to tumor immunity reversal inhibition roles [46].

Inhibitory receptors of CTLA-4 or blocked PD-1S axis clinical activities accounted by different complementary mechanisms. [ADCC](https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/medicine-and-dentistry/antibody-dependent-cellular-cytotoxicity) is mediated by only [NK cells,](https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/medicine-and-dentistry/natural-killer-cell)

and macrophage [Fc receptors](https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/medicine-and-dentistry/fc-receptor) like [ipilimumab,](https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/medicine-and-dentistry/ipilimumab) which is an isotopic antibody. T cells metabolic reprogramming is allowed by the transmission of reverse inhibitory signals by the anti-PD-1 or the anti-CTLA-4 antibodies. Blocking the interaction of PD-L1 results in PD-L1 reverse signaling on tumor cells.

Tumor rejection is hypothesized to be induced by CTLA4 inhibition via a variety of different pathways. The primary mechanism seems to be the direct inhibition of CTLA4 competition for the costimulatory ligands B7-1 and B7-2, that are allowing the unlimited CD28-mediated positive co-stimulation. The investigation of crystallographic structural of the ipilimumab: the complex of CTLA-4 shows that the binding epitope of ipilimumab overlaps with the interaction region of B7, suggesting that the primary mechanism of action of the drug is steric suppression of B7 interactions. By raising both the quantity and functional activity of CD8 T cells, PD-1 blockade can lead to tumour rejection by revitalising these cells [46]. Because the PD-1 signalling axis is inhibited, proximal TCR signalling is not diminished by PD-1, allowing worn-out CD8 effectors to be activated. Therefore, exhausted T cells can be resurrected and mount an effective immune response even if PD-L1 is still present in the tumour microenvironment. Clinical findings show that inhibiting the PD-1 signalling axis is very effective in cancers when an response of endogenous T-cell has already been activated but is blocked by the engagement of PD-1 with its ligands PD-L1 and PD-L2. However, some PD-L1 negative tumour responses imply that an immune response is already in place [47]. T cell activation progress is initiated by the therapeutic intervention of anti– PD-1 and anti-CTLA4 antibody-mediated negative regulation using the normal mechanism of regulation. anti–PD-1 and anti-CTLA4 efficacy is thought to be increased by several complementary mechanisms in addition to the effector function intrinsic enhancements of a cell [47]. It includes T regs depletion, positive co-stimulation of T cell enhancement in the microenvironment mediated by the antibodies further the PD-L1 and B7-1 interactions blockade, and the microenvironment is blocked by signals of host-derived PD-L1 from nontumor cells.

Figure 1. Mechanism of Immune Checkpoints Inhibitors in Cancer Therapy [48]

Immune checkpoint inhibitors include negative effects that can vary from person to person. The adverse effects you may experience and how they affect you will

depend on your pre-treatment health, the type of cancer you have, its stage, the immune checkpoint inhibitor you are using, and the dosage. One of the less frequent negative effects of immune checkpoint inhibitors is widespread inflammation. Symptoms of inflammation can vary depending on the organ of your body that is affected, including changes in skin colour, a rash, and itching in the case of the skin, a cough and chest pains in the case of the lungs, abdominal pain and diarrhoea in the case of the colon, nephritis (inflammation of the kidney) and impaired kidney function, diabetes, which is brought on by pancreatic

Recent advancements in immunotherapy in cancer treatment

inflammation, hepatitis (inflammation of the liver), hypophys [48].

Numerous patients with a wide range of solid and hematological malignancies now have better prognoses because of immunotherapy, which has established itself as a key component of cancer treatment. The two main reasons that have contributed to this success are the immune checkpoint inhibitors (CPIs) and the T cell chimeric antigen receptor (CAR). Cancer immunotherapy is a rapidly developing field [49]. The findings of the research on checkpoint blockade that is now being conducted will probably allow CPIs to be used in more patient groups (such as new tumor entities, unique patient populations, and perioperative use,), and they may also help to identify new CPI combo partners. The major challenge for this therapy in the coming years will be the application for solid malignancies of adoptive T-cell therapy. A successful method may include more advanced and effective genetic engineering tools of CAR T cells along with creation of more complex procedures for tumor-reactive (TCR-native) T cells uses. There has been a noticeable shift in clinical trials with respect to regional distribution of immunotherapy [50].

Conclusion

Now there are several treatments available for cancer. The treatment to be given is completely depends on some factors including the stage of cancer, patients' general health, type of cancer, and treatment preferences. The heckpoint inhibitors are immunotherapy drugs that prevent the binding of immune checkpoints to their partner proteins. This blocking allows T cells for killing the cancer cells by preventing the signals from being sent for immunization. To maintain homeostasis several pathways of immune signaling are employed that inhibit or stimulate immune responses. These pathways of immune signaling prevent self-harm and show optimal immune responses against foreign antigens as they are designed for that. These immune signals that regulate immune responses in the body are also known as immune checkpoints. The numerous self-regulating checkpoints responses to the immune system are exploited by the cancerous cells. Immune responses are regulated negatively by manipulating these immune checkpoints. PD-1, and CTLA-4 are the most frequently used targets for ICIs. The coinhibitory molecule CTLA-4 is presented on T cells and it functions for negative regulation of activation of T-cells. CTLA-4 (mAb), ipilimumab became the very first approved ICI for the treatment of cancer after the efficacy evaluation and several clinical trials. Inhibitory receptors of CTLA-4 or blocked PD-1 axis clinical activities accounted by different complementary mechanisms. ICIs are the antibodies that inhibit the receptors of immune

checkpoint, PD-1/PD-L1, and CTLA-4. It has potential benefits in cancer treatment for long-term survival and antitumor effect production in malignancies of a broad spectrum. Numerous patients with a wide range of solid and hematological malignancies now have better prognoses because of immunotherapy, which has established itself as a key component of cancer treatment

References

- 1. Akinleye, A., & Rasool, Z. (2019). Immune checkpoint inhibitors of PD-L1 as cancer therapeutics. *Journal of hematology & oncology*, *12*(1), 1-13.
- 2. Alegre, M. L., Frauwirth, K. A., & Thompson, C. B. (2001). T-cell regulation by CD28 and CTLA-4. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, *1*(3), 220-228.
- 3. Ayoub, N. M., Al-Shami, K. M., & Yaghan, R. J. (2019). Immunotherapy for HER2-positive breast cancer: recent advances and combination therapeutic approaches. *Breast Cancer: Targets and Therapy*, *11*, 53.
- 4. Bashiri Dezfouli, A., Yazdi, M., Pockley, A. G., Khosravi, M., Kobold, S., Wagner, E., & Multhoff, G. (2021). NK cells armed with chimeric antigen receptors (CAR): Roadblocks to successful development. *Cells*, *10*(12), 3390.
- 5. Baskar, R., Lee, K. A., Yeo, R., & Yeoh, K. W. (2012). Cancer and radiation therapy: current advances and future directions. *International journal of medical sciences*, *9*(3), 193.
- 6. Bianco, P., Riminucci, M., Gronthos, S., & Robey, P. G. (2001). Bone marrow stromal stem cells: nature, biology, and potential applications. *Stem cells*, *19*(3), 180-192.
- 7. Bucht, A., Larsson, P., Weisbrot, L., Thorne, C., Pisa, P., Smedegård, G., ... & Grönberg, A. (1996). Expression of interferon‐gamma (IFN‐δ), IL‐10, IL‐12 and transforming growth factor‐beta (TGF‐β) mRNA in synovial fluid cells from patients in the early and late phases of rheumatoid arthritis (RA). *Clinical & Experimental Immunology*, *103*(3), 357-367.
- 8. Chambers, C. A., & Allison, J. P. (1997). Co-stimulation in T cell responses. *Current opinion in immunology*, *9*(3), 396-404.
- 9. Chan, T. A., Yarchoan, M., Jaffee, E., Swanton, C., Quezada, S. A., Stenzinger, A., & Peters, S. (2019). Development of tumor mutation burden as an immunotherapy biomarker: utility for the oncology clinic. *Annals of Oncology*, *30*(1), 44-56.
- 10. Chang, L., Chang, M., Chang, H. M., & Chang, F. (2018). Microsatellite instability: a predictive biomarker for cancer immunotherapy. *Applied Immunohistochemistry & Molecular Morphology*, *26*(2), e15-e21.
- 11. Chauvin, J. M., & Zarour, H. M. (2020). TIGIT in cancer immunotherapy. *Journal for immunotherapy of cancer*, *8*(2).
- 12. Chouthai, A., Makar, M., & Sarkar, A. (2021). Non-surgical Management of Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors (PNETs). In *Hepato-Pancreato-Biliary Malignancies: Diagnosis and Treatment in the 21st Century* (pp. 1-27). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- 13. Croft, M. (2009). The role of TNF superfamily members in T-cell function and diseases. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, *9*(4), 271-285.
- 14. de Coaña, Y. P., Choudhury, A., & Kiessling, R. (2015). Checkpoint blockade for cancer therapy: revitalizing a suppressed immune system. *Trends in molecular medicine*, *21*(8), 482-491.
- 15. De Silva, D. D., Rapior, S., Fons, F., Bahkali, A. H., & Hyde, K. D. (2012). Medicinal mushrooms in supportive cancer therapies: an approach to anticancer effects and putative mechanisms of action. *Fungal Diversity*, *55*(1), 1- 35.
- 16. DeVita Jr, V. T., & Chu, E. (2008). A history of cancer chemotherapy. *Cancer research*, *68*(21), 8643-8653.
- 17. Fife, B. T., & Bluestone, J. A. (2008). Control of peripheral T‐cell tolerance and autoimmunity via the CTLA‐4 and PD‐1 pathways. *Immunological reviews*, *224*(1), 166-182.
- 18. Friedrich, T., Henthorn, N., & Durante, M. (2021). Modeling radioimmune response—current status and perspectives. *Frontiers in Oncology*, *11*, 647272.
- 19. Haley, B., & Frenkel, E. (2008, January). Nanoparticles for drug delivery in cancer treatment. In *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and original investigations* (Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 57-64). Elsevier.
- 20. He, J., Hu, Y., Hu, M., & Li, B. (2015). Development of PD-1/PD-L1 pathway in tumor immune microenvironment and treatment for non-small cell lung cancer. *Scientific reports*, *5*(1), 1-9.
- 21. Hellman, S., & Vokes, E. E. (1996). Advancing current treatments for cancer. *Scientific American*, *275*(3), 118-123.
- 22. Izcue, A., Coombes, J. L., & Powrie, F. (2006). Regulatory T cells suppress systemic and mucosal immune activation to control intestinal inflammation. *Immunological reviews*, *212*(1), 256-271.
- 23. Jamuna, R. (2015). Data mining technique applied to DNA sequencing. *International Research Journal of Management, IT and Social Sciences*, 2(7), 15-19. Retrieved from https://sloap.org/journals/index.php/irjmis/article/view/314
- 24. Kang, S. H., Hwang, H. J., Yoo, J. W., Kim, H., Choi, E. S., Hwang, S. H., ... & Koh, K. N. (2019). Expression of immune checkpoint receptors on T-cells and their ligands on leukemia blasts in childhood acute leukemia. *Anticancer Research*, *39*(10), 5531-5539.
- 25. Kisielow, M., Kisielow, J., Capoferri‐Sollami, G., & Karjalainen, K. (2005). Expression of lymphocyte activation gene 3 (LAG‐3) on B cells is induced by T cells. *European journal of immunology*, *35*(7), 2081-2088.
- 26. Kruger, S., Ilmer, M., Kobold, S., Cadilha, B. L., Endres, S., Ormanns, S., ... & von Bergwelt-Baildon, M. (2019). Advances in cancer immunotherapy 2019–latest trends. *Journal of Experimental & Clinical Cancer Research*, *38*(1), 1-11.
- 27. Lee, L., Gupta, M., & Sahasranaman, S. (2016). Immune Checkpoint inhibitors: An introduction to the next-generation cancer immunotherapy. *The journal of clinical pharmacology*, *56*(2), 157-169.
- 28. Mahoney, K. M., Freeman, G. J., & McDermott, D. F. (2015). The next immune-checkpoint inhibitors: PD-1/PD-L1 blockade in melanoma. *Clinical therapeutics*, *37*(4), 764-782.
- 29. Mardis, E. R. (2019). Neoantigens and genome instability: Impact on immunogenomic phenotypes and immunotherapy response. *Genome medicine*, *11*(1), 1-12.
- 30. Markiewicz, D. A., Schultz, D. J., Haas, J. A., Harris, E. E., Fox, K. R., Glick, J. H., & Solin, L. J. (1996). The effects of sequence and type of chemotherapy and radiation therapy on cosmesis and complications after breast

conservation therapy. *International Journal of Radiation Oncology* Biology* Physics*, *35*(4), 661-668.

- 31. Maruyama, K., Okabayashi, K., & Kinoshita, T. (1987). Progress in gastric cancer surgery in Japan and its limits of radicality. *World journal of surgery*, *11*(4), 418-425.
- 32. Mba, I. E., & Nweze, E. I. (2022). Application of Nanotechnology in the Treatment of Infectious Diseases: An Overview. *Nanotechnology for Infectious Diseases*, 25-51.
- 33. Murphy, J. T. (2015). *Anaphylaxis caused by repetitive doses of a GITR agonist antibody*. Weill Medical College of Cornell University.
- 34. Old, L. J. (1996). Immunotherapy for cancer. *Scientific American*, *275*(3), 136- 143.
- 35. Pandey, P., Khan, F., Qari, H. A., Upadhyay, T. K., Alkhateeb, A. F., & Oves, M. (2022). Revolutionization in Cancer Therapeutics via Targeting Major Immune Checkpoints PD-1, PD-L1 and CTLA-4. *Pharmaceuticals*, *15*(3), 335.
- 36. Papaioannou, N. E., Beniata, O. V., Vitsos, P., Tsitsilonis, O., & Samara, P. (2016). Harnessing the immune system to improve cancer therapy. *Annals of translational medicine*, *4*(14).
- 37. Pauken, K. E., & Wherry, E. J. (2015). Overcoming T cell exhaustion in infection and cancer. *Trends in immunology*, *36*(4), 265-276.
- 38. Peggs, K. S., Quezada, S. A., & Allison, J. P. (2009). Cancer immunotherapy: co-stimulatory agonists and co-inhibitory antagonists. *Clinical & Experimental Immunology*, *157*(1), 9-19.
- 39. Porter, L. S., Keefe, F. J., Garst, J., Baucom, D. H., McBride, C. M., McKee, D. C., ... & Scipio, C. (2011). Caregiver-assisted coping skills training for lung cancer: results of a randomized clinical trial. *Journal of pain and symptom management*, *41*(1), 1-13.
- 40. Qin, S., Xu, L., Yi, M., Yu, S., Wu, K., & Luo, S. (2019). Novel immune checkpoint targets: moving beyond PD-1 and CTLA-4. *Molecular cancer*, *18*(1), 1-14.
- 41. Ramsay, A. G. (2013). Immune checkpoint blockade immunotherapy to activate anti‐tumour T‐cell immunity. *British journal of haematology*, *162*(3), 313-325.
- 42. Sakuishi, K., Jayaraman, P., Behar, S. M., Anderson, A. C., & Kuchroo, V. K. (2011). Emerging Tim-3 functions in antimicrobial and tumor immunity. *Trends in immunology*, *32*(8), 345-349.
- 43. Salmaninejad, A., Valilou, S. F., Shabgah, A. G., Aslani, S., Alimardani, M., Pasdar, A., & Sahebkar, A. (2019). PD‐1/PD‐L1 pathway: Basic biology and role in cancer immunotherapy. *Journal of cellular physiology*, *234*(10), 16824- 16837.
- 44. Sarfati, D., Koczwara, B., & Jackson, C. (2016). The impact of comorbidity on cancer and its treatment. *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians*, *66*(4), 337-350.
- 45. Shamseddine, A. A., Burman, B., Lee, N. Y., Zamarin, D., & Riaz, N. (2021). Tumor Immunity and Immunotherapy for HPV-Related CancersTumor Immunity and Immunotherapy for HPV-Related Cancers. *Cancer discovery*, *11*(8), 1896-1912.
- 46. Snyder, A., Makarov, V., Merghoub, T., Yuan, J., Zaretsky, J. M., Desrichard, A., ... & Chan, T. A. (2014). Genetic basis for clinical response to CTLA-4 blockade in melanoma. *New England Journal of Medicine*, *371*(23), 2189- 2199.
- 47. Suryatika, I. B. M., Anggarani, N. K. N., Poniman, S., & Sutapa, G. N. (2020). Potential risk of cancer in body organs as result of torak CT-scan exposure. *International Journal of Physical Sciences and Engineering*, *4*(3), 1– 6. https://doi.org/10.29332/ijpse.v4n3.465
- 48. Ventafridda, V., Tamburini, M., Caraceni, A., De Conno, F., & Naldi, F. (1987). A validation study of the WHO method for cancer pain relief. *Cancer*, *59*(4), 850-856.
- 49. Wang, G. X., Kurra, V., Gainor, J. F., Sullivan, R. J., Flaherty, K. T., Lee, S. I., & Fintelmann, F. J. (2017). Immune checkpoint inhibitor cancer therapy: spectrum of imaging findings. *Radiographics*, *37*(7), 2132-2144.
- 50. Weber, J. (2010, October). Immune checkpoint proteins: a new therapeutic paradigm for cancer—preclinical background: CTLA-4 and PD-1 blockade. In *Seminars in oncology* (Vol. 37, No. 5, pp. 430-439). WB Saunders.
- 51. Widana, I.K., Sumetri, N.W., Sutapa, I.K., Suryasa, W. (2021). Anthropometric measures for better cardiovascular and musculoskeletal health. *Computer Applications in Engineering Education*, *29*(3), 550–561. https://doi.org/10.1002/cae.22202
- 52. Wrangle, J., Wang, W., Koch, A., Easwaran, H., Mohammad, H. P., Vendetti, F., ... & Baylin, S. B. (2013). Alterations of immune response of non-small cell lung cancer with azacytidine. *Oncotarget*, *4*(11), 2067.
- 53. Zhang, Y., & Zhang, Z. (2020). The history and advances in cancer immunotherapy: understanding the characteristics of tumor-infiltrating immune cells and their therapeutic implications. *Cellular & molecular immunology*, *17*(8), 807-821.